



ICSS X

10th International Conference on Social Sciences

23 -24 September 2016

Madrid, Spain

Proceedings Book

Volume II

Edited by

Prof. Dr. Jaime Ferri Durá

ISBN 978-88-909164-5-8



9 788890 916458

REVISTIA
PUBLISHING AND RESEARCH

Proceedings
10th International Congress on Social Sciences
Madrid, 23 -24 September 2016
Volume II

In cooperation with
Ciencia Política y de la Administración II, Universidad Complutense Madrid

ISBN 9788890916458

Every reasonable effort has been made to ensure that the material in this book is true, correct, complete, and appropriate at the time of writing. Nevertheless, the publishers, the editors and the authors do not accept responsibility for any omission or error, or for any injury, damage, loss, or financial consequences arising from the use of the book. The views expressed by contributors do not necessarily reflect those of Revistia.

Typeset by Revistia
Printed in Madrid

Copyright © Revistia. All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced in any form or by any electronic or mechanical means, including information storage and retrieval systems, without written permission from the publisher or author, except in the case of a reviewer, who may quote brief passages embodied in critical articles or in a review.

Address: 11, Portland Road, London, SE25 4UF, United Kingdom

Tel: +44 2080680407

E-Mail: office@revistia.com

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CURRICULUM REFORMS FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION AND QUALITY HUMAN LIFE ...	19
SAM OLUSEYI OYEKAN, PHD.....	19
GEOPOLITICS OF ENERGY	31
BLERINA MUSKAJ.....	31
POLITICS AND HISTORY IN BEN OKRI'S THE FAMISHED ROAD	41
H. ELIF DILER PHD.....	41
DERYA EMIR PHD.	41
THE GRAMMAR ODYSSEY	47
LILLY METOM.....	47
AMELIA ALFRED TOM	47
SAIRA JOE.....	47
AWANG ROZAIMIE AWANG SHUIB (DR.)	47
THE SOCIOCULTURAL ASPECTS OF MERCHANT CLASS IN THE LIGHT OF RUSSIAN PAINTING ART	57
KAMILE SINEM KUCUK	57
TEACHERS AND SCHOOL "DISCIPLINE" IN GREECE: A CASE STUDY	62
DR DIMITRIS T. ZACHOS.....	62
ANNA DELAVERIDOU	62
ALEXANDRA GKONTZOU.....	62
SECURITIZATION OF MIGRATION AND HUMAN RIGHTS IN EUROPE.....	74
MSC ENELA TOPULLI.....	74
UTILIZATION TRENDS OF ENDOCRINE THERAPIES FOR BREAST CANCER IN ALBANIA DURING 2004-2014.....	81
LAERTA KAKARIQI.....	81
EDUARD KAKARIQI	81
COMPETENCE - BASED LEARNING IN THE ROMANIAN HIGHER EDUCATION: PERCEPTIONS FROM THE INSIDE	87
ADELA COMAN.....	87

CATALINA BONCIU	87
THE CHALLENGE OF THE TRAFFICKED GIRLS IN THE DIFFICULT PROCESS OF THE REINTEGRATION	97
ALISA BIÇOKU	97
DENISA BALLHYSA	97
SUPPLY CHAIN PLANNING IN DEFENCE OPERATIONS: A REVIEW FROM ALEXANDER THE GREAT TIME TO THE PRESENT	107
LAZAROS K. RIZOPOULOS	107
DIMITRIOS D. THOMAKOS	107
THE BRITISH COUNCIL’S DEVELOPMENT AFTER THE SECOND WORLD WAR	114
DR. MALIKA SAHEL.....	114
MEASUREMENT OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND INTERDEPENDENCE OF COUNTRIES	119
LARISA KORGANASHVILI	119
IS THE ADOPTION OF IFRS ENOUGH? WHAT ABOUT PROPER IMPLEMENTATION?	122
ALEXIS KYTHREOTIS	122
CONSTANTINOS CONSTANTINOU.....	122
MIGRATION AND SOCIAL TRANSFORMATION. THE CASE OF ALBANIA AND GREECE	132
RIFAT DEMALIJA	132
WHEN TEACHERS BECOME PARENTS: PARENTHOOD INFLUENCE ON GREEK TEACHERS’ PROFESSIONAL LIVES	141
KONSTANTINA KOUTROUBA	141
EIRINI KALANTZAKI	141
IOANNIS CHRISTOPOULOS.....	141
SMALL STEPS, GIANT LEAPS: PROJECT-BASED LEARNING IN A CONSERVATIVE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM. GREEK STUDENTS’ VIEWS	152
KONSTANTINA KOUTROUBA	152
LYDIA-ELENI ALEXAKI.....	152
THE EFFECT OF EMIGRATION ON MACEDONIAN LABOUR MARKET	163
MERITA ZULFIU ALILI.....	163
AN OVERVIEW OF THE CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORIES AND THEIR POSSIBLE IMPLICATIONS IN THE DESIGN OF THE ESP DIGITAL LEARNING ENVIRONMENT	170

SLAĐANA ŽIVKOVIĆ, PHD	170
COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY MIDDLE ESTERN POSTGRDUATE STUDENTS AT SERVICE ENCOUNTERS IN UNIVSERSTY MALAYA.....	176
SUO YANJU.....	176
SUO YANMEI.....	176
THE ARABIC TEACHER’S TRAINING AND THE EFFECT OF THEIR WORK SUCCESS: A CASE STUDY OF SULTAN IDRIS EDUCATION UNIVERSITY (UPSİ).....	181
DR. SUO YAN MEI	181
UST. ZARIMA MOHD ZAKARIA.....	181
DR. ZALIKA ADAM.....	181
SUO YAN JU.....	181
THE IMPACT OF REMITTANCES ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT - THE CASE OF KOSOVA	189
QËNDRËSË CUCI	189
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN GREEK MILITARY SERVICES. SEARCHING A DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLE	196
ELISSAVET KARAGEORGOU.....	196
MSc, MEd, PHD CAND	196
GEORGIOS DELIGEORGIU.....	196
LAZAROS RIZOPOULOS	196
THEODOROS STEFOU	196
IMPLEMENTING PROJECT-BASED EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN POST-GRADUATE STUDIES IN GREECE: A CASE STUDY	202
KARAGEORGOU ELISSAVET, PHD CAND.....	202
KOUTROUBA KONSTANTINA, ASSOC. PROF.	202
PMI (PUBLIC MEDIA INSTITUTION RADIO TELEVISION OF VOJVODINA THE NEW MEDIA ORGANIZATION	208
MSc SONJA KOKOTOVIĆ.....	208
PHD MIODRAG KOPRIVICA	208
MULTICULTURAL QUALIFICATION NECESSARY FOR MORE QUALITATIVE EDUCATION FOR THE ROMA COMMUNITY	219
MSc. ALKETA BULKU.....	219

PROBLEMS FOLLOWING THE EDUCATION OF ROMA CHILDREN IN THEIR FREE MOVEMENT AND THEIR ATTEMPTS FOR ASYLUM	228
MSC. ALKETA BULKU.....	228
STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVE FACTORS ON AIR POLLUTION IN IRAN CITIES.....	241
DR. SAEED SAFARI.....	241
THE CIVIL WAR IN GREECE AND RELATIONS WITH ALBANIA ACCORDING TO THE COMMUNIST PRESS DURING 1948 – 1949	251
PHD. CAND. MARSEL NILAJ.....	251
THE ROLE OF ETHNIC-BASED SOCIAL CAPITAL IN ESTABLISHING THE SPATIAL CONSENSUS AMONG URBAN GROWTH COALITIONS	262
MOHAMMAD HOSSEIN SHARIFZADEGAN	262
POUYA JOUDI GOL LAR.....	262
BEHZAD MALEKPOURASL	262
THE ROLE, RESPONSIBILITIES AND DUTIES OF THE HOMEROOM TEACHER IN ALBANIA EDUCATION SYSTEM DURING THE COMMUNIST REGIME (1945 – END OF '60-S)	270
LINDITA TRESKA – DOCT CAND.....	270
PROF.ASOC. DR. TOMI TRESKA	270
RELIGIOUS TOURISM AND SUFISM IN MOROCCO	279
DR DRISS BOUYAHYA.....	279
THE EARLY RETIREMENT AGE INCREMENT IN CASE OF REPUBLIC OF SRPSKA PENSION FUND. 290	
NIKOLINA BOŠNJAK	290
ZVEZDANA BOŠNJAK.....	290
THE PUBLIC EXPENDITURES AND ECONOMIC GROWTH: DSGE MODEL FOR BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA	300
NIKOLINA BOŠNJAK.....	300
REGIONAL SECURITY COMPLEX: THE MACEDONIAN CONTEXT.....	311
FATMIR M. XHELADINI.....	311
THE EVOLUTION OF THE ROLE OF THE NATIONAL PARLIAMENTS IN THE TREATIES OF THE EUROPIAN UNION.....	315
PRANVERA BEQIRAJ (MIHANI).....	315

DIFFERENCES ON EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS AMONG 10-12 YEARS OLD CHILDREN – PARENTS’ REPORT	321
EVIS FILI.....	321
PARENTS PERCEPTION ABOUT THE CORRELATION OF EMOTIONAL INTELIGENCE TRAIT AND EMPIRICAL SCALES OF EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS SCALES OF CHILDREN 10-12 YEARS OLD	325
EVIS FILI.....	325
REGULAR ECONOMETRIC MODEL OF TAYLOR FOR ALBANIA.....	331
AV. ERGYS MISHA.....	331
THE “ETHOS OF COMPASSION” IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL INTERVENTION: THE JANUS FACES OF HUMANITARIAN ACTION PROPOSALS	342
CRISTINA PINTO ALBUQUERQUE	342
THE EFFECTIVENESS OF QMS IMPLEMENTATION IN APPLYING OF QUALITY HEALTH CARE FOR PATIENTS IN HEALTH INSTITUTIONS OF KOSOVO.....	350
SAMIR LLESHI.....	350
HOSPITAL LOCATION SELECTION WITH GREY SYSTEM THEORY	359
HALIL ŞEN	359
MEHMET FATİH DEMİRAL	359
INTEGER PROGRAMMING MODEL FOR TWO-CENTERED DOUBLE TRAVELING SALESMAN PROBLEM.....	373
MEHMET FATİH DEMİRAL.....	373
HALIL ŞEN	373
HOW DO YOUNG PEOPLE RESPOND TO CONFLICT? A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ARGENTINEAN AND PORTUGUESE COLLEGE STUDENTS.....	380
ANA MARIA COSTA E SILVA	380
PROF. FLORENCIA BRANDONI.....	380
PROF. EDUARDO DUQUE.....	380
EXPORTS, EXCHANGE RATES AND PRODUCTIVITY: AN ANALYSIS OF THE JAPANESE MANUFACTURING SECTORS.....	390
ATSUYUKI KATO.....	390
THE INTRODUCTION AND THE APPLICATION OF TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS AS ADMINISTRATIVE EFFICIENCY FACTOR IN EDUCATION.....	401

BELIAS D.	401
VELISSARIOU E.	401
KYRIAKOU D.	401
KOUSTELIOS A.	401
SDROLIAS L.	401
VARSANIS K.	401
CAUSATIVE CONNECTORS, THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRAGMATIC AND SEMANTIC CONNECTORS AND THEIR GRAMMATICAL FUNCTION.....	409
FABIANA VELENCIA.....	409
CAUSATIVE SENTENCE CHARACTERISTIC'S BASED ON ITS SEMANTIC-STRUCTURE	413
FABIANA VELENCIA.....	413
THE IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL PARTICIPATION IN CREATING MEMORIALS	419
KATARZYNA WITASIAK	419
THEORY OF ARCHITECTURAL, SOCIAL PARTICIPATION AND "CONTACT" BY ROBERT ZEMECKIS	421
KAROL WYSZNACKI	421
LABOUR MOBILITY WITHIN THE EU: MAJOR EFFECTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MAIN SENDING AND RECEIVING ECONOMIES.....	424
NOJA GRATIELA GEORGIANA, PHD, LECTURER	424
PHD CAND. MOROC ANDREI	424
NOTION OF STRATEGIC CONTROL	438
QEMAJL SEJDIJA	438
JOB SATISFACTION IN THE HEALTH CARE SECTOR: EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FROM MEDICAL CARE IN GREECE	447
ALEXANDRA GKLIATI, PHD CAND.	447
DR. ANNA SAITI.....	447
THE INFLUENCE OF PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION ON SERVICE QUALITY OF CIVIL SERVANTS IN WEST SUMATRA INDONESIA	455
SYAMSIR	455
THE INTERNATIONAL COMPANY AND TAX AVOIDANCE.....	464
VIOLA TANTO.....	464

SOCIAL MEDIA’S POSITION IN WEB WITHIN THE SCOPE OF ONLINE INFORMATION FLOW	473
BURAK POLAT	473
THE TRANSITION TO DEMOCRACY IN BULGARIA: MUCH-NEEDED REFORMS, SHOWED BY AI- APPROACH, AI-METHODOLOGY AND AI-COGNITIVE G-SPACE ARCHITECTURE	481
GEORGI GOSHEV	481
MOTIF OF INFIDELITY IN V. NABOKOV’S <i>LAUGHTER IN THE DARK</i>.....	493
MARTYNA SIENKIEWICZ.....	493
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE FOR GREECE: JANUARY 2008- SEPTEMBER 2015	499
JUXHEN DUZHA	499
BRUNILDA HOXHALLI	499
ENXHI LIKA	499
STEISI MICI.....	499
COPYRIGHT AND COPYRIGHT PROTECTION.....	510
SAFET EMRULI.....	510
AGIM NUHIU	510
BESA KADRIU	510
THE RETENTION OF THE EMPLOYEES AS LONG AS POSSIBLE IN THE ORGANIZATION, THROUGH FINDING THE RIGHT FACTORS OF MOTIVATION. ALBANIA AS A CASE OF STUDY	515
SONELA STILLO.....	515
GENTISA FURXHI.....	515
PERSPECTIVES OF PRISON PRIVATIZATION AS A SOLUTION TO THE PRISON SYSTEM CRISIS IN CROATIA	523
IVICA PAVIĆ	523
BLOCKED BY DIPLOMATIC BARRIERS: SYRIAN REFUGEES AND THE EU-TURKEY MIGRATION COOPERATION	536
BASSANT HASSIB	536
DOAA NOUNOU	536
THE IMPACT OF MULTIMEDIA IN TEACHING AND LEARNING	546
FATMIR AGAJ.....	546
CONSENT TO TREATMENT AND ANAMNESIS AS PROBLEM OF COMMUNICATION WITH MINOR PATIENTS IN HEALTHCARE DECISION-MAKING.....	552

KARINA PALKOVA.....	552
SVETLANA SEMAKA	552
COMMUNICATION AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS IN THE CONTEXT OF DOWNTOWN AREA RENEWAL. CASE STUDY OF POZNAN IN POLAND	558
ARCH. BARTOSZ KAZMIERCZAK, PHD.....	558
PARTICIPATION AND PARTNERSHIP WITHIN REVIVAL PROCESS. CASE STUDY OF A CITY OF POZNAN IN POLAND	562
DOMINIKA PAZDER PHD	562
PSYCHOLOGICAL REASONS FOR "VOLUNTARY SERVITUDE"	566
FERIHAN POLAT, PHD.....	566
OZLEM OZDESIM SUBAY, MA	566
RETURNING AND RE-EMIGRATING GENDERED TRAJECTORIES OF (RE) INTEGRATION FROM GREECE	572
ARMELA XHAHO	572
ERKA ÇARO.....	572
MARKETING IN INSURANCE INDUSTRY, MARKETING FUNCTIONS IN INSURANCE INDUSTRY ..	581
BESNIK ZEKAJ	581
POLITICAL PARTIES IN KOSOVO , ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND THEIR INTERNAL DEMOCRACY	588
DR. SCI. VETON ZEJNULLAHI	588
OBTAINING OF COLLAGEN EXTRACTS USED AS BIOMATERIALS WITH APPLICATIONS IN THE MEDICAL FIELD	594
MELAT CHERIM	594
RODICA SÎRBU	594
STUDIES CONCERNING THE STABILITY IF ANTIOXIDANT COMPOUNDS IN ARONIA MELANOCARPA FRUITS.....	599
NALIANA LUPASCU.....	599
RODICA SÎRBU	599
ORDER OF THE INTERNATIONAL BAN AND ALBANIA'S AGREEMENTS WITH OTHER COUNTRIES	603
PH.D NIKOLIN HASANI.....	603

THE MODEL OF FACTORING AGREEMENT TO DEVELOP SMALL MEDIUM ENTERPRISES IN INDONESIA	608
SITI MALIKHATUN BADRIYAH.....	608
SITI MAHMUDAH.....	608
AMALIA DIAMANTINA.....	608
AJU PUTRIYANTI	608
INDAH SUSILOWATI	608
THE EMPOWERMENT PROGRAM FOR VILLAGES ECONOMY IMPROVEMENT THROUGH ALLEVIATING THE LAW OF LITTERCY OF THE COASTAL COMMUNITY PATI REGENCY CENTRAL JAVA PROVINCE –INDONESIA.....	617
ETTY SUSILOWATI	617
EKO SABAR PRIHATIN	617
AMIEK SOEMARMI	617
INDAH SUSILOWATI	617
THE PREMISES OF THE NATIONAL ECONOMY’S DEVELOPMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF INTEGRATION INTO THE EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AREA	625
CHISCA MARIA, PHD. CAND.	625
CRUDU RODICA, ASSOC. PROF. DR.	625
THE REFLECTIONS OF SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT PRACTICES ON R&D.....	639
MERT KILIÇ	639
HARUN DEMİRKAYA.....	639
MANAGERS IN POLISH ORGANIZATIONS - THE RESULTS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH.....	646
DR IZABELA BEDNARSKA-WNUK	646
LOCUS OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF ORGANIZATIONS AND INDIVIDUALS – THE RESULTS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH IN POLAND	655
DR KATARZYNA JANUSZKIEWICZ.....	655
CHITOSAN BASED FORMS FOR WOUND AND BURN DRESSINGS	665
RODICA SÎRBU.....	665
ALEF MUSTAFA	665
NEW FORMULATION WITH MARINE ALGAE FROM BLACK SEA.....	672
EMIN CADAR.....	672
EMILIA CADAR.....	672
CRISTINA-LUIZA ERIMIA	672

ANETA TOMESCU.....	672
ASPECT AND VERBAL ACTION IN ALBANIAN - ACTIVITY VERBS	679
PROF. GJILDA ALIMHILLI PRENDUSHI	679
DIAGNOSES OF (CON)TEMPORALITY: J.-F. LYOTARD, J.-L. NANCY, M. KRIEGER, AND P. GILROY	686
DR EWA BOBROWSKA	686
VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND FEMICIDES IN TURKEY.....	693
DR. SELDA TASDEMIR AFSAR.....	693
INFRASTRUCTURE –TRANSPORTATION AND NETWORKS: THOUGHTS ON THE CITY OF TOMORROW	704
DR. EFTHIMIOS BAKOGIANNIS	704
MARIA SITI	704
CHARALAMPOS KYRIAKIDIS	704
THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN POST-COMMUNIST ALBANIA	711
MELJANA BREGU	711
THE ANALYSIS OF WEAK-FORM EFFICIENCY IN THE MARKET OF CRUDE OIL	718
ANNA GÓRSKA	718
MONIKA KRAWIEC	718
COMMODITIES VERSUS STOCKS: ANALYSIS OF THEIR PERFORMANCE FROM 2009 THROUGH 2015.....	730
MONIKA KRAWIEC	730
THE POSITION OF TRADITIONAL ANATOLIAN JEWELLERY IN THE JEWELLERY SECTOR AND PRODUCTION PROBLEMS.....	743
DR. BIRNAZ ER	743
RAISING AWARENESS FOR GENDER EQUALITY IN HINDU MARRIAGE	753
MARYAM KAYDANI	753
NATO "FORCE GOALS, FG 2008" FOR ALBANIA	758
PHD.C JONELA CANAJ	758
URBAN SOCIOLOGY AND THE CITY.....	773
ERJONA FUSHA.....	773

ADAPTATION AND APPROPRIATION IN AIMÉ CÉSAIRE'S A TEMPEST	777
RAAD KAREEM ABD-AUN, PHD.....	777
QAISER MUNIR DIAB, BED	777
JURISPRUDENTIAL ANALYSIS ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AND COMPLIANCE WITH EUROPEAN SAFETY STANDARDS ON PATIENT MOBILITY IN THE ROMANIAN HEALTH SYSTEM	786
CRISTINA-LUIZA ERIMIA	786
RODICA SÎRBU	786
STELIAN PARIS.....	786
LANGUAGE ANXIETY AMONG ADULT LEARNERS IN UITM SARAWAK.....	791
SITI HUZAIMAH BINTI SAHARI.....	791
AIZA BINTI JOHARI	791
AFFIDAH BINTI MORNI.....	791
HOW MANUFACTURERS HASTE AND CONSUMERS TASTE TURN INTO ENVIRONMENTAL WASTE: A WASTE ANALYSIS OF PICNICKERS IN ESKIŞEHİR, TURKEY	797
NAZMI TASLACI	797
YAŞAR SARI.....	797
DAVUT UYSAL	797
THE SIDE EFFECTS OF UNPLANNED PROMOTION OF TOURISM IN RURAL REGIONS: AN ANALYSIS OF CUMALIKIZIK VILLAGE, TURKEY.....	806
DAVUT UYSAL	806
YAŞAR SARI.....	806
NAZMI TASLACI	806
THE PROFILE OF TOMORROW'S SCHOOL TEACHER	814
DR. MARTA TOPÇIU	814
UNDERSTANDING IMPLEMENTATION OF BASEL II AND III IN ALBANIA: OBSTACLES AND SOLUTIONS	819
SOKOL NDOKA	819
ALTIN ZEFI.....	819
ERMELA KRIPA	819
EXTRADITION AS ONE OF THE FORMS OF TRANSFER OF DETAINEES AND CONVICTS. ALBANIAN EXPERIENCE	825
PH.D NIKOLIN HASANI.....	825

THE ROLE OF CAREER SELF-EFFICACY ON THE EFFECT OF PARENTAL CAREER BEHAVIORS ON CAREER EXPLORATION: A STUDY ON SCHOOL OF TOURISM AND HOTEL MANAGEMENT' STUDENTS	829
SELAHATTIN KANTEN	829
PELIN KANTEN.....	829
MURAT YEŞİLTAŞ	829
THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL VIRTUOUSNESS ON FRONT LINE EMPLOYEES' CUSTOMER ORIENTATION:ROLE OF PERFECTIONISM	841
PELIN KANTEN.....	841
SELAHATTIN KANTEN	841
MUHTEŞEM BARAN.....	841
AGRICULTURAL SECTOR AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN ALBANIA	858
DR. EVA DHIMITRI	858
PROF. ASSOC. DR. AIDA GABETA	858
MENTAL HEALTH PROTECTION AND HEALTH POLICY TOWARDS PEOPLE WITH MENTAL ILLNESSES. THE CASE OF POLAND	862
MAŁGORZATA DOBROWOLSKA	862
BERNADETTA IZYDORCZYK.....	862
THE PRINCIPLE OF INDEMNITY IN VALUED MARINE POLICIES	869
ABOUTALEB BAZVAND	869
NİETZSCHE'S APPROACH ON HISTORY AND THE GREAT GATSBY'S HISTORIOGRAPHICAL PERFORMANCE	877
PHD. CAND. DENİZ GÜRGEN	877
BUILDING REPRESENTATIVE INSTITUTIONS IN A POST-SOCIALIST COUNTRY. ELECTORAL REFORMS IN ALBANIA	882
PHD.C JULIANA MARKO	882
ECO-FEMINISM IN CONTEMPORARY FEMALE IRANIAN POETRY	888
NARGES BAGHERI	888
SHAHROUZ HAMIDI.....	888
THE EFFECT OF WORKSHOP TRAINING METHOD AND ELECTRONIC TEACHING METHOD ON MATHEMATICS LEARNING	894
AZAM SAFARI.....	894

DR. ZAHRA HOSSEINI.....	894
EMPLOYEES' MOTIVATION AND MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN PUBLIC ENTERPRISES IN DUKAGJIN'S PLAIN	900
ARDIAN BERISHA	900
SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' OPINIONS ABOUT LEVEL OF THEIR ENTREPRENEURSHIP	906
FATMA KÖYBAŞI.....	906
CELAL TEYYAR UĞURLU	906
THE UNIVERSITY STUDENT'S MOTIVATION LEVEL ON LEARNING ENGLISH.....	911
ASSIST. PROF. ESMIRA MEHDİYEV.....	911
ASSOC. PROF. CELAL TEYYAR UĞURLU	911
ASSIST. PROF. GONCA USTA.....	911
EUROPEAN INTEGRATION AND COMPETITIVENESS OF EU NEW MEMBER STATES.....	916
BORIS CHISTRUGA	916
RODICA CRUDU	916
RISK AND RESPONSIBILITY IN THE MEDICAL PHARMACEUTICAL PRACTICE	927
STELIAN PARIS	927
RODICA SIRBU	927
CRISTINA-LUIZA ERIMIA	927
ANTECEDENTS OF CUSTOMER LOYALTY IN B-TO-B RELATIONSHIPS: EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF COMMITMENT TYPES	934
OZNUR OZKAN TEKTAS	934
FACTORS EFFECTING ELECTRONIC SERVICE QUALITY IN STOCK MARKET: TOWARD AN INTEGRATION MODEL.....	935
NEDA KOUSHAN	935
DR. FRANCISCA PARRA GUERRERO.....	935
DR. ANTONIO PELÁEZ VERDET.....	935
DR. F. JAVIER RONDÁN-CATALUÑA	935
DOES DIFFERENT BACKGROUNDS LEAD TO COOPERATION OR CONFLICTS? : A RESEARCH ON UNIVERSITIES.....	936
BURCU ARACIOĞLU	936
CEREN DENİZ TATARLAR.....	936

TRAILING STOP LOSS AND RE-ENTRY STRATEGIES IN EUROPE – A COMPARISON BETWEEN GERMANY, FRANCE, SPAIN AND GREECE DURING THE CRISIS	937
ELISABETE DUARTE.....	937
REACTIONS AND EXTERNAL INFLUENCES TOWARDS ORGANIZATIONAL ACTIONS, A SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONIST PERSPECTIVE	938
PHD. CAND. ALEXANDRA GALBIN	938
SONGS OF THE “NEW FOLKLORE” IN THE VILLAGES OF TIRANA	939
PHD. KRESHNIK DUQI.....	939
SOCIAL INCLUSION OF YOUNG PEOPLE FROM CHILD PROTECTION SYSTEM.....	940
MARIA IORDACHE	940
THE WAQF IN BRITISH INDIA: ITS ECONOMIC EFFECTS	941
ANANTDEEP SINGH	941
PLURALISM OR MULTICULTURALISM? IMMIGRANT STATUS. A COMPARED STUDY BETWEEN GERMANY AND AUSTRIA	942
FITZEK CĂTĂLINA	942
FITZEK SEBASTIAN	942
TURNOUT AT THE 2016 ROMANIAN LOCAL ELECTIONS.....	943
IULIAN STĂNESCU	943
TRENDS IN ROMANIAN POVERTY SINCE THE GREAT RECESSION	944
IULIAN STĂNESCU	944
TEACHER COLLABORATION AT UAE SCHOOLS: TYPES AND REASONS.....	945
ALI IBRAHIM	945
DO PRE-M&A PERFORMANCES OF THE ACQUIRER AND THE TARGET PREDICT LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY IMPROVEMENT IN THE POST-M&A PERIOD? INDUSTRY SECTOR VS. SERVICES SECTOR	946
DR. ZIVA ROZEN-BAKHER	946
THE IMPACT OF FDI ON UNEMPLOYMENT: INWARD FDI VS. OUTWARD FDI.....	947
DR. ZIVA ROZEN-BAKHER	947
HOW CAN WE DEVELOP PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS’ INTERCULTURAL AWARENESS? THE TAKEAWAY FROM A COURSE IN AMERICAN CULTURE	948

SERVET ÇELİK	948
TWO-STEP PROCEDURE: COMPARISON WITH EXISTING MODELS	949
FATİH ORÇAN, PHD	949
THE ROLE OF FINANCIAL SELF-EFFICACY IN CORPORATE DECISION MAKING	950
PHD. CAND. CEREN DENİZ TATARLAR	950
ÖZGÜR BABACAN.....	950
DİLEK DEMİRHAN.....	950
THE MYTHOLOGY OF THE AGE IN BEHÇET NECATİGİL'S POETRY	951
KABİL DEMİRKİRAN	951
DEMOTIVATION FACTORS FOR EFL TEACHERS: CASE STUDIES	952
ÇAĞLA TAŞCI.....	952
THE EVALUATION OVER THE DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN THE MEWÂLÎ ON UMAYYAD PERIOD AND THE MUWALLAD ON ANDALUSIAN Umayyad PERIOD	953
PHD. CAND. GÜLHAN DUYGUN	953
FROM MOLIÈRE'S TARTUFFE TO NAZİM HİKMET'S TARTÜF 59.....	954
DR. ESRA DİCLE BAŞBUĞ.....	954
GENDER AND REPRESENTATION; A STUDY OF WOMEN COUNCILLORS IN URBAN LOCAL BODIES	955
ASSOC. PROF. DR. JOYA BHATTACHARYA SINHA	955
GENDER SWAPPING ON THE ONLINE SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES: FACEBOOK AS AN ESCAPING PLATFORM FROM THE OFFLINE REALITIES: AN IRAQI STUDY	956
PHD. CAND. AHMED BAHİYA	956
GENDER AND SUSTAINABILITY EDUCATION. BEST PRACTICES EXPERIENCED BY THREE WOMEN	957
SILVANA PANZA.....	957
WHO ARE THE MOST VULNERABLE? A QUALITATIVE APPROACH ON POTENTIAL WORKERS IN SOCIAL ECONOMY.....	958
SIMONA MARIA STANESCU, PHD.....	958
SORIN CACE, PHD.....	958
PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS AND SMOKING AMONG TURKISH COLLEGE STUDENTS	959

HIKMET YAZICI.....	959
THE INFLUENCES OF WESTERN ARTS AND LITERATURE IN CEMAL SUREYA'S POETRY	960
PHD. CAND. ATANUR MEMIŞ	960
BRANDING TOURIST DESTINATIONS	961
ZVJEZDANA BOŠNJAK.....	961

Curriculum Reforms for Entrepreneurship Education and Quality Human Life

Sam Oluseyi Oyekan, PhD

Department of Special Education & Curriculum Studies,
Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Nigeria.

Abstract

Curriculum is the hard core of education that provides the basic contents and means of relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes for sustainable development. Schools are the generational educative agencies which would impart the functional learning experiences required to refine and nurture learners into productive manpower for technological advancement, industrial development and economic growth of the nation. The purpose of this paper is to highlight the relevance of curriculum reforms in the facilitation of educational innovations, entrepreneurial training and wealth creation for quality human life. It will be construed as a potent platform to seek and resolve prevailing problems associated with access to quality education, human capacity building, self-reliant employment opportunities and welfare of the citizenry. The school curriculum should provide a diversity of learning contents, creative innovations, professional standards and industrial experiences that will maximize the talents of learners, generate job opportunities and cater for the critical needs of self-reliant society. Hence, it is suggested that an increased access and funding of comprehensive education, distillation of entrepreneurial initiatives into the subject curricula, and the building of school-industry-community relationships and partnerships shall enhance continuing production of competent and responsive school graduates into the world of work. Such an educated workforce will have the capacity and capability to drive social, political, industrial and economic development for shared prosperity and quality of human life.

Keywords: Education, curriculum, entrepreneurial initiatives, creative innovations, prosperity, workforce, economy, sustainable future.

Introduction

Since the divine creation of human beings, education has been adopted essentially as a reformatory process in sustainable development of a dynamic society for shared prosperity and harmony of the citizenry (Adamu, 1994; Awofala & Sopekan, 2013; Oyekan, 2015). The potency of quality education makes progressive nations across the world to use the school curriculum for intellectual and vocational engagements of learners as a means of nurturing the required manpower needs in public and private sectors of the economy. This implies that the comprehensive school curriculum should reflect creative interests, new ideas and viable aspirations as well as vibrant cultural heritage, technological advancement, innovative industrial experiences and entrepreneurial needs of the contemporary society. In Oyekan's (2015) view, survival of such a dynamic human organisation is essentially anchored on sound education, training, induction and orientation of its people into their chosen professions. It is predicated on the conviction that functional education is the most enduring investment, legacy and tool for our future generations to pursue a common cause of development and advancement in all aspects of humanity.

Changing economic, social and political situations in both developed and developing countries have combined to create needs for constant innovations and reforms in education (Adamu, 1994). Such impactful changes might result from sufficient exploitation of valuable natural resources, provision of equal opportunities for school-age children, search for a more efficient strategy of achieving educational objectives, adoption of technology and engineering devices, desire for competent and productive manpower, massive failure in organised examinations, increasing unemployment, the scourge of corruption, leadership failure and the rising tides of poverty and insecurity across the nation. These multidimensional problems could become educational issues which may be configured into practical tasks for curriculum research and reforms in primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. Becoming real solutions to human capital development for quality assurance in all aspects of our national life, Engelberger (1982) noted that innovations require three basic things:

A recognised need,

Competent people with relevant technology (and morality), and

Steady financial support.

From the above disclosure, organised instructional practices would require effective coordination of resources and efforts of teachers, students and support staff towards consistent renewal of curriculum contents, materials, methods and assessment procedures. The tendency is to adopt supportive innovations, integrate technological devices and improve the strategic provision of functional education at all levels of schooling. Educational stakeholders should craft and implement sound curriculum development plans, and instructional programmes that will leverage their natural endowments to invest in human capital, practical agriculture, solid minerals, power, sports and tourism towards nurturing a broad-based economy with productive activities for industrialisation, job creation and revenue generation.

The nation's education system is, therefore, expected to provide the children and youths with basic insights, skills and attitudes relevant to living and coping with emerging industrial economy in a knowledge-driven society. A desirable curriculum represents the selection of knowledge and experiences deemed valuable by a particular society at a specific stage of its historical evolution (Kwong & Kooi, 1990). While the curriculum is recognised as the heart of education, curriculum reform could be regarded as a change response for diagnostic remediation of identified challenges in schooling, economy and society. It is, therefore, instructive to note that these critical imperatives of curriculum reform will necessitate the need for school curriculum improvement. Which is why the curriculum reform becomes a means of transformation to enhance the quality of professional training, learning enhancement, manpower development and leadership vision for good governance, economic growth and shared prosperity of the citizenry? Effective performance of competent teachers might, therefore, require adequate professional education, expertise, orientation, integrity and discipline with an exemplary cordiality and commitment to best practices in human resource development. This may be complemented with industrial skills gap assessment to identify the quantity, availability and utility of such abilities to enhance employability of school graduates, poverty alleviation and healthy life.

Hence, this paper examines the role of curriculum reforms for entrepreneurship education and quality human life. The purpose is to highlight the relevance of curriculum reforms in the facilitation of educational innovation, vocational competence, entrepreneurial training and wealth creation for the wellbeing of mankind. It will be construed as a potent platform to seek and resolve prevailing problems associated with equal access to quality education, human capacity building, self-reliant employment opportunities and welfare of the citizenry. Efforts shall be made to highlight the basic challenges, strategies and prospects of curriculum reforms for human capital development. The relationship between curriculum reforms and entrepreneurship education may provide the basis for professionalisation and vocationalisation of learning contents. It could strengthen the school graduates with employable competence, productivity and work ethics that would make them self-reliant and self-fulfilled individuals.

Challenges of Curriculum Reforms

A school curriculum is a socially-constructed response to perceived issues and demands in the society (Kwong and Kooi, 1990). It is central both to the enterprise of education and the image which the society wishes to project of its past, present and desired future. In past colonial developing countries such as Nigeria, education which is denominated on meaningful schooling is severally regarded as an instrument of social reconstruction, economic prosperity and political stability (Oyekan, 2000). Emphasis is on the need to maximize and refine the potentials of human resources with a broad-based curriculum built on a core of basic academic subjects, pre-vocational studies and co-curricular activities. Its successful actualization severally demands a multitude of roles and virtues from good teachers and instructors as well as timely resolution of resource and logistics challenges at all stages of curriculum reforms.

Challenges of curriculum reforms are nearly proportional to the series of problems associated with inequitable infrastructural provision, limited accessibility to quality education, brazen corruption, ravenous poverty and stressful insecurity across the world. It implies that education which is supposed to be an enduring catalyst for capacity building and utilization in all fabrics of the society appears to be enmeshed in a network of avoidable contradictions and crises (Oyekan, 2000). An x-ray of problems which could hinder curriculum reforms in Nigerian schools (Kwong and Kooi, 1990; Adamu, 1994; Oyekan, 1997, 2015) includes:

Inadequate funding of education and training programmes at all levels of schooling;

Dearth of suitably trained and qualified professional teachers in vocational, technical and core subjects;

Insufficiency of functional modern educational facilities typified by well-equipped classrooms and workshops, well-stocked libraries and laboratories as well as durable Internet and recreational resources;

Undue interference of cultural, ethnic, religious and political considerations in educational matters;

Paucity of innovative educational research works for accurate data collection and analysis, effective teaching and problem solving for national development;

Increasing student population that results in large class size and heavy work load for teachers and support staff;

Inadequate school-industry-community partnerships and integration of formal and indigenous education systems for self-reliance and employability of school graduates;

Lingering social, economic and political crises with impact on education and society;

Intrusion of schools by social vices such as corruption, cultism, drug abuse, examination malpractices, sexual harassment and vandalisation of infrastructural facilities ;

Insufficient sponsorship of educational staff to attend regular in-service training programmes aimed at enhancing currency of subject matter, pedagogy, professionalism, productivity and excellence in service delivery;

Resistance of some educational professionals towards global curriculum innovations and blended learning devices;

High unemployment rate, weak socio-emotional abilities, and aversion towards education and training;

Inadequate school inspection and instructional supervision for quality assurance in education;

Scarcity of quality textbooks, journals, magazines and manuals to support the curriculum reforms in schools;

Insufficient reliable database of available skills for capacity building and opportunities in labour market; and

Inadequate involvement of relevant regulatory bodies and training institutes for improving and guiding skills' trainers.

From the foregoing, curriculum tasks have been entangled in a spate of avoidable inadequacies and unethical practices that can hinder the corporate existence of educational institutions, erode the credibility their awarded certificates, and impair the employability of the school graduates (Oyekan, 1997). A number of factors that culminate in crises in education and consequently hinder curriculum reforms are often precipitated by inadequacies of students, parents, governments, educational supervisory agencies, regulatory professional organisations, examination bodies, private sector, and the Nigerian society. These constraints should be removed with priority attention to qualitative education in this era of globalisation, which demands a consensus on the importance of collective management of cross-border issues such as commerce, vocational education, employment, environment, narcotics and terrorism.

For schools to cope with the dynamic global challenges and best practices for quality human life, curriculum improvement should embrace the current changes towards professionalisation, vocationalisation and integration of technological devices into Nigerian educational system. The tendency is to promote blended learning and entrepreneurship education by enhancing the provision of generative knowledge, enterprising skills and professional standards which can develop the creative talents of learners and increase their chances of creating or securing gainful jobs. It becomes expedient to enrich the schools with sufficient funds, modern infrastructural facilities, and competent manpower that could provide meaningful science, technology, humanities, and management programmes for a broad spectrum of learners with varying needs.

Strategy for Functional Curriculum Reforms

Curriculum is the hard core of education that provides the basic contents and means of relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes for sustainable development and shared prosperity of the citizenry (Oyekan, 1997). This is why schools are the generational educative agencies which would impart the functional learning experiences required to refine and nurture learners into productive manpower for technological advancement, industrial development and economic growth of the nation. It implies that quality education should aim at the creation of a new society of educated people who will continually

adopt practical reasoning, critical dialogue, creative production of things and preventive diplomacy in rational resolution of human and environmental problems. The corollary is that emphasis should be placed on functional education which will spur learners to engage in creative thinking, analyse emerging issues, solve attendant problems as well as construct useful things, render innovative services, and harness the natural resources of their living environment. As such practical education and entrepreneurial orientation develop their potentials and biodiversity to accomplish individual and national needs, our schools would have trained well-qualified boys and girls to become diligent and responsible professionals in all human disciplines. These inspiring leaders with new insights and perspectives for a new world will help in tapping and preserving the nation's wealth for social, economic and political development of the country.

Historical antecedents and contemporary realities of curriculum reforms result from earlier missionary and community involvements in education, curriculum improvements and policy statements of the Nigerian government in tandem with the globalising world. The basic characteristics and procedures of any curriculum reform efforts can be explained and understood within the context of curriculum theories, infrastructural needs, industrial skills gap assessment, and human capital development for effective citizenship in a global learning community for all. A viable curriculum reform might evolve from a critical review of the Nigerian education system vis-à-vis the contemporary demands of nation building and preparation of productive citizenry for happy and useful living in the society. It involves a series of wide consultations, constructive dialogue, incisive educational conferences and pragmatic curriculum workshops to fine tune emerging ideas, interests, needs and visions of learners, parents, governments, industries and the communities constituting the nation. This is in consonance with the classical National Curriculum Conference held in the University of Lagos, Lagos from 8th-12th September, 1969. It was a universal forum of all educational stakeholders adopted by the Federal Government to ruminate on a legion of public criticisms and discontent with the effectiveness of our education system, and to suggest a viable functional schooling pattern within the context of our cultural heritage, and national resources. Herein the purposeful conference emanated from the prospective windows of developmental opportunities created after the Second World War in 1945; colonial rule up to independence on 1st October, 1960 and post-independence era, which witnessed the proliferation of schools and industries; and the critical need for substantial manpower resources to manage the new independent government, increasing school-age children and growing national economy (Oyekan, 2015). A clear necessity to forge a new strategic direction in curriculum reform therein arose from a national outlook to review the prevailing education system for relevance in self-reliant manpower training, technological advancement, industrial development and economic growth of the country.

Hence, the Federal government was inspired to summon an inclusive seminar of distinguished educational experts, seasoned teachers, erudite scholars and accomplished professionals from a wide range of interests in 1973. The motive was to diversify the school curriculum, make it relevant to the varying needs and aspirations of individuals, and respond to the global realities of the modern world and rapid changes in Nigerian society for sustainable development. Between 1972 and 1976, a critical review of the Nigerian education system vis-à-vis the contemporary demands of nation building and productive citizenry was fine tuned with a series of insightful curriculum workshops on critical issues generated at the conference. The Conference Report largely provided the groundwork for the articulation of national policy guidelines on standards, procedures, strategies and innovations for the coordination of roles of stakeholders to ensure and sustain the delivery of qualitative education in Nigeria (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013). Much more significant and impactful educational decisions of the report severally led to the maiden publication of the National Policy on Education (NPE) in 1977; and subsequent reviewed editions in 1981, 1998, 2004 and 2013 respectively. Expected improvements in the education system embedded in the NPE were intended to keep with the contemporary realities of our living environment, dynamics of social change and the need to address noticeable gaps and provisions for modern advancements in the world of education and work.

A cursory look at the human society and schooling system will show that education has become a powerful tool necessary to unlock and nurture inherent human potential and vision for the resolution of economic, social and political challenges confronting the unity, stability and survival of Nigeria. This lends credence to the belief of World Bank (2016) that education is one of the most powerful instruments for reducing poverty and inequality, and lays a foundation for sustained economic growth. Educated people shall be regarded as those well-informed competent persons whose states of mind and behaviour naturally exhibit insightful ideas, creative skills and core values of humanity for quality life. A broad education should, therefore, prepare functional people who are fully integrated with their community to earn gainful living and promote rural transformation through peaceful co-existence. Enhancement of vocational competence, good habits and industrial experiences can largely promote functional self-reliance, mutual trust in learning and working environments, family

cohesion, social justice, poverty alleviation and stable polity in a democratic society (Oyekan, 1997). It is reasonable to infer that the countries which embrace a qualitative education, preserve their cultural heritage, and value an enlightened society usually have productive self-reliant citizens necessary to diversify the economy, manage technological change, and sustain a democratic leadership. Such vibrant fellows shall foster systemic thinking and development of new skills for sustainable future work and business operations.

The increased demand for comprehensive education, sustainable self-reliance and entrepreneurial training might inspire the need to make the curriculum functional, child-centred and job-oriented by relating it to specific individual aspirations, overall community needs, and key skill sets of future industries and economies. On this premise, functional schools at all levels of education system will have the capacity to accommodate a plethora of advances in human knowledge, technological innovations, industrial productions and environmental challenges in diversified curricula for learners of varying potentials and career prospects. Emerging classroom practices should explore effective learning of generative ideas, creative abilities and core values of human survival without borders amidst today's global realities of technological trends and economic frameworks. Such a focused vision of inclusive education may nurture brilliant, intelligent and competent manpower that could shape the labour market and revitalise the economy with viable opportunities for employment and wealth creation. As the dynamic society changes through the continuing process of modernity, the curriculum will equally change towards preparing individuals for the enterprising challenges of life today and tomorrow. This underlines the nexus between curriculum diversification and entrepreneurship education in the course of diagnosing and rectifying the necessary knowledge and skills gaps for training and partnership priorities across the neighbourhood schools, industries and communities. In all, emerging school graduates stand the chance of improved wellbeing and social status.

Curriculum Reform and Entrepreneurship Education

The world is fast changing and becoming increasingly literate and skilled in democracy, commerce, science and technology, industrialisation, socialisation, and environmental management for sustainable development and quality human life. In our collective resolve to advance and join the comity of developed nations, functional education remains the enduring focus and bedrock for sustainable national development. Nigeria would require a comprehensive humanistic curriculum to promote permanent functional literacy and numeracy, foster national unity and harmony, equip the students with gainful living and inculcate global best practices to cope with emerging challenges of our modern society (Oyekan, 1997, 2016; Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013). Along this modest expectation, it is necessary to envision the nexus between the school curricula, curriculum reforms and entrepreneurship education within the developmental context of productive citizenry and transparent governance in a democratic society.

Curriculum is the totality of planned learning experiences which the learner will acquire under the guidance of approved educative agencies in order to realise his/her needs, interests and aspirations for the benefit and growth of the society (Oyekan, 1997). This connotes that curriculum is all the activities exposed to learners within and outside the school under the guidance of teachers to promote their mental, physical and moral wellbeing. Being the entire training programme which students should pass through, a comprehensive instructional exposure embraces academic, non-academic, social, cultural and recreational activities designed to enhance their total development. It is important to note that curriculum encompasses a wide variety of potential resources, professional standards and instructional practices which educators and teachers shall adopt in disseminating relevant knowledge, enterprising skills and desirable attitudes to nurture competent and responsible citizens. Generation of such a crop of productive professionals, entrepreneurs and workforce for sustainable wealth creation and shared prosperity of humanity is a viable way to improve the national productivity, work ethics and knowledge base of any ailing economy across the world.

Meanwhile, laying a solid foundation for creative entrepreneurship and development of self-reliant nations will require the support of visionary teachers, diligent parents, quality media, functional industries and every citizen to provide the necessary instructional resources, tools, and training of resilient youths as a viable source of our collective strength in nation building. Herein a comprehensive school curriculum becomes a critical imperative in the provision of quality education for sustainable human capacity building, economic diversification and industrial development. Given these contemporary developmental realities in a global learning community for all, Oyekan (1997) identified the notable characteristics of a good curriculum, which include its:

- (i) Flexibility to accommodate and cope with the continuing interests, needs and aspirations of learners and their nations as a platform to provide for their expected growth and prosperity;

-
- (ii) Comprehensiveness in providing for academic, vocational and professional programmes to ensure the acquisition of desirable scholarship, employable skills, work ethics and best practices associated with everyday life;
 - iii. Relevance to the needs and solution to emerging problems of learners and their changing society and;
 - iv. Susceptibility to formative and summative forms of evaluation in the course of being implemented and reviewed by experienced educators and professional teachers.

The curriculum should be functional, dynamic and responsive to the changing needs, interests, problems and visions of individuals and their developing society. It is expected to refine and nurture intelligent, competent and self-reliant persons that would be able to adjust, transform and sustain the conditions and mechanisms for harnessing the resources in their environment for their wellbeing and betterment of mankind.

Since curriculum is one of the foundational elements of effective schooling and teaching, it is often the object of reforms, most of which are broadly intended to either mandate or encourage greater curricular standardization and consistency across States, schools, grade levels, subject areas and courses (Great Schools Partnership, 2014). Reform means to reshape, review, modify, reconfigure or make different as the basic elements of improving the curriculum and strategies of imparting meaningful learning contents with appropriate instructional resources. Varying conceptions and meanings have been ascribed to curriculum reform at all levels of education. What is curriculum reform? Is it of any relevance to comprehensive education and self-reliant personality of the citizenry? How can curriculum reform prospect quality human life in a sordid period of economic recession? Beyond the total development of functional individuals, curriculum reform might help to inculcate the right knowledge, expertise and values required by brilliant and self-reliant school graduates for gainful living in a safe dynamic environment.

Hence, curriculum reform is the process of modifying learning contents and instructional practices in order to meet the interests of learners and needs of the contemporary society for its sustainable development. From this utility perspective of shared prosperity in a sustainable environment, curriculum reform becomes an enduring vehicle of revitalisation, re-engineering and strengthening effective teaching-learning process as an existential platform to refine human capital development. Basic factors which could contribute to meaningful curriculum reforms include experienced professional teachers, educators, learners, subject disciplines and social-cultural values of the society that often emanate from varying social, economic and political activities of the people. It is envisaged that an effective adoption of well balanced curriculum reforms underscores the importance of a paradigm shift from declining fortunes of education and economy to a quality life of prosperity and self-sufficiency in a safe living environment. Therefore, schools need a rapid response strategy to curb the prevailing underachievement, unemployment, corruption, poverty, insecurity and intrusion of social vices ravaging the credibility of subject curriculum implementation and employability of emerging graduates into the changing world of education, business and work.

Entrepreneurship is the wealth creation from skillful development and investment on novel ideas generated by creative individuals to solve critical challenges that will promote their economic wellbeing and enhance the quality of human life. It is anchored on the strength of character of entrepreneurs whose audacity of change and skillful use of their enterprising talents can give them a brighter and rewarding future with greater responsibility for self-reliant employment and wealth creation. Herein enhancement of human capacity development demands adequate comprehensive entrepreneurship education as a basis to identify and develop the creative talents of youths with sufficient resources in academic, vocational and technical subjects within and outside the school settings. Wikipedia (2014) noted that entrepreneurship education seeks to provide students with the knowledge, skills and motivation to encourage entrepreneurial success in a variety of settings. On this premise, meaningful curriculum reforms at all levels of education can expose learners to relevant experiential work-based learning activities in a variety of arts, commercial, science and technical subjects as the groundwork for higher education student' choice of enduring careers from Agriculture, Education, Engineering, Environmental Studies, Humanities, Science and Technology, and Management courses (Oyekan, 2000; 2016). The youths are gradually provided with the wherewithal to ensure technological evolution and economic growth for human survival in a productive society.

Curriculum Diversification for Entrepreneurship Education

Post-colonial independent Nigeria is dotted with variegated flashpoints of crisis severally precipitated by poor governance, inadequate quality human resources, infrastructural deficit, economic recession, brazen corruption, unemployment, poverty, religious bigotry, insurgency and insecurity of life and property. Ifionu (2015) is even persuaded that all Nigeria needs is a strong political leadership that is honest, sincere, resilient and ready to mobilise the creative ingenuity of Nigerians in tackling the nation's many challenges. Now is the time for visionary individuals, organisations and governments that are committed to sustainable existential harmony, stability and prosperity which would meet the future needs of Nigerians should embrace continuing investment in quality education as an integral to personal and national development. This is why the provision of decent functional education is one of the most effective egalitarian tools that guarantee transformative capacity development, self-reliant wealth creation, consistent upward social mobility, healthy living, and exceptional destiny of individuals irrespective of their gender, race and financial circumstances. It surely becomes necessary to establish comprehensive schools with inherent belief in qualitative education as an imperative for sustainable development and improvement of humanity.

Hence, the schools at all levels of education should secure the future today with a pragmatic training innovation for the development of enterprising graduates considered professionally competent, productive and worthy in character and learning. Beyond the paper qualifications, Elizade University (2016) is poised to adequately equip their students with vital value-added knowledge experience and relevant entrepreneurial competence required to succeed in life in order:

To avoid the current trend where most graduates possess good paper qualifications but lack the vital and relevant skills for the work place, (hence,) we have put in place value-add programmes and real work place training to equip our students to face whatever challenges they encounter in the real world and excel in their chosen fields of endeavours (p.19).

Realising that people are the bedrock of our existence might have spurred Babcock University to use team spirit in building partnerships which provide holistic education ingrained with knowledge, skills and values to discover and transform potentials, restore hope and create leaders who make the world a better place (Babcock, 2016). A Nigerian training outfit, Knowledge Exchange Centre, further implored the professionals, artisans, business owners and entrepreneurs to equip themselves with the right knowledge, practical skills and industrial experiences to build sustainable strong businesses beyond the current economic recession (The Punch, 2016). These training innovations and expectations of comprehensive human capital development constitute the panacea for massive failure, unemployment, and infrastructural decay, poverty and insecurity across the land.

Education in developed and developing countries of the world is gradually becoming a joint venture between the government and the public in collaboration with private sector initiatives. Herein lies the need to constantly review the planned learning contents to ensure their continued adequacy and relevance to learners' interests, national needs and human problems in a changing world. According to Hurd (1969), it is essential to look at the school in terms of a long-range planning system and at the curriculum as an instrument for individual and social development - not as an end in itself. The development of a highly skilled and socially responsible competent people may result from the provision of diversified school curricula, which are planned in terms of the needs, aspirations and vision of the productive society and eclectic instruction based on core values for human survival in a safe living environment. Emerging meaningful schooling at all levels of education and vocational training will be facilitated by creative teaching and effective learning of relevant subject knowledge, practical life skills and responsive ethical orientations needed to promote economic growth, environmental conservation and sustainable development. With a just balance among the social, economic and environmental needs of present and future generations, progressive nations will support functional schools to achieve the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4), which is aimed at ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2015). This ultimately makes educated people to be at the centre of democratic governance, economic prosperity and moral regeneration towards promotion of efficient classroom practices, industrial growth, dynamic national development and environmental protection for a sustainable future of humanity.

The quest for quality education, enlightened population and self-reliant school graduates is the enduring guarantee for a prosperous future. Faith in the potential power of education as a universal agent of change and stability ought to be backed up by a high degree of political will, careful planning and sufficient resource support (Oyekan, 1997). Realisation of this objective made Elizade University (2016) to provide a perfect blend of good infrastructure and the best available mix of capable, well exposed, experienced academics and professionals. It is informed by the need to produce a better educated, suitably competent and professionally responsible workforce to meet the emerging manpower needs of an industrialising economy and modernising society within the cultural context of continuing quality education, business ventures and gainful work. Hence, the school should explore and embrace the symbiotic nexus between functional education and gainful work while aiming towards breeding a crop of enterprising and self-reliant citizenry. It implies that functional education ingrained with diversified curriculum shall expose the enterprising and self-reliant citizenry to relevant academic knowledge, technical know-how, and vocational skills necessary for viable agricultural, industrial, infrastructural and political development of the country (Oyekan, 2016). Emerging well-informed, skilled and decent school graduates shall become self-reliant workforce and effective citizens that will help to resolve the prevailing social, economic and political challenges threatening human survival and environmental conservation.

Furthermore, Bajomo (1996) and Oyekan (2016) believed that today's realities and development challenges of nations should constitute the major learning contents in their envisioned curriculum improvement efforts, orientation and empowerment of youths, appropriation of manpower requirements and absorptive capacities of the country. For instance, Post-Basic Education and Career Development (PBECD) is the education children receive after a successful completion of ten years of Basic Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013). It is usually provided for Basic Education graduates who are not proceeding to Senior Secondary Schools (SSS) as a means of preparing them for the world of work, wealth creation and entrepreneurship. Towards achieving the objectives of PBECD, concrete reforms in learning contents resulted in additional new subjects ingrained with pre-vocational competence and training, entrepreneurial initiatives and work orientations. Hence, the operational curriculum for the SSS consists of:

Compulsory crosscutting subjects, such as English Language, General Mathematics, Trade/Entrepreneurship subject;

Science and Mathematics, which consist of Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Further Mathematics, Health Education, Agriculture, Physical Education, and Computer Studies;

Technology, comprises Technical Drawing, General Metal Work, Basic Electricity, Electronics, Auto-mechanics, Building Construction, Wood Work, Home Management, and Food and Nutrition.

Humanities, consist of Christian Religious Studies, Islamic Studies, Visual Art, Music, History, Geography, Government, Economics, Literature-in- English, French, Arabic, and Nigerian Language.

Business Studies, made up of Store Management, Accounting, Commerce, Office Practice, and Insurance.

In reality, curriculum diversification will nurture learners that could produce artisans and skilled professionals who might help to diversify the national economy, exploit abundant resources in non-oil sector exemplified by solid minerals, agriculture, hospitality and tourism, sports and entertainment, power and security, and manufacturing industries. Hence, a good curriculum reform creates an equitable platform to integrate national aspirations, community needs, economic trends, and technological innovations in the global efforts to achieve universal and sustainable development with a comprehensive education for all citizens. This underscores a means of investing in people's knowledge and skills today to promote the building of the resilient human capital required for future education, business and work in the 21st century.

Prospects of Curriculum Reforms for Quality Human Life

The development, stability and prosperity of any nation are related to the quality of continuing qualitative education, entrepreneurial training and ethical orientation given to its productive citizens. Many curriculum changes have in fact been introduced as part of a deliberate and systematic approach for the school to respond selectively to the demands of a dynamic society. The prospects of curriculum reforms for entrepreneurship education and quality human life include:

The school would become an avenue for learners to blend their intellect, skills, values and visions of quality human life;

Provision of gender parity and equal learning opportunities for all the brilliant, indigent and exceptional students of varying backgrounds;

An educational beacon of lifelong learning for all.

Training of productive workforce for tomorrow's world of education, business and work;

Enhancement of employability and work productivity of school graduates with a greater success in the labour market;

Acquisition of relevant vocational competence, work ethics and employment opportunities for wealth creation, economic prosperity and poverty reduction; and

Provision of vibrant platform for integrated professionalisation, vocationalisation and innovation of learning contents.

Hence, the school would become an avenue for learners to blend their intellect, skills, values and visions of quality life with the changing needs of their living community, industrial economy and democratic polity. The increasing industrialisation, urbanisation, occupational mobility and human diversity continually the necessity for recurrent practical education hinged on vocational training with much impact on the school curriculum. Adequate resources should be invested in curriculum reforms to facilitate integration of educational innovations and technological devices in training programmes that will address the specific needs and ambitions of learners for academic excellence and career development.

Education has a pivotal role to play in the quality of manpower and leaders moulded for good governance, economic growth and wellbeing of the people. Curriculum reforms, with its diversity of subject disciplines, will provide gender parity and equal learning opportunities for all the brilliant, indigent, and exceptional students of varying backgrounds. It is an opportunity to accommodate individual differences, integrate community needs and to fulfill the personal ambition of learners with diversified curricula. Oyekan (2000) envisioned career education as an integral part of modern educational system aimed at incorporating the core and vocational curricula with viable academic guidance. Within this context, Okino (1995) had identified the general apathy to work as a wedge in the realisation of schooling objectives while he proposed the introduction of proper work ethics in our schools. Hence, proposals for a functional education can be accomplished through the use of work which accommodates enduring productivity goals of the society in ways that emphasise the humanising objectives of Nigerian education. This quality lends credence to career education as a vehicle for curriculum reform in moulding productive self-reliant citizenry necessary to boost sustainable democratic leadership and economic growth in a developing technocratic society. The students could be assisted in developing relevant value-added knowledge, enterprising skills and survival strategy to make them accumulate capital out of their earned income from gainful employment.

When effectively implemented with its diversity of learning contents and needs of learners, curriculum reform becomes an educational beacon of lifelong learning for all. It underscores the universal power of diagnosing talents and investing in people's professional knowledge, marketable skills, and ethical values to promote human capacity for a world of shared prosperity, harmony and stability. Hence, curriculum reforms will help in the professional training of vital workforce today for tomorrow's world of education, business and work. The school graduates might have been exposed to salient career information acquired the problem-solving skills and imbibed an enduring philosophy of existential life: work, re-train, love and live at peace with all. Otherwise, the absence of sound philosophy of both work and education may continue to widen the gap between them with attendant evils such as unemployment, poverty, criminality and insecurity; which are plaguing the Nigerian society (Nwankwo, 1981; Okino, 1995; Oyekan, 2016). This underlines the fusion of curriculum reforms, career orientation and entrepreneurial initiatives to prepare skilled and courteous literate manpower for work and the enterprising challenges of life today and tomorrow.

Moving forward as a nation demands the use of common sense and functional resources to solve common problems which affect citizens and management of our commonwealth. It, therefore, behoves the educators, teachers and school administrators to facilitate curriculum reforms to fruition, promote scholastic excellence that could metamorphosise into a tower of sustainable success, self-reliance and prosperity of the society. This requires extensive policy interventions, creative capacity building initiatives, public-private partnerships and supportive community collaborations in sustainable provision of adequate funds, functional infrastructures, viable security architecture and continuing training programmes. Schools should engage in strategic partnerships with training schemes and organisations such as:

United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO),

National Directorate of Employment (NDE);
Industrial Training Fund (ITF);
Nigerian Institute of Training and Development (NITAD);
Government Enterprise and Empowerment Programme (GEEP),
Youth for Technology Foundation (YTF);
N-Power (job creation scheme, <http://portal.npoer.gov.ng>); and

Organised Private Sector.

These skills acquisition outfits could create an enabling environment for entrepreneurship, manage apprenticeship, inculcate occupational standards and improve the professional competence of school graduates with requisite work productivity. Such a laudable vision is achievable with the recognition of youths as the strength and future of sustainable development. For President Muhammad Buhari, Nigeria has one of the youngest populations in the world, who are immensely energetic and talented, consistently blazing the trail in the arts, sports, business and technology (Saturday Punch, 2016). With regard to making realistic career decisions, relevant vocational information exposes the prospective workers (i.e. students) to the complementary world of academics and work (Okoye et al, 1990). Beyond the dynamics of labour market, it helps the students to acquire strong socio-emotional abilities (such as self-esteem, self-control, diligence, dedication and responsibility); explore the existence and requirements of quality jobs, identify their vocational potentials, envisage rewarding prospects the jobs hold for them, and think on additional training opportunities on the job. The tendency is to enhance creative entrepreneurial capacity, continuing career improvement, socio-emotional competence and work productivity of the school graduates with a greater success in the dynamic labour market.

Continuing curriculum reforms shall enable the nations to use the prescribed learning contents for intellectual and vocational engagements of learners as a means of nurturing the required manpower needs in public and private sectors of the economy. Learners are provided with vibrant cultural heritage, technological innovations, and creative industrial experiences in their contemporary society. Effective integrated control of the classroom resources, instructional systems (curriculum and instruction), and behavioural system (rules and expectations) creates a nurturing learning for all students (Tavakolian and Howell, 2012). Schools also would become the active participatory generative learning centres that reflect creative interests, new ideas and viable aspirations of learners. The provision of comprehensive education as a reformative process in sustainable development of nations could enhance acquisition of relevant vocational competence, work ethics and employment opportunities for wealth creation, economic prosperity and poverty reduction. As curriculum reforms bring valuable academic improvements, engagement in productive ventures by competent professionals, artisans and entrepreneurs will diversify and strengthen their financial base, which grows the gross domestic products (GDP) for prosperous development of the country.

Hence, curriculum reforms could provide equal schooling opportunities for school-age children with practical tasks, integrated technological devices and diagnostic remediation of identified challenges in learning, economy and society. Such impactful instructional changes might mitigate the proclivity for academic infractions, massive failure in organised institutional and public examinations, brazen corruption with impunity and imprudent management of resources. The curriculum shall be recognised as the heart of comprehensive education as curriculum reforms will facilitate educational innovations, vocational competence, and entrepreneurial training of learners with the core values of humanity. It is intended to provide creative learning tasks, investment initiatives and fruitful opportunities for children and youths to exploit their inherent potentials, achieve their lofty dreams, secure gainful employment and create sustainable wealth that could improve quality human life.

The nexus between curriculum reforms and entrepreneurship education shall provide the vibrant platform for integrated professionalisation, vocationalisation and innovation of learning contents. This could motivate the learners to acquire credible certification, employable competence, professional standards and industrial experiences that would make them self-reliant and self-fulfilled individuals. Such productive and responsible fellows could improve the value-added knowledge base for democratic governance, economic diversification and industrial development of their society. The comprehensive training of resilient youths that expose them to relevant experiential work-based learning activities will become a viable source of sustainable human capacity building, poverty alleviation mechanisms, and technological industrialisation of any

ailing economy. With an inclusive generation of helpful products and services from decent work, it is envisaged that the strong, energetic and brilliant youths will become the strength and future of sustainable development of quality infrastructure, healthcare, agriculture, renewable energy, clean water, environmental sanitation and technological innovation. This might ease the production of sufficient food and healthy citizens who will help to banish poverty, hunger and diseases across developing nations worldwide. In all, affordable comprehensive education anchored on diversified curricula will be globally recognised as a formidable catalyst to achieve all the SDGs that could enhance effective citizenship, peace, unity and prosperity of nations.

Conclusion

Education is a powerful tool to harness the inherent human potential and vision for the resolution of economic, social and political challenges confronting the unity, stability and survival of Nigeria. Schools need a rapid response strategy to curb the prevailing underachievement, unemployment, corruption, poverty, insecurity and intrusion of social vices ravaging the credibility of subject curriculum implementation and employability of emerging graduates into the changing world of education, business and work. Meaningful curriculum reforms can expose learners to new thinking and relevant experiential work-based learning activities in a variety of arts, commercial, science and technical subjects as the groundwork for higher education students' choice of enduring careers. This provides the basis to refine the potentials of our human resources with broad-based curricula built on a core of basic academic subjects, pre-vocational studies and co-curricular activities. Such efforts to expand access to comprehensive education aimed at building the solid foundation for renewable entrepreneurial leadership, effective citizenship and successful careers will focus on continuing innovation, creativity and commitment to the wellbeing of learners.

Hence, the provision of functional education is an egalitarian tool that guarantees transformative capacity development, self-reliant wealth creation, consistent upward social mobility, healthy living and exceptional destiny of individuals irrespective of their backgrounds. It is informed by the need to produce a better educated, suitably competent and professionally responsible workforce to meet the manpower needs of an industrialising economy and modernising society within the context of their culture and resources. Therein lies the necessity to recruit well-trained teachers should develop meaningful reading comprehension and study habits that will facilitate effective teaching and conceptual understanding as well as improve students' skills acquisition, educational performance and career development in all subject disciplines. Such creative teachers will use computers, computer- aided programmes and applications software to design lesson plans, facilitate blended learning and enhance excellent achievement of students. For instance, application of value-added knowledge and technological skills in the assemblage of automobiles, industrial machinery, scientific equipment and domestic gadgetry for the production of essential commodities (e.g. food and textile), and quality life services (e.g. building and road construction) can bridge the infrastructure deficit; and complement economic integration and industrialisation drive of many African nations. The government is, therefore, implored to build functional incubation centres which will nurture the young start-up entrepreneurs endowed with talents and ideas to create innovations that deliver value, stimulate industrial growth, and boost the GDP for economic prosperity and national development.

References

- Adamu, A.U. (1994). Educational reforms in Nigeria. Retrieved March 7, 2015; http://www.kanoonline.com/publications/educational_reform_in_nigeria.htm
- Awofala, A.O.A. & Sopekan, O.S. (2013). Recent curriculum reforms in primary and secondary schools in Nigeria in the new Millennium, *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4 (5), 98-107.
- Babcock University (2016) The 2016 calendar: Experience our uniqueness. Available: www.babcock.edu.ng
- Bajomo, O. (1996) Manpower utilisation in Nigeria: An analysis of causes and consequences of unemployment, *First Bank of Nigeria Bi-Annual Review*, 3(8): 74-84
- Elizade University (2015) 2015/2016 undergraduate admissions: Beyond paper qualifications, *Sunday Punch*, August 2, p.19. www.elizadeuniversity.edu.ng.
- Engelberger, J.F. (1982). Robotics in practice: Future capabilities, *Electronic Servicing and Technology Magazine*,

- Federal Republic of Nigeria (2013) *National policy on education*, Yaba-Lagos: NERDC Press.
- Great Schools Partnership (2014) Curriculum, In S. Abbott (Ed.) *The glossary of education reform*. Retrieved from: <http://edglossary.org/curriculum> , 14th March, 2015
- Hurd, P.D. (1969). *New trends in teaching secondary school science*, Chicago: Rand McNally and Company.
- Ifionu, O. (2015). Clinton, Leahy and Nigeria's destiny, *The Guardian*, Tuesday, July 28, p.21
- Kwong, J. Y. & Kooi, S. N. (1990) *Evolution of educational excellence*, Singapore: Longman Singapore Publishers, pp.60; 74-79
- Nwankwo, J. I. (1981) Do we live to work or work to live? Towards a philosophy of career education in Nigeria, *Career*, 8(1): 18-27
- Okino, A. M. (1995) Bridging the gap between expectations and realities from schooling: Strategies and actions. In Ipaye, *Research on schooling in Nigeria: Introductory readings*, Lagos: Chayoobi Printer and Publishers, pp. 225-229
- Okoye, N. N.; Adejumo, D.; Achebe, C. & Obanya, P. (1990) *Fundamentals of guidance and counselling*, Ibadan: Heinemann Education Books (Nigeria) Ltd., pp. 119-177
- Oyekan, S.O. (1997). *Groundwork of curriculum and instruction*, Ibadan: Alafas Nigeria Company, pp. 1-12
- Oyekan, S.O. (2000). *Foundations of teacher education*, Okitipupa: Ebun-Ola Printers (Nig.) Ltd
- Oyekan, S.O. (2015). Diagnosis and remediation of challenges of education for quality human life in Nigeria, *African Journal of Historical Sciences in Education*, 11(1): 261-284
- Oyekan, S.O. (2016) Sustaining a diversified economy and combatting security challenges through science and technology education, *Science & Technology*, 2(6): 201-220
- Saturday Punch (2016) My government belongs to youths, says Buhari, August 13, p.7. Available on: www.punchng.com
- Tavakolian, H.R. & Howell, N. (2012) School education: A gateway to success. *Journal Educational and Social Research*, 2(2):137-142
- The Punch (2016) Firm plans empowerment for SMEs, Wednesday, July 6, p.32. Available: www.punchng.com
- United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2015) Open working group proposal for sustainable development goals. Available on: <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/owg5.html>
- Wikipedia (2014) Entrepreneurship education. Available at:
<file:///C:/Users/user/Documents/Entrepreneurshipeducation-Wikipedia>
- World Bank (2016) Education. Retrieved from <http://blogs.worldbank.org/education/data>

Geopolitics of Energy

Blerina Muskaj

University "Aleksandër Moisiu" Durrës

Faculty of the Political Juridical Sciences

Abstract

At the beginning of my paper I will explain the concept of "Geopolitics of Energy", this will be done for a quite simple reason, because I want everyone who can sit to read this article to understand more clearly what is at stake, therefore allow them the comprehension of what is being elaborated below at first sight. Geopolitics of energy is a concept that relates to policies choosing exporters to implement on importers, is the policy that has an impact on energy consumption, which includes consumer's choice in the geopolitical context, taking into account the economy, foreign policy, the safety of energy, environmental consequences and priorities that carries the energy exporter. This concept permits the understanding of how works the politics that undertakes this initiative taking into account natural resources such as: natural gas and oil. Natural gas and oil are two main resources that produce energy but also two main elements on which arises all the topic in the energetics game. For this paper is used qualitative methodology, through which we were able to accomplish this work. I focused on scientific literature, official publications and reports on energy geopolitics. The main aim has been to show how in this decade, energy security is at the center of geopolitical agenda and has become the focus of numerous political debates. Regarding this point of view, Europe is taking the initiative to create a common energy market within the continent by creating projects, in which Albania appears as a new regional energy potential. Russia, which is aiming to play a role in the international arena, is seeking to position itself geopolitically in "its political weapon", hydrocarbon resources, in particular natural gas resources.

"Therefore, to any quality, on any process, to any country, on any street and to any field, we should not be dependent. Safety and security in the scope of oil lie in variety and variety alone."

Winston Churchill (Parliament 1913)

Methodology

Review of the literature of the field and matter.

This study is built on an extensive literature study by different authors competent in international affairs and security policy. For this study were used known research centers for scientific research, professional and objective in their publications. Problems in this study required a wide knowledge of the energy sector, a detailed study on the importance of energy, in-depth knowledge on security issues and natural gas supply. As much as is necessary the agreement among states in this field as well as complex are the rules of the game on which these agreements are established and built. A number of compilations analysis are used by a two-week publication "Analytical Summary for Russia" to know better and deeper political, economic, and social developments in Russia and its regions, and the role of Russia in international relations, its goals and constant attitudes, its evolution as an important factor in the region and the world.

Using the experience and closely following the problems of the authors of the Research Centre for European Studies (Forschungsstelle Osteuropa) at the University of Bremen¹ and the Centre for Security Studies (CSS) at the Swiss Federal

¹www.forschungsstelle.uni-bremen.de

Institute of Technology in Zurich, and the Institute of history at the University of Basel¹, who have a wide range of issues tracking in Russia and Eurasia. In this respect are used and the Russian regional reports, which are provided by especially concrete statistics and data to support the analysis and conclusions.

In "Energetic Security of Europe and Balkan: A great battlefield of USA-Russia war for the geostrategic control of Eurasia" the author Thrassy N Marketos, dictates and analyzes the role of USA in Eurasia according the control of natural resources. The author explains US policy goals including breaking Russia's monopoly over transportation routes of oil and gas by promoting US energetic security by diversifying supply and encourage numerous pipeline projects from US control. In the "Corridors of natural gas to Eastern Europe and European energetic security", the author Ioannis N Grigoriadis, is reflected the strategic meaning of Eastern Europe as a channel for the transport of natural gas and guarantor of energetic security in Europe. Authors agree that, to achieve growth of natural gas demand across Europe and reduce energy dependence on Russia, European authorities should promote the realization of diversified gas projects, while simultaneously improving relations with Russia.

Energy, a vital global importance

The energy sector is one of the main areas of cooperation between states. Energy is what ensures the smooth running of the world. In the entire world history, in all places and at all times, energy has been the "engine" of economic growth, military power source, power and wealth. Energy has determined the degree of success of a civilization or state, which seems to have flourished in countries with favorable environment and water, translated into the availability of energy. Countries hang their well-being and survival in energy availability.

Energy as a security matter

Energy security is ensuring the availability of energy in sufficient quantities and at reasonable prices. Its components are: the level of dependence on particular sources of energy; imports to internal resources; diversification of supplies, security of physical infrastructure and distribution routes; state and economic impact; non-interruption. Energy security policy has impacts on national energy security, which are: current and projected/provided needs; levels of self-sufficiency; energy sources and levels of diversification-internal; energy sources and levels of diversification-external; legislative and acceptable standard for the environment; risk levels -acceptable.

From an economic perspective energy and related issues are viewed as a topic that should be subject of the rules of the single market, leaving aside political power; according to this view markets are the ones who decide the rules of the game, governments intervene when markets do not provide solutions. Given this perspective there is no reason for countries to be concerned about any risk of energy security, as interference, coercion, and even military confrontations. From a political standpoint, analysts treat energy as a matter of national security, based on the assessment of nationalization of energy resources and politicization of their management. (Yergin, 2000). Energy is a growing challenge and safety issues and its supply in a globalized world are increasingly complex. Most of the principles of energy producers are not the same to the principles of customer. Different views and perspectives share estimates on security of energy supply. In less than a decade of this century, security issues and supply of gas and oil have been validated and are increasingly important. The idea of using hydrocarbons as a political tool is supported by a number of indications such as decisions of national governments to the intersection manufacturing shipments due to certain political goals, different conflicts up even armed; producing countries do not operate in a competitive energy market framework, the interventions of governments and their policies dictate them; instability in export due to unstable and in conflicts countries. Thus, the dependence on imports of oil and gas represents real political and security issues, not just national but also international, for many countries.

Usage of energy as a political tool: preoccupations of US and Europe

In the US, within a week of taking office President Barack Obama said: "Dependence on oil is one of the most serious threats that our nation has faced," while British Prime Minister Gordon Brown and other leaders of the EU have estimated the risk posed by the dependence of energy provision. Since the last decade issues dealing with insurance and gas supplies have raised numerous debates in the political and security, this paper will provide an analysis of the views of countries affected directly or indirectly on their political and strategic interests, and specifically the US, EU and Russia. In the United

¹ <http://histsem.unibas.ch/seminar/>

States, European Union and Asia, fear of dependence on imports of gas and oil from unstable regions or those who seek to use it as a "weapon" has become the main topic of political debate. The US has repeatedly criticized what was seen as an attempt by Russia to use its part of energy as a political weapon, thus affecting its allies, though not the US itself. Repeatedly, the Bush administration and its successor, various analysts, etc., have reacted to the dependence of European countries on Russian gas. Russian politics increasingly more secure has caused concern in some respects, intrusion in old and close alliances between Europe and the US, into strong relations and of vital interest among countries of the EU and NATO, at the dissension of unity countries within the EU itself, as well as limitation of sovereignty and pro-western orientation of the neighboring countries of the former satellite such as Georgia, Moldova and mainly Ukraine. So America's political interests in Europe include its interests in NATO unity, preservation of close relationships and cooperation with European countries, individually and collectively, and maintaining US influence in Europe.

Russia's operation mode-gas pipelines

Until now, in its policy Moscow has followed several objectives: Russia has been trying to buy a controlling stake in pipelines, ports, storage facilities and other important assets of the energy in Central and Eastern Europe, providing not only the fulfillment of needs for export but also for maintaining control in domestic markets; Russian firms have attempted to buy energy infrastructure in western Europe, causing reactions and concerns in the EU; it has established close relationships with countries such as Germany and Italy, creating the possibility of supply and investment in Russian realistic and surreal energy projects.

In this context, follows a strong debate and it is expected to become increasingly more important in the future of the transit gas pipelines. Indicators of a strong debate are also projects supported by Russia and those supported by the US. The US has strongly supported the creation of multiple pipelines of supply from Central Asia and Azerbaijan to Europe while it has criticized Russian projects, the northern and southern streams, that these projects not only reduce dependence, but they intend to oppose European projects, especially Nabucco, and any other project that aims at diversifying their energy supply, and to bypass the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. Oil and gas reserves are often found together and concentrated in the same places. These cases have certain features such as relatively high fixed costs of transportation and physical obstacles to reach the consumer countries. Gas is transported mainly via pipelines overland or through underwater pipelines determined in a short distance to a maximum water depth of no more than 2000-3000 meters; when it comes to transport by pipeline should be taken into account that this is done not for very large distances. Pipeline as physical connection creates a natural bilateral dependence / interdependence.

Russia's energetic politics and National Security Strategy

Prime Minister Putin stated in early 2009 that "Russia has immense and rich mineral and energy resources, which serve as the base of the development of its economy; as an instrument to implement domestic policy and foreign policy. The country's role on the international energy markets determines, in some ways, its geopolitical influence"¹ "The new leadership of the Russian Federation, Vladimir Putin, shortly after coming to power sought to turn his country into the club of global players.

In late August 2009, Moscow launched a new energy strategy². On August 28, the Russian newspaper Kommersant wrote that Moscow was aiming to invest 1.8-2.1 trillion dollars in oil and gas business up by 2030 to increase production in order to keep up with demand in Europe and Asia projects for the export of Russian hydrocarbons and the increase of Russian domestic consumption³. On May 12, 2009, President Medvedev approved the latest version of the "National Security Strategy of the Russian Federation until 2020"⁴. This doctrine opened a window making political elite to think about an important issue such as natural resources-above all-hydrocarbon reserves as a foreign policy tool. A prominent perspective of the Russian leadership was included in the security doctrine in indirect ways, but still opened⁵.

¹ Quoted in Jamestown Foundation, "Euroasia Daily Monitor", Vol.6, Case 95, May 18, 2009

² [Minenergo.gov.ru/news/min-news/1189.html](http://minenergo.gov.ru/news/min-news/1189.html)

³ www.kommersant.ru/doc.aspx?DocsID=1227148

⁴ <http://www.scrf.gov.ru/document/99.html>

⁵ Jamestown Foundation, "Euroasia Daily Monitor", Vol.6, Case 95, May 18, 2009

Paragraph 9¹ of the doctrine states: Changing the block confrontation on the principles of multidirectional diplomacy and potential natural resources of Russia, along with pragmatic policies of their use has expanded the possibilities of the Russian Federation to strengthen its influence in the global arena. " So, Russia's energy resources were formally recognized once again to be instruments of foreign policy of Russia. Paragraph 11 lists geopolitical battleground where Russia believes that conflicts for energy in the future will grow and where, by definition, its national interests lie: "The attention of international politics in the long term will focus on the control of energy resources in the Middle East, the Barents sea shelf and other parts of the Arctic, in Caspian basin and Central Asia ". The document presents a scenario of future conflicts war over energy resources. Paragraph 12 states: "In case of a competitive struggle for resources is not possible to reduce this probably could be solved by using military force. The existence of balanced forces on the borders of the Russian Federation and its allies may vary ". But who is going to apparently change balances? According to the strategy are the US with the Ballistic Missile Defense Program or NATO itself.

Paragraph 47 continues the connection between energy and national security Russian "risk sources to national security may be factors such as crises in the world and regional banking and financial systems, to intensify the fight over natural resources, including those of energy, water and goods consumer ". The National Security Strategy of Russia does not differ substantially from the previous doctrine. Also, Russia's security policy seems to be a big bet on the nationalization of resources in order to strengthen "sympathetic" control of Russia's gas supplies through gas markets of Central and Eastern Europe.

2. Gazprom.

2.1. Russian state monopoly-promoter of Russian interests

The way Russian government has operated in energetic sector has been a continuous debate topic. In 2000 Russian authorities, had officially promoted various policies in relation to the energetic sector, including privatization, liberalization and international integration of Russian energetic sector. In 2000-2001, they presented plans for price liberalization and privatization of major assets in energy production, oil and gas companies. At the same time, privatization, reforms and commitment of foreign investors on a massive scale, which were the main points of economic policy during the first presidential term of Vladimir Putin, were exchanged with the new policy in the energy sector was clearly led by the state. The state had accumulated a strong control in the energy sector and had begun to show a willingness to use it for political purposes, both at home and internationally.

2.2. Kremlin's control on Russian energetic companies, especially Gazprom

Meanwhile in the years 2003-2004, they started the first state intervention in the energy sector, in oil industry, in June-October 2003 on the matter of Yukos. The arrest of the head of Yukos, Khodorkovsky was commented as President Putin's movement. This one believed that the chief of Yukos demonstrated signs of unacceptable political independence from the Kremlin. Whereas restructuring integrated vertical market monopoly of Gazprom, which was on the agenda of reformers in the early years of Putin's presidency, was officially banned by President Putin himself. It was replaced with almost the opposite goal in order to officially buy state control in Gazprom. Strong sector reforms that would include liberalization and privatization plans clearly slowed. The state was officially reacquired control of Gazprom share in December 2005, and now effectively controlled over 50% of the company. It is worth mentioning that, since the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the largest monopoly firm on natural gas in Russia, Gazprom, has been controlled by the state. It has a monopoly of gas pipelines in Russia and controls about 90% of the production of Russian gas and more than ¼ of the world, being responsible for 20% of the global production. By the end of 2005, Russia set a surrounding wall to stop foreigners to possess shares of Gazprom. The only external partner of Gazprom with low value shares is the German firm E.ON with 6%².

2.3. Connections of Gazprom with the Russian government and its interests

Gazprom is the third largest corporation in the world and the largest source of income for Russia. Many executives of Gazprom already have / recently keep high-level positions in the Russian government. Russian government policies and

¹<http://www.scrf.govru/document/99.html>

² Reuters News Agency, October 10th 2007

projects of Gazprom are combined at best. Indicators of this are the facts that the former chairman of Gazprom, Dmitry Medvedev, was moved to the post of the President of Kremlin, one of his main dependents is Konstantin Chychenko, executive director of RosUkrEnergo (mediator for the sale of Turkmen gas to Ukraine) and head of Gazprom's legal department. Gazprom's new chairman is former Prime Minister Viktor Zubkov. Another fact is the discovery of a "revolving door" between Gazprom and the Russian Government. Gazprom has become one of the promoters of Russian interests in the world. In support of these interests, between the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Russia and Gazprom was signed an agreement where diplomats and state monopoly headed by Kremlin agree to assist each other in promoting the interests of each other in international arena¹. Such cooperation generally is not new and is more than necessary for foreign service officers to be particularly involved in promoting national economic interests. It is quite impressive that, in the case of Russia are not diplomats but Gazprom, which is promoting the foreign policy goals.

2.4. The extent of Gazprom in Europe

By entering into joint ventures with energy firms and public services in the EU, Gazprom has established close and important trade relations with those entities that often are very strong in domestic politics. In this connection Gazprom seeks to have more control shares. Gazprom has moved forward aggressively, buying every available energy assets in Central and Eastern Europe and developing realistic and surreal projects, in attempt to establish a priority position as the largest supplier in Europe. strongly supported by the Russian government, Gazprom succeeded in Germany, France, Italy, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, the Netherlands, Romania, the Balkans, Belarus and possibly in Turkey. Gazprom could not succeed in the UK and Ukraine. Gazprom has a dominant position as a supplier of natural gas, mostly in Central and Eastern Europe, and the Balkans. Likewise they also hold the largest share of gas in the Baltic countries (Lithuania and Estonia). According to figures of Gazprom, the biggest buyer of Russian gas in 2008 were: - Germany (38 bcm) - Turkey (23.8 bcm), - Italy (22.4 bcm) - Belarus (21.1 bcm). Russia also acts as a mediator in gas exports from post-Soviet states of Central Asia to Europe. Gas purchased from Gazprom is transmitted via Russian gas pipelines (owned by Gazprom), and the state controls all gas transit. Before the end of 2008, the company Ros-Ukrenergo (RUE, in which Gazprom holds 50% and the share of Ukraine is held by businessman DmytroFirtash with 45%) played an important role in the trade of the Central Asian gas. Gazprom is co-owner and / or cooperates in all gas pipelines in the Baltic states and Moldova, all the Yamal gas pipeline, 37.5% of gas pipelines in Belarus and gas pipelines in Finland (through its 25% stake in GasumOy). It also holds shares of Yamal gas pipeline in Poland (48.64%), several gas pipelines in Germany (50% less 1 part in gas pipeline network to Wingas, and 5.26% in VNG's network in Eastern Germany), through Wingas it will also hold shares of OPAL gas pipeline currently under construction. Taking 50% of the gas distributors Austrian Baumgarten. In other European countries, Gazprom is planning to invest only in gas transmission systems. It is also involved in gas sales for consumers indirectly through third companies, with whom has less transparent relationships. They have been increasingly active in the EU, although limited by national legislation or the entire EU.

3. Russia's energetic politic and its neighbours

3.1. Russian energy policy goals in the post-Soviet space

Post-Soviet area is the focus of Russian energy policy, both in terms of post-imperial syndrome of elites and natural economic causes, as critical dependence on Russian energy supplies. Recently, Western countries in the post-Soviet Baltic countries, Ukraine, Belarus, Moldova, Georgia have made highly visible the goal of Russian energy diplomacy. Energy has been considered as a mean of restoring the Russian economic domination in the post-Soviet countries (through the purchase of energy assets), encouraging pro-Russian policy through subsidized prices, and as a tool for political pressure². Her behavior is really quite unpredictable.

3.2. gas conflicts and crisis

The best illustrating cases are the conflicts about energy with Ukraine in 2005-2006, and Belarus in 2003-2004, and mostly in 2009 when they led to the interruption of gas supply. Initially, these conflicts started with the continuous efforts of Moscow to take control over the Ukrainian pipelines and Belorussian gas transit, which together constitute 95% of the overall capacity of Russian transportation corridors to export. In this conflict the ones who got damaged were the European

¹www.mid.ru/ns-dipecon.nsf/

²Keith C Smith "Russian energy pressure fails to unite Europe," CSIS Euro-Focus, January 24, 2007

consumers in dozens of countries, including Germany and Italy. Both cases seem to prove that Russia is fairly ready to use supply interruption as an instrument for achieving certain political goals. Eastern European countries themselves are concerned that Russia itself could use in their energy dependence to intervene in the internal affairs or force them to make concessions to foreign policy. By controlling their energy infrastructure, Russia is able to manipulate the internal political situation, favoring the participation of Gazprom in the local business and manipulation of some local politicians to make it possible to use them as lobbyists to Russian interests. Through interruption of gas supplies, Russia is likely to demonstrate its skills to where they go and then achieve political goals. Six Eastern European countries are 100% dependent on Russia for their imports of natural gas. They are even tougher about the need of EU to diversify gas supplies away from Russia, because unlike others they know very well what Russia is capable of (closure of gas supplies in Latvia 2003 Lithuania, 2006, Czech Republic 2008).

3.4. Europe and gas crisis

In various conflicts for gas, EU has been divided in its attitudes and evaluations. Even in these cases, Russia has been able to provide and maintain its reputation in Western Europe as a leading and reliable supplier and in turn to consider the rest of Eastern Europe "its backyard." Russia's goal is quite clear to punish countries that do not obey its authority, cut the supply or to bypass them in their projects, and reward countries that cooperate with it. Thanks to its impact on European foreign policy with the strategy of "divide and possess" Russia prevented NATO members to reach a consensus to provide a MAP (Membership Action Plan) for Georgia and Ukraine. Most European countries agreed with the US position to offer MPA to Georgia and Ukraine, while Western European countries, especially France and Germany opposed the extension, in order not to anger Russia.

4. Energetic security in Europe

4.1. Asymmetric dependence of European countries on Russian gas

Europe depends significantly on gas to ensure its energy. Within the European Union, one fifth of the electricity is generated from gas. Europe is really dependent on Russian energy, especially on Russian gas. The dependence of the European countries is not uniform, but European governments have asymmetrical and very different policies towards Russia. There is a considerable gap between Western Europe on one side and Central and Eastern on the other side on their level of dependence on Russian energy imports. Europe itself has very limited possibilities in developing alternative sources of natural gas due to the current distribution of reserves and production capacity. Russia and Iran are the two main potential sources of additional gas on a global basis. Gas consumption in the European Union has doubled over the past 25 years, and will be 40 percent higher by 2020 and 60 percent higher by 2030 than current levels. But European production is declining, and 60 percent of the gas it consumes is imported. During the next 25 years, European gas imports are projected to double from the current level of 300 billion cubic meters per year. Much of Europe's imported gas comes from Russia via pipelines that have been operating for decades. Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria, Romania, Ukraine and Belarus are 100 percent dependent on Russian gas. Dependence of Austria, the Czech Republic, Poland and Greece from Russian gas is 80 percent, 40 percent of Germany (likely to go up to 60 per cent), Italy and France 30 per cent each. The scale of Europe's dependence on Russian natural gas appeared sensitive to the interruption of gas supplies from Ukraine, which affected a good part of the country. As a consequence, Europe is now trying to reduce its dependence on Russian gas trying to get gas from other sources such as Central Asia. Recognizing the risk depending on gas, the European Commission has made the diversification of supply a priority of its energy policy, developed in the Strategic Energy Review of the European Commission, published on January 10, 2007, and confirmed by the European Council in March 2007¹. Despite discussions to develop a common foreign policy of energy within the EU to diversify sources and routes of supply, 27 countries have not been able to reach consensus, due to different priorities.

EU's mechanical mechanisms about energy

In energetic politics, the European Union policy interacts via several political mechanisms. Characteristics and challenges of security of energy supply in Europe are addressed first by the European Commission Green Paper in 2000 "Safety of Energy Supply" (European Commission, 2000). The document brought three main concerns of energy for Europe: high

¹Communication from the Commission to the European Council and the European Parliament: The Energy Policy for Europe COM (2007) 10 January 2007, the Presidency Conclusions of the Brussels European Council of 8 to 9 March 2007.

dependence on energy imports, the EU limited impact on supply, and difficulties in fulfilling the requirements of the Kyoto Protocol.

On March 8, 2006, the European Commission issued a second document, the Green Paper "A European Strategy for sustainability, competitiveness and Energetic security" (European Commission, 2006a). The European Commission presented a major package of energy policy, on January 10, 2007, entitled "Energy Policy for Europe" (EPE), which was accompanied by a number of sectorial policies to implement the overall strategy. EPE contained a chapter dedicated explicitly to increase security of supply, which calls for a spirit of "solidarity" between member states, especially in the event of a supply crisis. A similar idea was included in the Treaty of Lisbon.

Strategic Energetic Technology Plan, November 2007. Meanwhile, the Commission on the Second Strategic Review of Energy, published on November 13, 2008. The focus of the document is security of supply and fossil fuels. Priority issues were: the need of infrastructure and diversification of energy supplies, external energy relations, reserves of oil and gas and crisis response mechanisms; energy efficiency, etc.

Including energy as a security matter in NATO

Meanwhile the issue of NATO involvement in the issue of energy security has become a subject of debate inside and outside the Alliance, during the last three years¹. Caused by the recent crisis in Ukraine, the issue of energy was also brought to the attention of NATO. Former Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer explicitly stated in the 60th anniversary of NATO that "disrupting the energy supply of a country can break the economic structure and social status of it in a way similar to the consequences of a war without even any shot of weapon². According to these debates, there are several different areas where NATO should be included: the development of a common policy, military preparation and securing transit routes are among them.

The performance of EU-Russia cooperation

EU and Russia definitely need a new international legal framework to address the issues of energy supply and transit, especially to fix the reliability of long-term energy supply. The only international legal act that includes Europe and Russia has been the Energy Community Treaty (ECT) which was ratified by most countries in the Eurasian community - with the exception of Russia and Belarus. Many European officials and experts are still calling for the ratification of the treaty as a way for Russia's involvement in an international commitment in the field of energy. However, at this stage, ECT seems to have lost all its attractiveness in terms of being a universal statute of energy in the Eurasian space: it was signed in 1994. Damage in the ratification process was triggered by the Europeans, the EU introduced a draft of Transit Protocol, which states that the transit facilities are open to all competitors.

Russia refused to sign the Transit Protocol in December 2003, and since then ECT has lost its meaning, mainly to Russia. Given this, it is worth mentioning a little known fact that the Secretary of State and Deputy Minister of Industry and Energy of the Russian Federation and vice chairman of the Conference of the Energy Charter and the Deputy Secretary General of the Secretariat of the Energy Charter in Brussels, is a high position of the Russian Ambassador Vladimir Rakhmanin, who previously worked as Head of protocol of the Presidency with President of the Russian Federation. His task is to develop the Energy Charter process and direct negotiations on the Transit Protocol, considered by ECT member states as an important tool of law applicable in transit countries. Russia does not like the protocol. It will not allow all competitors in the Russian territory, only in cases where it excludes itself. Prime Minister Putin has signed an appropriate legislation deciding that Russia will not be part of this Charter.

Similarly, the efforts of the EU to include the main components of ECT on a new Partnership and Cooperation Agreement between the EU and Russia (PCA) were also broken. The EU Commission has proposed a policy that would prohibit EU energy producing companies from possessing dissemination networks. It also prevents foreign companies to invest in the distribution networks of the EU, unless the relevant country allows such an investment. Russia has strongly criticized the proposal.

¹ Monaghan, A. Energy Security: Limits of NATO, Rome 2008

² Hurriet Daily News, April 2nd 2009

Energetic collaboration Europe-Russia

While the EU should have a close cooperation with Russia in securing gas, it has failed to develop and follow a common energy policy. Thus Russia has rejected the request for ratification of the Energy Charter Treaty 1994, which embodies principles such as: Russia must open its pipelines to western firms and provide stronger protection for foreign investments in Russia, etc. There arrangements have also failed to include key components of the Energy Charter in a new Partnership and Russia-EU Cooperation Agreement (PCA). Russia also opposed to the EU Commission's demand to build an energy policy that prohibits energy producing companies from distribution networks possessions and deter foreign companies invest in the distribution networks of the EU, unless the relevant country allows it. However, EU countries are non-unified in their positions based on the fact that their dependence on Russian gas is different, so it is unclear whether there will be an effective common policy on the Russian energy case.

During his visit to Helsinki in April 2009, President Medvedev reiterated Moscow's calls for a new security order (Helsinki Plus), reflecting the substantially changed realities and multipolar international political system, as Russia sees it; and secondly for "amodern system of global energy supply" based on "Conceptual approach for a new Legal Scheme for Energetic Cooperation", introduced in Europe as a new substantial vision, as a legal accurate international system is necessary to be established. This intended to replace the "inadequate" and "inefficient" energy charter treaty with a new "comprehensive" document. The main purpose of this "Conceptual approach" is to reflect and accept unconditionally the current conditions on which Russia is and will continue to strive to remain a primary source, manufacturer and exporter of energy, more visible and prominent in natural gas. In other words, if Russia does not like the Energy Charter Treaty, it should be changed or replaced with what Russia likes and approves. All other countries are forced to accept. This is simple. The present document is designed to avoid the attention and efforts of the world community, especially the EU, the real work on a comprehensive approach / detailed, to discuss the concept of energy security, which has nothing to do with reality. While the answer to "Conceptual Approach" was deaf even at the close circle of steadfast allies such as Germany and Italy, the Russian leadership moved forward. On May 12, 2009, President Medvedev approved the latest version of the "National Security Strategy of the Russian Federation until 2020"¹, which defines the place and the role of energy resources in Russia's geopolitical position in the international arena.

This report will begin with a discussion on the main actor in the debate Russia, where they will be given a talk about the current strategy of security of Russian gas industry, the Kremlin's efforts to take full control, energy policies of Russia and its origin, Russia and neighboring countries, the debate about real dependence of Europe on Russian gas, the debate about a common policy of energy, attitudes of US, "diplomacy of pipelines", European projects supported by the USA aiming the reduction of European dependence on Russia, the Russian pipeline Projects, North and South Stream, Conclusions and recommendations.

Europe and energetic cooperation within the continent

Energy policies of pipelines represents the main role in the market because through it we understand the intentions of everyone, the whole game power rises on Russia and the Middle East, in order to concretize this paragraph I will argue convincingly importance of energy policy and why Europa is looking for energy resources within the continent.

Europe requires oil and gas resources in order to be independent from Russia and the Middle East and to not allow Russia to come up again as a global superpower, while the Middle East shows no security elements for the supply of gas for Europe. For these reasons Europe is looking for cooperation within the continent.

Albania in another dimension

When it comes to Albania everyone imagines a country that is developing and where there are many other phenomena, which do not work well. I will stop to analyze these phenomena that do not function properly, because my goal is to analyze Albania as a new potential that is born in the heart of Europe. As a country that is trying to move forward with time and adapt to Western European countries. Being a new potential in Europe thanks to its ample resources of natural gas and

¹<http://www.scrf.govru/document/99.html>

oil, it is trying to exploit them in economic terms being cooperative in the pipeline that are being implemented to supply the continent with energy.

For Albania this is a new phase of positive development, creating a new dimension of economic and energy in our country. A new dimension for the country's economy will have a development and consequently will open new jobs, incomes of the population will increase, but not only that. Except there will be economic growth also will be a general development that will allocate throughout Albania's land space. Albanian development in this regard is not only development but also economic and political stability for Albania, as such it has become a factor of stability of the region.

TAP- A pipeline for Europe and the impact it will have in Albania

On June 28, 2013, Shah Deniz consortium announced the selection of the Trans Adriatic Pipeline (Trans Adriatic Pipeline - TAP) as the last link in the chain of platforms, pumping stations and pipelines that will bring gas to Europe from the giant Shah Deniz field in Azerbaijan. The building of pipeline in the Balkan region is also known as the Southern Corridor. Southern Corridor concept was born from the need of the European Union for the diversification of natural gas supply, the expansion of energy cooperation with neighboring countries and creating an integrated energy market and competitive.



The Southern Corridor and Shah Deniz field

TAP aims to bring great benefits Europe and Albania as well, as part of the Southern Corridor. Benefits arising from the realization of TAP, can be categorized as follows:

Diversification of natural gas supplies

TAP provides a unique opportunity for Albania to develop its gas industry and in the future to achieve a higher efficiency in the production of electricity using natural gas. TAP continues to support the Albanian government in its mission to use gas as a significant energy source.

Expansion of market integration

TAP aims to expand market integration in Europe by creating gas transport connection between Eastern and Western Europe via Italy. With existing networks, as well as their planned expansion, Italy offers great potential for the transportation of natural gas further into Western Europe. Albania, being the linking point between Italy and Eastern Europe, is an important factor on this market expansion.

The support of purer energy

Operators Southern Corridor gas pipeline aim at high environmental standards internationally recognized construction and operation. Over the decades, pipelines have proved to be safe methods, stillness and sometimes almost invisible for the

transport of gas, as they come across the seas, climb the mountains or deep covered under the soles of towns and villages. They also emit less carbon than other forms of transport of gas, pipeline generally require less energy intensive than liquefied natural gas, which represents the main alternative for the transportation of gas.

Encouraging economic development

TAP aims to bring substantial new investments in Albania, Greece and Italy and _ create new jobs in construction in these countries. Maintenance and operation of the pipeline will need financial and human resources for decades.

TAP is thought to be the investor of the largest direct foreign figures ever in Albania. This project is expected to stimulate economic activity by creating jobs and developing skills and opportunities in the country. With the start of operation, TAP can also create an annual income stable and predictable. We also hope that the pipeline will help Albania in the process of integration in Europe through its evolving role of regional and geo-strategic and continuous promotion of stability.

Conclusions

The main purpose of the report was to show how, in this decade, energy security is at the center of geopolitical agenda and has become the focus of numerous political debates. Security issues and energy supply can not be handled without political involvement. Risks that cause relationships to those exporting importing countries, highlighting the ability to: damage to the economies of importing countries, through suspension, his physical absence; significant adverse impacts on the economies of importing countries; demolition / impact on political relations between the two countries or regions, are indicative of a "fierce" where necessary and where the influence. Thus ensuring gas supply in Europe has a number of risks associated with dependence on imports from outside suppliers, including investment risks, transit and safety. Treated as a single market, from an economic standpoint, it requires the establishment of a set of rules governing economic relations among the countries importing and exporting power, but that could not be done without a common political approach.

In its energy system are evidenced some limitations such as:

restrictions on certain upstream production, particularly in the gas sector; export restrictions of the infrastructure (traditionally, Russian oil and infrastructure of gas export is destination only in the European market, and to diversify directions of export needed massive capital investment), which make Russia much more a regional supplier, the European energy supplier, rather than a global supplier;

Russia is characterized by internal heavy and not very efficient energy consumption, which makes the country primarily a consumer of energy, much more than an energy exporter;

structural and investment restrictions: despite high energy potential accumulated under their control, Russian authorities still lack many specific mechanisms of influence on the actions of energy companies due to corruption and lack of discipline.

The challenge of future investment is also very important, since in both gas and oil, Russia is reaching an expiring period of potential matured oil and gas fields, and new investments are necessary to introduce new green areas in remote areas. As corporations associated with the state, as the Russian financial system, which is still very weak and being reformed, they are not willing to finance such projects.

But all this does not seem to have prevented Russia to build and implement its energy policy. So where can you achieve it is another flexible question. Until now, Russia has shown more than once that in the international arena is intended to be a gamer to play with its rules and not conditioned by others. It seems that it is against a common approach in Europe, and more than direct confrontation with Western governments, it aims to maintain European foreign policy of wandering, she played with its strategy of "divide and conquer".

Regarding from this standpoint, Europe is taking the initiative to create a common energy market within the continent by creating projects, which will make it less dependent on regions that produce energy. In this moment search for energy, Albania comes as a new regional energy potential and wider thanks to its natural resources. This opportunity brings Albania closer to Europe as a partner that evokes reliability. Also bring a different image not only from the standpoint of security cooperation but also for the region and Europe, where

Politics and History in Ben Okri's the Famished Road

H. Elif Diler PhD.

Dumlupinar University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences,
Western Languages and Literature Department, Kütahya/ TURKEY

Derya Emir PhD.

Dumlupinar University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences,
Western Languages and Literature Department,
Kütahya/ TURKEY

Abstract

In the post-World War II period, magical realism, as a distinctive mode of fiction, has offered cultural hybridity, transformation and intermingling, and has thus been a significant means of communication for the postcolonial world. It has enabled postcolonial authors to get the chance of observing the world from a different perspective and seeing the truth with a 'third eye'. The Nigerian-British author Ben Okri's *The Famished Road*, which was awarded the Booker Prize in 1991, is one of the postcolonial magical realist novels aiming at viewing the world with a third eye. In *The Famished Road*, Okri attempts to investigate sociopolitical and historical realities, to understand and solve the paradoxes and secrets of history in the language of magic and dreams. In the novel he connects politics directly with the concept of history; his conception of 'inviolable' African consciousness becomes the base for his representation of history. The aim of this study is to scrutinize the ways in which Okri encodes African consciousness versus Western epistemology and reevaluates history. The study tries to analyze how Okri redreams postcolonial potentials for his hometown, Nigeria, by extension for the whole African continent, through magical realism functioning as a third eye in *The Famished Road*.

Keywords: Ben Okri, *The Famished Road*, postcolonialism, magical realism, history, politics.

Introduction

Since the 1950s magical realism, a widely-known postmodern narrative mode, has been utilized as an amazing weapon especially by the postcolonial authors to represent the realities of the postcolonial countries of the world. Because of its power of sociopolitical and cultural subversion and reformation, magical realism has been "the literary language of the emergent postcolonial world" (Bhabha, 2000, p. 7). Taking advantage of the hybrid nature of magical realist texts, postcolonial authors have attempted to create a "third space" (Bhabha, 1990, p. 211) of cultural production trespassing the binary opposition between colonizer-colonized, to observe the world through a third eye and thus, to oppose cultural imperialism, colonialism and neo-colonialism of the West.

In order to reevaluate the realities and possibilities of his native country, the Nigerian born British author Ben Okri effectively uses this "nonmimetic, non-western" (Sangari, 1987, p. 157) narrative mode in *The Famished Road*, which was awarded the Booker Prize in 1991. In *The Famished Road*, Okri fuses African and Western cultures to fight against foreign colonialism and domestic neocolonialism in Nigeria. In his distinct type of magical realism, which serves as a third eye in the novel, Okri observes the realities of neocolonial political struggles and stresses the sociopolitical injustice, corruption and dysfunctionality in his native postcolonial Nigeria. While exploring sociopolitical and historical realities, he represents the history of his country through his conception of African consciousness. The concept of history is contiguously connected with politics in the novel.

This study aims at examining the ways in which Okri reinterprets African histories altered and misinterpreted by Western colonialism. It tries to analyze how the author redreams postcolonial potentials and remedies not only for his postcolonial country but also for the entire African continent using the language of myths, magic and dreams in *The Famished Road*.

The Representation of Politics and History in *The Famished Road*

In *The Famished Road*, Ben Okri uses the techniques of magical realism interweaving magical elements with real experience in a realistic atmosphere. The magic reality in *The Famished Road* is not something created by imagination; but rather something inherent in West African myths. The magical elements of the novel are in harmony with the Nigerian cultural beliefs and values. Okri, who has provided "the most sophisticated expression of magical realism in African literature today" (Quayson, 2009, p. 172), directly derives his material from the culture of West Africa and provides the amalgamation of Yoruba (a tribe in Nigeria) mythology, West African oral tradition, conventional European realism and Latin American magical realism in his novel. By mingling African, Latin American, and European narrative methods, he attempts to investigate some certain areas of the African consciousness, such as the African power of imagination and creation and spirituality and elasticity of aesthetics in African culture, as a result of which he can produce a counter-colonialist and counter-neocolonialist narrative discourse.

Although Ben Okri, as "the harbinger of the contemporary Nigerian novel, the link between the old and the new" (Nnolim, 2010, p. 206), follows in the footsteps of the Nigerian authors such as Olorunfemi Fagunwa, Amos Tutuola, Wole Soyinka, and Chinua Achebe, while producing as a postcolonial author, he separates himself from the aims of his literary precursors who spent great effort especially in the 1960s and 1970s to verify the strength and authenticity of African culture over imperialist, colonialist European norms. Okri argues that

[...] there's been too much attribution of power to the effect of colonialism on our consciousness. Too much has been given to it. We've looked too much in that direction and have forgotten about our own aesthetic frames. Even though that was there and took place and invaded the social structure, it's quite possible that it didn't invade our spiritual and aesthetic and mythic internal structures, the way in which we perceive the world. [...] a true invasion takes place not when a society has been taken over by another society in terms of its infrastructure, but in terms of its mind and its dreams and its myths, and its perception of reality. If the perception of reality has not been fundamentally, internally altered, then the experience itself is just transitional. There are certain areas of the African consciousness which will remain inviolate. Because the world-view it is that makes a people survive. (1992, p. 86)

As seen in the quotation, Okri denounces the overemphasis on colonialism in African postcolonial studies. He puts emphasis on certain inviolate, uncaptured, and untouched 'areas of the African consciousness' such as the African world-view and African mythologies, the unlimited dream abilities, the imaginative power, the elasticity of aesthetics, and spirituality in African culture. According to Okri, what should be done in postcolonial studies is not to waste time thinking too much over the damaging effects of Western colonialism, but rather to try to get a better understanding of African local systems of knowledge, to capture the untouched African consciousness and to reflect it through Africa's 'own aesthetic frames'. For him, although Africa has had some failings throughout the history, it has its own marvels. Being aware of their continent's marvels, African people should try to reaffirm their place in the world in the postcolonial period. Pointing out Okri's idea of the unbroken African consciousness, Hobby (2006) proposes that "if ways of perceiving reality unites Africans present, past, and future, then Okri's work deals with both the historical and the suprahistorical, the universal". True to Hobby's contention, Okri's main concern in *The Famished Road* becomes the concept of history. Okri himself admits that his novel is "about history. [...] History is actually in the book right from the beginning. But I prefer to say suffering rather than history" (1992, p. 86). For Okri, "the whole of human history is an undiscovered continent deep in our souls" (1991, p. 572). It seems that the expression 'undiscovered continent' in the quotation refers to the inviolate African consciousness. Then, in *The Famished Road*, in which history of Africa is regarded as a "weird delirium" (p. 228), Okri attempts to understand and encode this consciousness in opposition to Western epistemology and to reconstruct history in order to heal the restlessness and confusion of the past.

As mentioned above, Okri's preoccupation with the inviolate African consciousness leads him to the use of mythical, spiritual, and folkloric elements together with sociopolitical, and historical issues. Depicting the history and the mythical viewpoints of rural people living in a slum of an African country, *The Famished Road* is set at the historical moment of Nigeria's Independence from the British colonial rule in 1960. That is, the novel portrays the social, economic, and political situation of Nigeria on the verge of self-government and investigates the post-colonial Nigerian society and the failure of

the country as an independent nation state through the Yoruba myths of the road and the *abiku* child – “a child in an unending cycle of births, deaths and rebirths” (Quayson, 1997, pp. 122-23). The *abiku* child Azaro is the protagonist and narrator of the novel. As “a child of miracles” (Okri, 1991, p. 10), he wanders between the realms of the living and the dead never completely belonging to either of these realms. Living with his poor family in a leaky apartment room in a slum of a capital city of an African country, Azaro observes the chaotic life of the people around, their sufferings, poverty and struggle to survive, and social and political violence around them. Moreover, he always keeps in touch with the world of the dead. In this way, he encompasses all his past, his present, and possible future lives within himself. Becoming “a perfect metaphor for postcolonialism’s dualistic anomie” (Aizenberg, 1999, p. 465), Azaro’s inbetween and ambiguous ontological position represents the traumatic story of an African nation - by implication the Nigerian nation. According to Felicia Oka Moh (2002), Azaro’s continuous births and deaths symbolize the political history of Nigeria and the Nigerian nation. For Moh, Azaro is “on his fifth round to the earth; a parallel to the five eras of government in Nigeria: Colonial, first Republic, Military Rule, second Republic, Military Rule” (p. 90). Thus, by the help of Azaro and his experiences Okri scrutinizes the Nigerian nation and its chaotic passage from the colonial period to the years of Nigeria’s Independence. Arlene Elder (2009) expands Moh’s contention claiming that Azaro functions not only as a symbol of Nigeria, but “even of Africa as a whole” (p. 11).

In *The Famished Road* the *abiku* children are introduced as those who “lingered in the world, seduced by the annunciation of wonderful events, went through life with beautiful and fated eyes, carrying within us the music of a lovely and tragic mythology. [...] Our minds are invaded by images of the future” (Okri, 1991, pp. 4-5). The expectation and optimism of the *abiku* children for a beautiful future in the quotation seems to represent the hopeful situation in Nigeria on the brink of self-government. When the country became independent in 1960, the Nigerian people, especially the nationalists, were awash with hope for their future and were dreaming to turn Nigeria into a great nation. However, during the years following Independence, many factors such as governmental ineptitude, political and institutionalized corruption, bad leadership, economic backwardness, and social injustice caused a certain disillusionment in the country destroying all the hope for a bright future. Like Azaro, who claims that “being born was a shock from which I never recovered” (p. 8), the national independence created a great shock from which Nigeria could never recover. Entering into a vicious circle, the country was ensnared in its own history never accomplishing to be a self-sufficient, self-governing state.

In the novel, like Azaro, his *abiku* friend Ade functions as a representative of Nigeria / Africa. Ade, the son of a carpenter, leads a poorer and harsher life than Azaro and, unlike Azaro, he is enthusiastic to go back to the world of the Unborn. Comparing himself with his best friend, Azaro says that

I was a spirit-child rebelling against the spirits, wanting to live the earth’s life and contradictions. Ade wanted to leave, to become a spirit again, free in the captivity of freedom. I wanted the liberty of limitations, to have to find or create new roads from this one which is so hungry, this road of our refusal to be. I was not necessarily the stronger one; it may be easier to live with the earth’s boundaries than to be free in infinity. (pp. 558-59)

As suggested in the quotation above, Azaro and Ade become representatives of two different visions of Nigeria. Ade seems to be the symbol of Nigeria as a neglected, disregarded, frustrated and torn apart country, while Azaro symbolizes Nigeria as a country which still struggles to survive for all misfortunes, difficulties, sufferings, and failures. Through Azaro, Okri offers that “the country can emerge into harmony if people can remember their roots and keep the faith” (Biscaia, 2011, p. 297).

At the end of *The Famished Road*, Okri represents the Nigerian nation directly as an *abiku* nation through Ade’s prophecy. When he is about to return to the spirit world, Ade foretells a future which is embedded in sorrow, violence, cruelty, blindness, starvation, coups, wars, and catastrophes. Ade recommends that all these sufferings and disasters should not frighten Azaro or make him feel desperate because he will always find something to struggle for. Ade also encourages Azaro saying that “our country is an *abiku* country. Like the spirit-child, it keeps coming and going. One day it will decide to remain. It will become strong” (Okri, 1991, p. 547). For Ade, if Nigeria can overcome its chaotic history and present condition and rejects its *abiku* destiny, it will accomplish to survive just like Azaro, who has preferred to remain in the world of the living breaking the pact with the spirit world. For Okri, the job of making the Nigerian nation survive is in the hands of the Nigerian people. He goes on saying that “all nations are children; [...] ours too was an *abiku* nation, a spirit-child nation, one that keeps being reborn and after each birth come blood and betrayals, and the child of our will [the Nigerian nation] refuses to stay till we have made propitious sacrifice and displayed our serious intent to bear the weight of a unique

destiny" (p. 567). To keep their country alive, the Nigerian people should make favorable sacrifices for their country. They have to sharpen their awareness toward Africa's marvelous capacities and evaluate their history consciously. They must be aware that only in this way they can break the vicious circle in which Nigeria was kept captured. Okri suggests that optimism for the future should go on despite all misfortunes and sufferings:

Africa has an incredible capacity to not die and not be destroyed. Unlike China that was always unified and had this great wall to prevent invasion, Africa had no great wall, yet it manages to remain unique. It's things like that, the resilience of the spirit, the great dreaming capacities, the imaginative frames that are visible in art, an art that has not remotely been understood. All these things are within the terrain of the book. But they're not different things. It's just one subject I'm addressing: the famished road. (1992, p. 87)

As revealed above, Okri takes advantage of the West African myth of the road along with the myth of *abiku* children. These two myths go hand in hand throughout the novel. Azaro and Ade function as the symbols of Nigeria, by extension the whole African continent, in the throes of becoming and recovering from the effects of a bygone colonialism, while the road stands for Nigerian / West African struggle to survive. Okri uses the myth of the road to reflect several different meanings. In some places, the last two hundred years of African history is symbolized through the metaphor of the road and in some others, the road symbolizes Nigerian history beginning from pre-colonial times until the present day. At the beginning of the novel, the road, originated from a river, is introduced in its pre-colonial condition and becomes a vehicle to demonstrate the value of African traditions and wisdom of African culture. It is always hungry as it has lost its African origin and connection with the spirit world. Towards the end of the novel, the myth of the road starts to represent Nigeria / Africa. In one of his visions, Azaro sees a lovely jeweled road being built. The road has been built for two thousand years, but it is still only two feet long. When a generation destroys the road, a new generation attempts to rebuild it. The reason is explained by the three-headed spirit as follows:

"Because each new generation begins with nothing and with everything. They know all the earlier mistakes. They may not know that they know, but they do. They know the early plans, the original intentions, the earliest dreams. Each generation has to reconnect the origins for themselves. They tend to become a little wiser, but don't go very far. It is possible that they now travel slower, and will make bigger, better mistakes. That is how they are as a people. They have an infinity of hope and an eternity of struggles. Nothing can destroy them except themselves and they will never finish the road that is their soul and they do not know it."

"So why don't you tell them?"

"Because they have the great curse of forgetfulness. They are deaf to the things they need to know the most." (1991, p. 379)

In the quotation, the road being built seems to represent two hundred years of recorded African history. African people struggle in vain to construct their history which has been injured by "enslavement by African notables, colonialism by Western imperialist adventurers and neo-colonialism by the new African oppressors" (Adeniji, 2011, p. 67). Furthermore, as argued by Moh (2002), "long periods of colonization by African notables and the white colonizers have left the citizens with a slave mentality which shuns positive remedial action" (p. 73). Because of the hundred years of enslavement, colonialism, neo-colonialism, and more significantly the African slave mentality, African people could not be successful in the construction of national consciousness, social justice, political equality, and technological and economic development. Okri does not put all the blame on the West for its continuous intrusion, but he also criticizes the African people: "the road was young but its hunger was old. And its hunger had been reopened" (1991, p. 484). Towards the end of the novel, especially the character Dad, Azaro's father, becomes Okri's vehicle to criticize his own people. Dad says that their road is hungry and because "We [Africans] have no desire to change things!" (p. 517). He accuses people of their apathy towards the evil condition around, their laziness, their cowardice and selfishness. Furthermore, Dad reproaches people because of their forgetfulness and lack of historical consciousness. The African people easily forget what they have experienced, that is, it is impossible for them to learn from their past experiences. Their forgetfulness is the real cause of their slow improvement and development. Dad urges people "to lift themselves up by their thoughts", to "THINK DIFFERENTLY" to be able to change the world, to "REMEMBER HOW FREE YOU ARE [they are]" in order to "TRANSFORM YOUR (their) HUNGER INTO POWER" (p. 479). According to Dad, the old ways are the best and must be followed to solve the present problems such as social and political conflicts, neo-imperialist exploitation of the country and dissolution of traditional communities. The African wisdom, traditions, and philosophy will provide the power and knowledge

that the African people require to rebuild their road and to open new roads of the future. Through Dad's oration at the end of *The Famished Road*, Okri presents his socialist optimistic vision of Nigeria / Africa. In his long speech, Dad expresses the urgent need for a new African society constituted by new citizens who have accomplished self-actualization, self-education, self-realization, self-analysis, magical perception, and spiritual insight. For him, African people can change the world and their destiny by redreaming the world: "God is hungry for us to grow. [...] We must look at the world with new eyes. We must look at ourselves differently. We are freer than we think. [...] We can redream this world and make the dream real. Human beings are gods hidden from themselves. [...] our hunger can change the world, make it better, sweeter" (pp. 571-72). Thus, Okri's idea of 'redreaming' stands out as a key concept at the end of the novel. African people have a lot to learn from the power of redreaming in the face of the hazardous effects of colonialism. For Okri, "the real quarrel of the oppressed is not with the oppressors. The real truth they have to face is the truth about themselves. Hope and striving have magic in them. Those who have much to strive for, much to resolve and overcome and redream, may well be luckier than they think" (1997, p. 133). Then, those who gain the power of redreaming are luckier than those who get stuck in the past. Remembering the past histories and redreaming the possibilities for Africa can be the best remedy to re-member African national consciousness.

Conclusion

The Famished Road, as an example of postcolonial magical realist fiction, functions as Ben Okri's sociopolitical weapon to fight against imperial, colonial and neocolonial forces, as well as social, political, economic and cultural corruption and to provide change and improvement. Taking advantage of the subversive power of magical realism, the novel merges the literary traditions of Africa, Europe and Latin America with a philanthropic and universal vision through the local. The function of Okri's distinct type of magical realism is the same as the function of Azaro's third eye, which suddenly opens out of the centre of his forehead and makes him perceive the world brighter and better (1991, p. 266). Through its third eye, *The Famished Road* attempts to free the human mind from all restrictions, to monitor the world from a different perspective, to uncover hidden facts, to highlight social and political reality and to document history.

Reflecting the traumatic condition of Nigeria on the eve of Independence, *The Famished Road* analyzes the chaos disturbing the country and its people. It reveals outrageous experiences such as the failure of Nigeria as an independent nation state, poverty, famine, violence, social and political corruption, militarism, dictatorship and domestic neocolonialism. While carrying his novel from the traumatic atmosphere of postcolonial Nigeria to optimistic dreams of the future, Okri's main concerns become 'myth', 'history' and 'politics'. These three concepts go hand in hand in Okri's philosophy and function as inseparable organizing principles throughout the novel. If history means suffering of the people in Okri's understanding, then myth becomes the best remedy for the Nigerian / African people's sufferings. Refusing the overemphasis on colonialism in postcolonial studies, Okri focuses attention on "inviolate" African consciousness, to which the Western colonialism could not give any damage for centuries. To disentangle the energies hidden in the mythic and spiritual aspects of African history he directly plumps the depths of Yoruba mythology, folktales, legends and beliefs. In *The Famished Road*, the post-colonial Nigerian society is searched through the Yoruba myths of the abiku child and the road: Azaro and Ade, as spirit children, serve as the representatives of Nigeria, and by extension of Africa, and the road becomes the symbol of Nigeria's (by extension of Africa's) struggles to survive. Through these myths Okri attempts to investigate Africa's past histories and to give moral lessons to African people. African people have forgotten their past, lost their African consciousness and thus developed a certain apathy towards their own African essence. It is not only the Western imperialism and colonialism but also the apathy and amnesia of African people that can be blamed for the everlasting "hunger" of Africa. However, it is also the African people who can satisfy this hunger by rediscovering the possibilities of imagination and spirituality buried in the unbroken African consciousness. African people have to think in a different way, overcome their forgetfulness and cowardness, and redream their past to heal their future. For Okri, this is the only way of solving the crises of democracy in Nigeria, Africa and moreover, throughout the modern world.

References

Adeniji, A. (2011). *Ben Okri: The quest for an African utopia*. Saarbrücken, Germany: VDM Verlag Dr. Müller GmbH & Co. KG.

Aizenberg, E. (1999, Summer). 'I walked with a zombie': The pleasures and perils of postcolonial hybridity. *World Literature Today* 73 (3), 461-466. Retrieved from: GALE| H1100072522.

<http://go.galegroup.com/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CH1100072522&v=2.1&u=dumlu&it=r&p=LitRC&sw=w>

-
- Bhabha, H. K. (2000). Narrating the nation. In Homi K. Bhabha (ed.), *Nation and narration* (pp. 1-8). London: Routledge.
- Bhabha, H. K. (1990). The third space: Interview with Homi Bhabha. Interview with Jonathan Rutherford. In Jonathan Rutherford (ed.), *Identity: Community, culture, difference* (pp. 207-221). London: Lawrence & Wishart.
- Biscaia, M. S. P. (2011). *Postcolonial and feminist grotesque: Texts of contemporary excess*. Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang AG, International Academic Publishers.
- Elder, A. A. (2009). *Narrative shape-shifting: Myth, humor & history in the fiction of Ben Okri, B. Kojouhar & Yvonne Vera*. Rochester NY: James Currey, Boydell & Brewer Ltd.
- Hobby, B. G. (2006). *The Famished Road* by Ben Okri. In Merritt Moseley (ed.), *Booker prize novels: 1969-2005*. Detroit: Gale. Retrieved from: GALE| H1220000941.
- Moh, F. O. (2002). *Ben Okri: An introduction to his early fiction*. Enugu, Nigeria: Fourth Dimension Publishers.
- Nnolim, C. E. (2010). *Issues in African literature*. Lagos, Nigeria: Malthouse Press Limited.
- Okri, B. (1997). *A way of being free*. London: Phoenix.
- Okri, B. (1992). Ben Okri. Interview with Jane Wilkinson. In Jane Wilkinson (ed.), *Talking with African writers: Interviews with African poets, playwrights & novelists* (pp. 76-89). London: James Currey.
- Okri, B. (1991). *The famished road*. London: Vintage, Random House.
- Quayson, A. (2009). Magical realism and the African novel. In F. Abiola Irele (ed.), *The Cambridge companion to the African novel* (pp. 159-176). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Quayson, A. (1997). *Strategic transformations in Nigerian writing: Orality & history in the work of Rev. Samuel Johnson, Amos Tutuola, Wole Soyinka & Ben Okri*. Oxford: James Currey and Indiana University Press.
- Sangari, K. (1987, Autumn). The politics of the possible. *Cultural Critique*, 7, 157-186. Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1354154>

The Grammar Odyssey

Lilly Metom

Amelia Alfred Tom

Saira Joe

Awang Rozaimie Awang Shuib (Dr.)

Universiti Teknologi MARA, Sarawak Campus, Malaysia

Abstract

This paper presents a study of an innovation project titled 'The Grammar Odyssey', which is a language board game that is specifically designed for beginner and intermediate levels of learners. The board game is a handy device for learning the English grammar items, which integrates fun, simplicity and practicality in order to motivate players to learn grammar. Having mentioned this, learning the English grammar items does not stop at the classroom environment. In fact, language acquisition continues to adulthood even after years of leaving the school, college or institution. Hence, the sample of this research encompassed 22 adult staff members aged 28-57 years old from various administrative and support departments at Universiti Teknologi MARA Sarawak, Malaysia. This research aimed to identify their acceptance and feedback towards the learning of grammar items through the use of the language board game. Based on the survey conducted on the staff's feedback after playing the board game, a huge majority of the participants responded positively to the board game, stating that it was a useful, practical and fun tool for learning the English grammar. Thus, using the right approach to learn grammar is essential to help learners of all ages and levels acquire the skills effectively.

Keywords: English language learning, grammar, board game, adult learners

Introduction

Grammar learning is often associated with dreariness and lack of learners' motivation. Research has shown that traditional grammar teaching and learning has failed to motivate learners to actively engage in grammar lessons and lifelong learning (Matas & Natolo, 2010). Learners often complain of learning the complex grammar rules and having to do dull grammar exercises in the classroom. What is more unfortunate, students tend to portray the English teacher as an "unattractive grammar monger whose only pleasure in life is to point out the faults of others" (Baron, 1982: 226). Nevertheless, teaching the grammar lessons may not be boring if the right approach is applied. Learning English grammar in the form of a board game may take away this dullness, but instead offers a non-threatening and useful activity for language learning. When the game aspect comes to the centre where learners or players believe that they are engaging in a game, this allows the learning process to take deliberately in a fun environment.

Problem Statement

Learning English grammar is certainly not an easy task for many non-native speakers of English. With the complicated sets of rules to acquire and apply in other components of English, namely, reading, writing, listening and speaking, it is indeed a challenging task to master. For instance, many Malaysian learners are incapable of applying the different parts of speech and English tenses correctly in their writing and speaking particularly. As a result, they tend to produce erroneous structures, which leads to poor performances in the language. It is common to see Malaysian learners of English make

glaring mistakes in their grammar attempts. In addition, the fact that grammar learning is frequently perceived as boring, there is a need for a fun and meaningful approach that could help students learn grammar in a more engaging and enjoyable way. Hence, it is crucial to implement an effective pedagogical approach to learn and teach grammar so as to aid learners acquire the grammar skills.

Objective

The first objective of this study is to promote the use of board game as a learning tool especially in mastering the English grammar. Board games have been known as popular traditional games for family members and friends. Playing the board games during family gatherings or other social functions always brings warm thoughts and happy times. Nevertheless, in this age of online gaming and smart phone games and applications, many people have slowly forgotten about traditional board games. Board games are worthy toys to play for all ages including the adults, and there are a number of reasons why these are still highly recommended. Hence, for this reason, we have come out with a language board game called 'The Grammar Odyssey'.

The second objective of this survey study was to solicit users' evaluation and feedback about the usefulness of the board game, targeting the adult learners. It is a language board game that is specifically designed for beginner and intermediate levels of learners. The board game is a handy device for learning the English grammar items, which integrates fun, leisure, simplicity and practicality in order to motivate players to learn and enjoy grammar. 'The Grammar Odyssey' specifically emphasizes the English parts of speech and tenses that essentially form the pillars of English components. We believe that using this board game as a learning tool could possibly motivate and enhance grammar learning in learners.

Literature Review

Like children, adults enjoy learning when it is perceived as fun. According to Zimmerman (2004), a "game is a voluntary interactive activity, in which one or more players follow rules that constrain their behaviour, enacting an artificial conflict that ends in a quantifiable outcome." Rinvolucru (1995) also stated that, "games are often associated with fun. Games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely. They are highly motivating, relevant, interesting and comprehensible." Thus, games not only engage students' interest in the classroom, but they also keep them involved.

Decades of research on learning and teaching as well as recent experiences and testing of board games designed for learning have also proven that they are ideal tools to encourage, empower and educate language learners. A well-designed board game would be able to create an engaging atmosphere, and also provide a non-threatening, playful, yet competitive environment in order to focus on content and reinforce learning. According to Treher (2011), "the board itself provides a visual metaphor to help connect information". Game elements, discussions, and problem solving with fellow team members about the content are vehicles for learning. Additionally, tailoring a board game with good questions, problems to solve, and situations to consider allows players to think through and apply what they learn (Treher, 2011). Similarly, Harmer (1991) stated that, "games are a vital part of a teacher's equipment, not only for language practice they provide, but also for the therapeutic effect they have. They can be used at any stage of a class to provide an amusing and challenging respite from other classroom activity and are especially useful at the end of a long day to send students away feeling cheerful about their English class".

In relation to adult learners of English, they often misunderstand the fact that learning grammar should be done in a serious manner. Playing games and having fun in class is often perceived as not learning. However, adult learners may find that the inclusion of games in language learning may accelerate their acquisition of English. In addition, games energize tired adults and subsequently enhance their ability to retain the target language aims. On top of that, language games encourage interaction and this helps learners to practise the target language (Judson & Egan, 2013).

One of the most prominent benefits of using games to learn grammar is the fact that it is fun and engaging that could potentially lower learners' affective filters (Krashen, 1982). Once the affective filter is lowered, it will be easier for learning to take place. Thus, language games provide a safe and non-threatening environment which fosters learning. Moreover, language games give learners the assurance that making mistakes and taking risks are acceptable. When this happens, learners will be able to absorb more input in the part of their brain that acquires language.

In a study by Lee (1995:35), students view games positively by saying that games are “a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class” and they are “motivating and challenging” as well. Additionally, Ersoz (2000) mentioned that games are valued due to their ability to increase interest and pleasure when learning. Hence, language educators can utilise games to help their students practise the target language in a fun and engaging manner. Likewise, Uberman (1998) in her study confirmed the fact that language games bring the elements of excitement and meaningfulness. Based on the researcher’s observation, the students displayed enthusiasm when learning language through games. Uberman (1998) also argued that games are an effective method for helping students learn the target language. Unconsciously, learners will practise the language.

In another study, Metom, Alfred and Joe (2013) investigated the use of games to teach English grammar at UiTM Sarawak, Malaysia. The researchers invented a language board game called ‘Mind Your Grammar!’, which is a fun and practical language tool that helps beginner students of English learn grammar. A total of 81 students were involved in this survey study, who were selected from the Pre-Diploma Program of Business Management Faculty from Part 1, Session 2013/2014, UiTM Sarawak, Malaysia. The respondents were primarily selected based on their low proficiency in English as the language board game specifically catered for the beginner level of learners. The findings revealed that incorporating games in grammar lessons is an effective approach in motivating the students to learn. The activities in the game motivate them to communicate with others in English, as well as enhance their grammar skills while having fun with the language. This provides them a platform to practise their grammar skills when engaging in the board game. According to Metom et al. (2013), “the use of board games is more pleasurable and meaningful as learners can practise their grammar skills in their interaction with others.”

Furthermore, in a study by Khonmohammad, Gorjian and Eskandari (2014), the researchers examined the use of games in influencing students’ motivation in learning English grammar among young learners of English language in Iran, utilising an experimental method. The study involved 40 female students studying at the second grade of junior high school in Adab Rahnamaei School in Khorramabad, Iran. The learners were divided into two groups: an experimental group and a control group. At the beginning of the experimental period, the students sat for a pre-test on grammar. The control group was instructed following the suggested method as presented in their course book titled ‘Right Path to English’, in which the book adopts the audio lingual oriented type. On the other hand, the experimental group was treated based on different games for teaching grammar although they also used the same materials in the course book. Both groups sat for a post-test, whereby the data were collected and analysed utilising the Independent Samples t-test. The findings revealed that the students in the experimental group were significantly more motivated to learn grammar as compared to the control group. The researchers concluded that language games can motivate learners in learning grammar by providing enjoyment and fun.

To put it briefly, games are a practical and efficient tool that should be used to foster interest in learning English. The use of games is a way to make the lessons more interesting, enjoyable and effective. Moreover, using games is also a way of teaching which may be used in conditions where ordinary approaches may not achieve the objective of the lessons especially when attention is hard to get and harder to keep (Alemy, 2010). By using games, it enables the teacher to create various contexts in which students have to use the language to communicate, exchange information and express their own opinions (Wright, Betteridge & Buckby, 2005).

Methodology

‘The Grammar Odyssey’ is an education tool invented to attract learners’ interest to learn English grammar by integrating a simple, useful and fun approach. This language game consists of a game board, two dices, four game pieces of different colours as the movers, an answer booklet with explanations on the grammar items, 500 question cards for the beginner level (orange cards), and 500 question cards for the intermediate level (purple cards) (see Figure 2). The board game illustrates a spiral comprising 100 spaces, marked with numbers from 1 to 100. The spaces in the spiral consist of images of rockets, comets and question marks (?), whereby they represent their specific functions. The board game is named ‘The Grammar Odyssey’ as it depicts a journey in acquiring grammar knowledge.

Participants

It is noted that this language board game is not exclusively designed for young learners only, but it also caters for all age groups. For this purpose, an evaluation study was conducted through a focus group experiment involving working adult

learners. The participants were selected purposively among the support staff members of UiTM Sarawak, Malaysia. The head of the department was contacted to nominate the staff for a voluntary session scheduled on 24 May, 2016, which took place at UiTM Sarawak campus. Twenty-two (22) administrative and support staff members had agreed to participate in this study. This selected group of adult learners aged from 28 to 57 years old, with a various range of educational and racial backgrounds, adult responsibilities and job experiences. They were also considered lifelong learners with multiple responsibilities such as career and family, who like any other learners, also require continuous educational training to improve their professional and personal endeavours.

Research Instrument

This survey study utilised a set of questionnaire adapted from Metom et al. (2013). The questionnaire comprises two parts: Section A and Section B. Section A consists of the respondent's profile (i.e. age, gender, race, profession and educational level), whereas Section B consists of ten items relating to the participants' feedback after playing the board game. A validity and reliability test was also conducted to ensure the psychometric relevancy and consistency of the measured items in the evaluation survey.

The participants were given a briefing on the purpose of the study and how the grammar game is played. The game can be played by 4-5 players. Before playing the board game, the participants were given options to choose from the two levels of game cards; either to choose the beginner level or the intermediate level in accordance with their language proficiency.

Some examples of instructions and questions as stated on the game cards are as follows:

For beginner level:

Instruction: Choose the correct answer for the statement below:

She is an _____ person.

honest

honesty

honestly

For intermediate level:

Instruction: Fill in the blank with the correct verb in parentheses.

I (*arrive*) _____ home at about 6 o'clock yesterday and (*sit*) _____ down on the sofa to watch my favourite show.

The game commences by rolling the dices, in which the highest score will kick off first. A player who lands on the space marked with '?' will have to pick a card and answer the question stated on it which relates to a grammar item. The player who gives the correct answer to the grammar question will have another chance to roll the dices and continue playing. However, if the answer given is incorrect, he or she will miss a turn. The game also includes features whereby landing on the bottom of any rocket will help the player to move upward. However, if the player lands on the tail of a comet, he/she will move downward and lose a turn. The player who reaches the space marked '100' first will become the winner.

After playing the game, the participants were given an evaluation survey form comprising ten questions that measure the usefulness of 'The Grammar Odyssey'. The participants' feedback was measured by five-level Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Agree) to 5 (Strongly Disagree). A sample item as stated in the evaluation survey form is as follows: *I enjoy playing 'The Grammar Odyssey'*. In order to ensure the usefulness of the evaluation survey, the validity and reliability test was conducted. Additionally, a factor analysis was also performed to statistically identify the possibilities of usefulness factors of 'The Grammar Odyssey'. The findings of the evaluation survey are discussed in the following section.

Results and Discussions

Respondents' Profiles

Based on the survey results, 22 staff members from different administrative and support departments of UiTM Sarawak had participated in this study. They encompassed 15 males and 7 females aged from 28 to 57 years old with different administrative and support positions, namely, 1 administrative clerk, 4 civil assistants, 2 clerks, 1 community nurse, 2 drivers, 2 general workers, 2 hostel supervisors, 2 library assistants, 3 operation assistants, 1 science officer and 2 unspecified positions. They were composed of 15 Malays, 3 Melanaus, 3 Ibans and 1 Bidayuh. It is noted that Sarawak's population consists of many ethnic groups. In addition, in terms of their educational qualifications, majority of the participants held the school certificate of SPM (*Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia* – Malaysian Certificate of Education) with 68.2% of them, while 4.5% of them held the certificate of STPM (*Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia* – Malaysian Certificate of Higher Education). In addition, 9.1% of the respondents had a diploma degree, whereas 4.5% of them acquired a bachelor degree. In addition, 9.1% of the staff members obtained other educational qualifications.

Table 6 shows the participants' feedback after using 'The Grammar Odyssey'. In general, the findings revealed positive acceptance of the participants to the grammar game. Precisely, for survey item No. 1, 63.6% of the respondents agreed that they enjoyed playing the board game, whereas 31.8% strongly agreed. Meanwhile, 4.5% of the staff members chose to be neutral. For survey item No. 2, 72.7% of the users agreed that they liked the fun and colourful features of the board, while 27.3% of them strongly agreed on this matter. For survey item No. 3, 54.5% of the participants strongly agreed that they learned something new when playing the board game, while 45.5% of them agreed on this item. As for survey item No. 4, 72.7% of the staff agreed that they sometimes discussed the answers with their friends while playing the game, while 27.3% of them strongly agreed that they also did the same too. For survey item No. 5, 59% of the respondents agreed that they could improve their grammar skills when playing 'The Grammar Odyssey', while 31.8% of them strongly agreed on this survey matter. However, 9.1% of the participants were neutral on this part. For survey item No. 6, 72.7% of them agreed that the board game encouraged them to communicate in English with their friends, 22.7% strongly agreed on this matter, while 4.4% responded neutral. For survey item No. 7, 59.1% of the participants strongly agreed that using the board game was a fun way of learning English grammar, 36.4% agreed on this matter, whereas 4.5 chose neutral. For survey item No. 8, 63.6% of the staff members agreed that the questions in the board game were clear and could be easily understood, 31.8% strongly agreed on this matter, while 4.5% responded neutral. For survey item No. 9, 63.6% of them agreed that they would play the board game with their friends and family members, 27.3% agreed on this item, while 4.5% chose neutral. Finally, for survey item No. 10, 63.6% of the participants agreed that the board game was a practical and meaningful way of learning English grammar, 31.8% of them strongly agreed on this matter, while 4.5% chose neutral.

In general, majority of the UiTM staff members responded that the language board game made learning grammar fun and effective, and it enabled them to practise their grammar skills. They also expressed that this innovation project was an effective tool in enhancing their grammar knowledge while having fun with the language. The items discussed particularly reflect the usefulness of 'The Grammar Odyssey'. Thus, a further exploratory factor analysis was performed to investigate the psychometric pattern of the particular items statistically.

Validity and Reliability

As mentioned in the methodology section, a validity and reliability test was conducted to ensure the psychometric relevancy and consistency of the measured items in the evaluation survey. First, to establish the face validity, the survey instrument was designed carefully by referring to the existing sample of the program evaluation form. Second, the evaluation form was later checked by four experts (a native speaker of English, two academicians and a support staff from UiTM Sarawak) to obtain the content validity of the evaluation measure. The questions were refined accordingly to the feedback given by the experts. Third, a reliability test was conducted to check the consistency of the evaluation measure items. Based on the internal reliability analysis, the evaluation measure was found highly reliable and consistent at Cronbach's alpha (α) value of .919 ($\bar{X} = 16.92$, $s^2 = 16.415$ & $s = 4.052$) (more than the cut-off value $\alpha = .070$) (Igbaria, Parasuraman & Badawy, 1994).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was accounted for .805, which shows the sufficiency of sample ($p < .5$), while the Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) score was less than cut-off point of .5. The result suggests that those items with anti-image correlations scored less than the cut-off point of .5 in the weighting scale.

Table 7 shows the detailed results of item-grouping or pattern loadings. Two factors with an eigenvalue of 1.00 or higher were extracted. The rotated factors accumulated 56.62% of the variance. The first factor accounted for 36.30% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 5.944. This factor was labelled as 'learning' as the evaluation items reflected the implicit benefits of 'The Grammar Odyssey'. Meanwhile, the second factor accounted for 26.867% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.008. This factor was labelled as 'manifestation' as the evaluation items reflected the tacit benefits of 'The Grammar Odyssey'.

In addition, a further reliability test had also been conducted to check the internal consistency of the newly formed factors to the usefulness of 'The Grammar Odyssey'. First, the *learning* factor (comprising six items) was found highly reliable and consistent at Cronbach's alpha (α) value of .909 ($\bar{X} = 10.24$, $s^2 = 7.031$ & $s = 2.652$). Second, the *manifestation* factor (with four items) was also found highly reliable and consistent at Cronbach's alpha (α) value of .810 ($\bar{X} = 6.68$, $s^2 = 2.894$ & $s = 1.701$). Both factors were found reliable with more than the cut-off value $\alpha = .070$ (Igbaria et al., 1994).

Usefulness of the language board game

Learning Factor

Based on the participants' highly positive acceptance of 'The Grammar Odyssey', it can be concluded that the board game is a useful tool for teaching and learning English grammar. The board game is a fun tool that helps get the learners to be active in their learning. It activates learners' interest by creating a relaxed, friendly and anxiety-free environment, which makes learning the grammar items an enjoyable experience. Besides, the board game also motivates the learners to communicate with one another in English while playing the grammar game. It also makes language learning more real and offers the players a sense of relevance in learning the English language. In accordance with Celce-Murcia and Macintosh (1979:54), "language use takes precedence over language practice, and in this sense games help bring the classroom to the real world, no matter how contrived they may be". In addition, incorporating games into language teaching and learning provides learners with an entertaining and relaxing learning atmosphere, in which this may lower their stress and anxiety in learning grammar (Krashen, 1982). Integrating games into language learning makes it highly appealing since they are entertaining and simultaneously thought-provoking. Clark (1982) also argued that games can be used as a way to assess and rehearse language lessons in a fun and entertaining way. Moreover, 'The Grammar Odyssey' employs simplicity and practicality in the question items, which makes it a meaningful, friendly and useful language tool for learning grammar. The language board game is also a revision for grammar exercises put in a fun context. Needless to say, the adult learners in this study were given the opportunity to practise and apply their grammar skills again while playing it.

Manifestation Factor

'The Grammar Odyssey' motivates the learners' interest to learn grammar through its fun features which create an enjoyable atmosphere for language learning. It is a practical game designed with fun and colourful features to attract players and indirectly offers a platform for grammar learning to take place. The game could be played with family members and friends that makes it a wonderful experience, giving them relaxed and joyful moments. The board game provides a context for meaningful language application in terms of English grammar learning, which becomes their major motivation to embark in the learning process. As asserted by Harmer (1998, as cited in Luu & Nguyen, 2010), motivation becomes an internal drive for learners that inspires them to pursue a course of action. This motivation forms the biggest dynamic that influences their acquisition success. The board game captures the payers' attention and participation, and thus motivating them to learn more.

Moreover, the features of 'The Grammar Odyssey' also promote learners' interaction. According to Jacobs and Liu (1996), most game enable the players to play in pairs or groups, enabling them to apply their communicative skills such as disagreeing politely and requesting for assistance from their partner or group members while engaging in the games. In addition, games provide an opportunity for players to be participative and competitive while trying to score points and beat

others. The competitive nature of the games offers learners a natural chance to collaborate and interact in English with one another.

Conclusion

In a nutshell, learning English grammar through the board game is one effective, interesting and captivating way that can be applied in any environment, be it at the classroom or at home, or any age group, be it children or adults. Based on the findings of this research, incorporating games into grammar learning in the form of a board game can motivate even adult learners for the useful practice and review of language lessons, which results in enhancement of language learning. 'The Grammar Odyssey' is indeed a useful and practical tool that can be used by all learners regardless of their age groups to learn grammar. The language board game is effective as it creates motivation, reduces learners' anxiety and offers them the opportunity for real language application.

Acknowledgement

We would like to express our deepest appreciation to all the 22 administrative and support staff members of UiTM Sarawak Campus for participating in the survey study of this innovation project.

References

- Alemy, M. (2010). *Educational Games as a Vehicle to Teaching Vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Baron, D. (1982). *Grammar and good taste: Reforming the American language*. New Haven, NJ: Yale University Press.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & McIntosh, L. (Eds.). (1979). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. New York: Newbury House.
- Clark, R.C. (ed.) (1982). *Index Card Games for ESL*. Brattleboro: Pro Lingua Associates.
- Ersoz, A. (2000, June). Six games for EFL/ESL classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6(6), retrieved February 11, 2005 from <http://iteslj.org/Lessons/Ersoz-Games.html>
- Harmer, J. (1991). *The Practice of English Language Teaching (New Edition)*. New York: Longman
- Igbaria, M., Parasuraman, S., & Badawy, M. K. (1994). Work Experiences, Job Involvement, and Quality of Work Life among Information Systems Personnel. *MIS Quarterly*, 18(2), 175-201.
- Jacobs, G. M., & Kline Liu, K. (1996). Integrating language functions and collaborative skills in the second language classroom. *TESL Reporter*, 29, 21-33.
- Judson, G. & Egan, K. (2013). Engaging students' imaginations in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*. SSSLT 3 (3). 343-356. Retrieved from <http://pressto.amu.edu.pl/index.php/sslt/article/view/5018>
- Khonmohammad, H., Gorjian, B. & Eskandari, I. Z. (2014). Using Games to Affect Learners' Motivation in Learning English Grammar. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)*. Vol. 5(3), 324-341.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Lee, S. K. (1995, January-March). Creative games for the language class. *Forum*, 33(1), 35. Retrieved February 11, 2006 from <http://exchanges.state.gov/forum/vols/vol33/no1/P35.htm>
- Luu, T. T. & Nguyen, T. M. D. (2010). Teaching English Grammar through Games. *Studies in Literature and Language*. Vol. 1, No. 7, 61-75
- Matas, C. P. & Natolo, M. (2010). Love Grammar: Student-driven Grammar Learning Games. *The International Journal of Learning*. Volume 17, Issue 10, pp.371-382.
- Metom, L., Tom, A. A. & Joe, S. (2013). Mind Your Grammar! Learning English Grammar the Fun Way. *Journal of Educational & Social Research. Special Issue*. Vol. 3, No. 7, October 2013, 402-407.
- Rinvolucru, M. (1995). *Grammar Game*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Treher, E. N. (2011). Learning with Board Games: Tools for Learning and Retention the Learning Key. Retrieved from http://www.thelearningkey.com/pdf/Board_Games_TLKWhitePaper_May16_2011.pdf

Uberman, A. (1998). The use of games for vocabulary presentation and revision. *Forum*, 36(1), 20-27. Retrieved February 12, 2006, from <http://exchanges.state.gov/forum/vols/vol36/no1/p20.htm>

Wright, A., Betteridge, D., & Buckby, M. (2005). *Games for Language Learning* (3rd Ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Zimmerman, E. (2004). *Narrative, Interactivity, Play, and Games: Four Naughty Concepts in Need of Discipline*. Noad Wardrip-Fruin and Pat Harrigan. Cambridge: MIT Press.154-163.

Table 1: Respondents' Age Groups

Age	Frequency	%
26 – 30	4	18.2
31 – 35	2	9.1
36 – 40	8	36.4
41 – 45	2	9.1
46 – 50	2	9.1
Above 50	4	18.2
	22	100.0

Table 2: Respondents' Gender

Gender	Frequency	%
Male	15	68.2
Female	7	31.8
	22	100.0

Table 3: Respondents' Race

Race	Frequency	%
Bidayuh	1	4.5
Iban	3	13.6
Malay	15	68.2
Melanau	3	13.6
	22	100.0

Table 4: Respondents' Professions

Profession	Frequency	%
Administrative Clerk	1	4.5
Civil Assistant	4	18.2
Clerk	2	9.1
Community Nurse	1	4.5
Driver	2	9.1
General Worker	2	9.1
Hostel Supervisor	2	9.1
Library Assistant	2	9.1
Operation Assistant	3	13.6
Science Officer	1	4.5
*Unspecified	2	9.1
	22	100.0

Table 5: Respondents' Educational Qualifications

Education Qualification	Frequency	%
SPM	15	68.2

STPM	1	4.5
DIPLOMA	2	9.1
BACHELOR	1	4.5
**OTHER	3	9.1
	22	100.0

**Other Education Qualifications	Frequency	%
Electrical Certificate	1	33.3
PMR	1	33.3
SRP	1	33.3
	3	100.0

Table 6: Participants' Statistical Feedback on 'The Grammar Odyssey'

	<i>Strongly agree</i>		<i>Agree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>		
I enjoy playing "The Grammar Odyssey".	7	31.8	14	63.6	1	4.5	1.73	.550
I like the fun and colourful features of the board game.	6	27.3	16	72.7	0	0	1.73	.456
I learn something new when I play the board game.	22	54.5	10	45.5	0	0	1.48	.499
I sometimes discuss the answers with my friends.	6	27.3	16	72.7	0	0	1.73	.456
I can improve my grammar skills when I play the board game.	7	31.8	13	59.0	2	9.1	1.76	.610
The board game encourages me to communicate in English with my friends.	5	22.7	16	72.7	1	4.5	1.82	.501
Using the board game is a fun way of learning grammar.	13	59.1	8	36.4	1	4.5	1.45	.596
The questions in the board game are clear and can be easily understood.	7	31.8	14	63.6	1	4.5	1.73	.550
I will play the board game with my friends and family members.	6	27.3	15	68.2	1	4.5	1.77	.528
The board game is a practical and meaningful way of learning the English grammar.	7	31.8	14	63.6	1	4.5	1.73	.550

*Note: The results for 'Disagree' and 'Strongly Disagree' are not displayed in the table above as the responses to these scales were all nil.

Table 7: Rotated Factor Matrix^a

	<i>Factor</i>	
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
The questions in the board game are clear and can be easily understood.	.926	
I can improve my grammar skills when I play the board game.	.888	
The board game is a practical and meaningful way of learning the English grammar.	.764	
The board game encourages me to communicate in English with my friends.	.729	
I sometimes discuss the answers with my friends.	.473	

I learn something new when I play the board game.	.419
I enjoy playing "The Grammar Odyssey".	.822
I like the fun and colourful features of the board game.	.675
I will play the board game with my friends and family members.	.599
Using the board game is a fun way of learning grammar.	.470

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations



Figure 1: The board game – ‘The Grammar Odyssey’

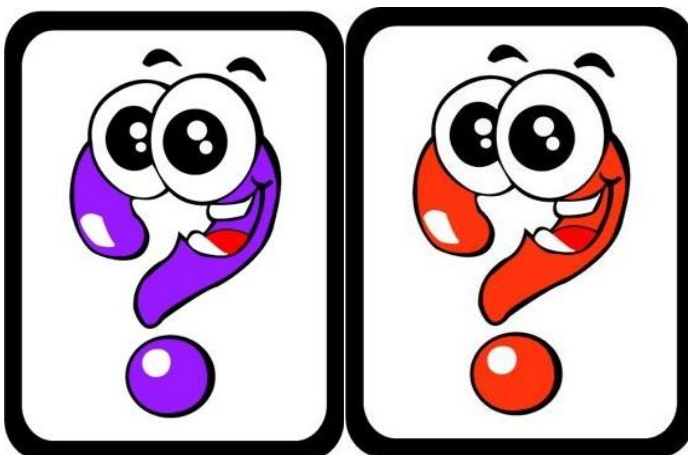


Figure 2: The game cards: beginner level (orange) and intermediate level (purple)

The Sociocultural Aspects of Merchant Class in the Light of Russian Painting Art

Kamile Sinem Kucuk

PhD Cand., İstanbul University, Turkey

Abstract

The merchant class, which contributed to the improvement of Russia, evolved due to political reforms. Especially in 1861 the emancipation reform of the Russian serfs caused social and cultural changes in the life of merchants. In 19th and early 20th century, the works of Russian genre painters P.A. Fedetov, A.P. Ryabushkin, V.G. Perov, F. Juravlev and B.M. Kustodiyev not only reflected the social situation and stereotypes of merchants, but also revealed cultural history of the mentioned class. In this paper it is aimed to disclose the evolution of merchant class in 19th and the early 20th century, observing and analysing the art of Russian painting in sociocultural perspective.

Keywords: Merchant, Russian Painting Art, Daily Life, The emancipation reform of Russian serfs, 19th century.

Introduction

Throughout world history, first civilizations were formed and developed under favour of trade and merchants. Since no human group could invent by itself more than a small part of its cultural and technical heritage. External stimulation of merchants, in turn, has been the most important single source of change and development in art, science and technology (Curtin, 2002).

As Yakov Mayakin, character of Russian author Gorky mentions, "We merchants, tradesmen, have for centuries carried Russia on our shoulders, and we are still carrying it", merchants constitute essential social class. As days pass, they got stronger and after year of 1861, they became the wealthiest layer of Russian society like nobels. They have typical form of life, adhere to traditions as seen in the examples of Russian painting art.

A brief history of merchant class in Russia

In Russia it is a fact that the first merchant was himself of the Tsar. The best goods were chosen by the workers of the Tsar and were brought into the palace. In addition to this, in the period of Aleksei Mihailovic Romonov the palace sold foreign merchants valuable goods like sepiolite, resin, Slavian food solo, fur and silk. In the beginning of 15th century Russia tried to contact with Europe. However in 16th and 17th centuries effect of West-Europe had scarcely started to be seen (2007).

The reforms of Peter the Great, who struggled to westernize Russia, did not bring significant favour for Russian merchant class. According to Tsar, trade had to become explicit and ordinate. However, domestic merchants, who got accustomed to the past, deep-rooted traditions, old-fashioned methods of the organization of trade, were not fully prepared for changes. In the year of 1721, "regular citizens", merchants and artisans, divided into first and second grade (Lizagub, 2013). In pursuit of this; according to regulations of Catherine the Great in 1775, merchants was composed of three different grades. Third grade merchants, which was the lowest, had to own 500-1.000 ruble, second grade merchants had to own 1.000-10.000 ruble and first grade merchants had to own 10.000 or more of it. In 1863, the third grade was infirmable, only first and second grade existed (Fedosyuk,2016).

In the first half of the 19th century, there was a slow progress in finance, trade and industrialization. The cities of Russia was not completely an industrial district; on the contrary administrative zone covered by church. Trade was not fully organized and required credit. Only in 1817 in Petersburg, the state trade bank and its branch offices in six different cities opened in order to provide credit and bill of exchang (Pushkarev,2001). The capital owners, the majority of which was the merchant class, were not entitled to a number of noble titles and privileges, but compensated for some honorary titles:

“counselor-manufacturer”, “commerce advisor”; finally personal and hereditary honourable citizens introduced in 1832. Accordingly, merchants, who have more than 100.000 ruble, were privileged citizen according to the law (Jukova, 2014). Honourable citizens acquired a number of benefits and privileges similar to those of noble (Fedosyuk, 2016).

In the period of Alexander II, the emancipation reform of 1861 effectively abolished Russian serfdom. This reform caused important alternations in different areas. The abolition of serfdom and therewithal the revival of economic life, which began in 1860s, required critical city reform. The city reform, which published in 16 July 1870, was about urban management and agriculture; external landscaping of the city; providing food supply for population, arrangement of markets and bazaars; measures against fires; care for the development of trade and industry, arrangement of exchanges and credit institutions, arrangement of charitable institutions and hospitals, participation in the interest of education of society, arrangement of theatres, museums, libraries; submission to the Government on local use and needs (Pushkarev, 2001). After emancipation reform of the Russian serfs in 1861, population of merchant class in big cities increased. In the end of 19th century and in the beginning of 20th century, economic growth proceeded and merchant class got richer and stronger in comparison with the other layers of the society.

Identification of merchants with the negative character trait

Beginning from Ancient Greek, unfavourable meanings had been attributed to merchants. As historian Philip Curtin mentioned, “The earliest Hermes was god of the boundary stones, but he gradually became the god of the merchants, the professional boundary crossers. At the same time, he was not quite as respectable as the other gods – a messenger, but also a trickster and a thief, a marginal god for people who were marginal to Greek society. Plato himself disliked trade, which, like other professionals based on a search for profit, was hardly compatible with a life of virtue, as he understood it.” (Curtin, 2002).

In Russia beginning from 19th century, merchants were considered as despotism. This accusation showed up on the observations of painters, authors and critics whose aim was to disclose the reality and reflect it to the art. The pioneer of the tradition, which created merchant characters, is dramaturgist A.N. Ostrovsky. The playwright critically observed merchant class and henceforward, merchant characters got on the stage. Merchants in early works of Ostrovsky differ from merchants after 1860s. Merchants became richer and intellectual however, they remained a tyrant. In 1859, Russian critic Dobrolybov published an article entitled “the dark kingdom” (temnoe tsarstvo) about characters of A.N. Ostrovsky's plays and criticised the world of domestic tyranny.

Representatives of this tradition in Russian painting art followed the principle of reality in direction of the era. As seen in N.G. Perov's (1834-1882) painting named “The arrival of a governess in a merchant's house” (Priezd guvernantki v kupecheski dom, 1866), Nevrev's (1830-1904) painting named “Protodeacon proclaiming longevity at the merchant birthday party” (protodiakon, provozglashayushii na kupecheskih imeniyah mnogoletiyu, 1866) and Firs Juravlev's (1836-1901) painting named “Merchant funeral dinner” (Kupecheskiye pominki, 1876), behaviours of merchants are rude, unrespectful and wilful. Each merchant in different paintings are an example of “the dark kingdom”.

In the painting of Perov, the innocence and defendless of the young governess conflicts the aggressive looks of merchant. The repellent look of merchant to the naive governess is obviously seen in the painting of Juravlev, too. Except the looks, gestures are the other factor, which discloses the personality of merchants. In the painting of Nevrev, the merchant is observed that he clenches and he is in an attack of nerves. In the painting of Perov, he puts his hand on his waist and in the painting of Juravlev, he puts one of his hand on table, other on the head of chair. These gestures are symbol of dominance.

Another painting that shows the rudeness and disdain of merchants is “Jokers, Merchant court in Moscow” (Shutniki, gostiny dvor v moskve 1865) painted by Pryanishnikov. This painting has a teatric composition. In the Moscow merchant court, a sivil servant is dancing in front of the merchants and salesmen. Three men stand back of dancing sivil servant; one of them meaningless looks at him, other one mercifully looks, the third one cruelly makes fun of him (1965). Mockery and malice against the poor civil servant reveal the pride and egoism.

Merchant marriages as an agreement

Marriage is very significant for merchant families. However, the issue is not only to settle down, but also to gain a profit or a tittle. In other words, marriage is an agreement between two families for merchants. When the family became poor day-

by-day, marriage of the young daughter is a solution to improve financial situation and earn reputation. Therefore, most of the merchant married with nobles. Nevertheless, the best option was that most young merchant married their relatives, and by the end of the 19th century the majority of merchant generation was closely connected with family ties through son-in-laws and daughters-in-laws (Jukova, 2014).

This bitter reality is also one of themes in 19th century Russian painting art. Fedetov and Juravlev dramatically describe forced marriage. In the both painting, the composition is disheartening: the head of the family decides that his daughter marry with a man chosen by himself. It is the tragedy of the daughter in a wedding dress.

The essence of Fedetov's approach to art was to reconstruct the ugly behind the beautiful and to expose the true nature of the society based on deception and hypocrisy. Fedetov pursued the aim through the combining of the poetical and critical aspects of art (Saravyanov, 1990). In the painting named "major's wedding proposal" (svatovstvo mayora), the created composition is harmoniously dynamic: the gesture of the bride who does not want to marry, proudly waiting of the major at the door, tugging of the mother at her daughter's wedding dress, standing of long-bearded merchant in traditional costume, champagne and wine glasses on the table waiting for celebration, even the cat's licking its hair off are inseparable parts of the painting. Fedetov uses power of light and colour contrast. The bride in pink and white conflicts the dark figure of the major and merchant-father in black.

In the painting named "before the wedding" (pered ventsom, 1874) Juravlev uses the same technique of colour contrast like Fedetov: a merchant father in black holding an icon on his hand and a daughter in white wedding dress crying on the floor. The hands of merchant and her daughter reveal the tension. Stamping with rage, he is grasping the handkerchief on his hand; on the other hand feeling deep sadness, she closes her face with both of her hands. Merchant's wife looks very sad. The reflection of her sad face to the mirror enhances the tragedy of the composition. Through traditions, it is possible that mother had lived the same tragedy.

Daily life and ethnographic details of merchants in 19th century

Before 19th century painting art, characters of merchant class is rarely described. Therefore the painting named "Merchant family in 17th century" (Sem'ya kuptsa v XVII veke) completed by A.P.Ryabushkin (1861-1904) in 1897, is a significant guide that points out the ethnographic details of merchant family and the flow of time. In this painting typical traditional merchant family in 17th century and the Russian daily life before rulership and progressive reforms of Peter the Great are remarkable. Although Ryabushkin lived in the end of 19th century, he was interested in exploring the history and he successfully reflected historical knowledge to his paintings. The artist reveals clues of merchants daily life; wealth and welfare of merchant family are displayed. In the centre of the painting sits the merchant, head of the family. He self-assuredly looks; as a merchant, he symbolises dominance, power and success. Every member of the family pose in front of painter except the little boy sitting down on his mother's lap. The dynamic position of the boy creates a feeling of aliveness. Artist focused on qualified materials and patterns of the costumes, jewellery, make-up, the doll of little girl in order to reveal wealth. The painting leaves an impression of parsuna under favour of Ryabushkin (1960).

As seen in the paintings, the appearance of merchant between 17th and the first half of 20th century did not change so much. One of the reason of that, merchants was keen on traditions and close to new ideas. The most important detail about appearance of merchant is beard. In Russia typical merchant has a long beard which symbolises traditions, manhood and wisdom. In addition to this, there was a belief that long bearded merchants were good at trades (Vistengof, 2004). After year of 1861, education level got higher and appearance of merchants started to change. Upper class merchants shaved and smooth-faced merchants symbolized westernise. Here it should be emphasized that Peter the Great, who attempted to westernize Russia, laid a tax on beard. Beard tax was not for merchants, yet it discloses the conflict of westernising and a beard. However, in spite of the attempts of change, old-fashioned merchants saved their traditional appearance like the merchant described by Kustrodiev (1878-1927) in 1918.

One of the first merchant character in genre art painting was described by Fedetov in the painting named "major's wedding proposal" (svatovstvo mayora). Life standards of the merchant described by Fedetov is not as good as the life of merchant described by Perov. Merchant described by Fedetov belongs to the period before 1861 and view of life totally changed. Merchant wife in the first half of 19th century is also different from merchant wife drinking tea described by Kustrodiev in 1918. Only irreplaceable tea ceremony remains over in daily life of merchant class.

As mentioned before, merchant class after 1861 started to gain more capital and became richer and this is the biggest reason of the change. The alternation is about not only their financial situation, but also the level of education and culture. Before 1860s merchants who never went to theatre, became a regular audience member of theatre plays and operas. Life of rich intelligent merchants was almost the same as life of nobles: the same balls, dinners, guests, tutors and governesses for the children, European dresses, same atmosphere in the rooms, collections of curiosities, paintings, gravures and creation of extensive and valuable library (Belovinskiy, 2014).

Conclusion

Observing sociocultural structure of merchant class, the connection of 19th Russian painting art with reality ensures that genre painting is a guide for daily life details in history. In the early 20th century painting art, research about history of merchants and merchant portrait series provide ethnographic information.

As a result, through the history merchant class struggle to gain power and successfully made it real. However, this power brings them bad reputation. Writers, painters, critics objectively observed and disclosed it. Regardless, it is an important fact that power of merchant class means power of the country.

References

- (1960) Istorija russkogo iskusstva. Tom II, red V.A.Pritkov Moskva, Iskusstvo.
- (1965) istoriya russkogo iskusstva IX. Moskva, Akademia nauk.
- (2007). Moskva kupechestvo trgovlya XV- nachalo VV veka. red. A.R. Andreev, Moskva, Kraft.
- Belovinskiy L.V.(2014) Jizn russkogo obivatelya ot dvortsa do ostrogo. Moskva, Kuchkovo pole, 2014.
- Curtin Philip D. (2002). Cross Cultural trade in world history. Cambridge, Cambridge University.
- Fedoyusuk Yu.A (2016). Chto neponyatno u klassikov ili entsiklopediya russkogo bytia 19 veka. Moskva, Flinta.
- Jukova, (2014). Russkoe kunechestvo. Moskva, Veche.
- Lizagub, V.A., Lahno V.Ī. (2013). Status kupechestvo v epohu Petra I, problemiy zakonnosti. no:123, <http://cyberleninka.ru/article/n/pravovoy-status-kupechestva-v-epohu-petra-i-1>, 1.09.2016.
- Pushkarev, S.G., (2001.) Rossiya 1801-1917: Vlast i obshestvo. Moskva, Posev.
- Saravyanov D.V. (1990). Pavel Andreyevich Fedetov. Leningrad, Hudojnik RSFSR.
- Vistengof, P. Kokorev Ī.T. (2004), Moskva v ocherkah 40h godov 19 veka. Moskva, Kraft.

Tables



Ryabushkin, Merchant family in 17th century (Sem'ya kuptsa v XVII veke), Oil on canvas, 143 x 213 cm, 1896, Russkiy Museum, Saint Petersburg, Russia



V.G.Perov, The arrival of a governess in a merchant's house birthday party, Oil in Canvas, 44x53.5 cm.,1866, Russian Museum, Saint Peterburg, Russia



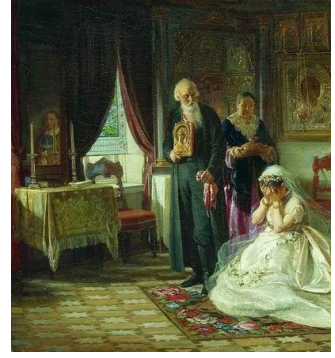
Nevrev, Protodeacon proclaiming longevity at the merchant, Oil in Canvas, 60,4 X 73 cm, 1866, Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow, Russia



Juravlev, Merchant funeral dinner, Oil in canvas, 98X 142 cm, 1876, Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow, Russia



Fedetov, Major's wedding proposal, Oil in canvas, 58,3X75,4, 1848, Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow, Russia



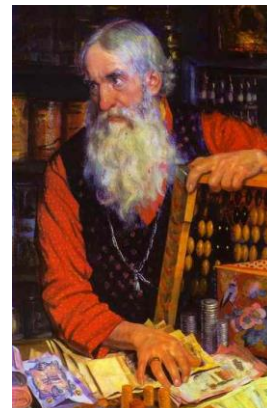
Juravlev, Before the wedding, Oil in canvas, 105X143 cm, 1874, Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow, Russia



Pryanishnikov "Jokers. Merchant court in Moscow", Oil in Canvas, 63,4 X 87,5, 1865, Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow, Russia



Kustodiev, Merchant's wife, Oil in canvas, 120,5x121,2, 1918, Russian Museum, Saint Petersburg, Russia



Kustodiev, Merchant, Oil in canvas, 88.5 x 70 cm, 1918, Brodski museum, Saint Petersburg, Russia

Teachers and School “Discipline” in Greece: A Case Study

Dr Dimitris T. Zachos

Assistant Professor of Pedagogy – Intercultural Education

Aristotle’s University of Thessaloniki

Faculty of Education

School of Primary Education

Anna Delaveridou

Alexandra Gkontzou

Abstract

“Discipline” is a notion which is related to military and police organization and structures and thus it is possible to cause negative predisposition to a number of people. We use the term discipline in quotes, because we could not find a more suitable, in order to describe the body of measures, acts and incidents we deal in the research we present here. “Discipline” in classroom and in school is an issue which concerns educators, parents and guardians, as well as politicians in many countries. Policies and practices of “discipline” in schools are associated with social and political factors and events. Massive, formal, education as it is structured since it has been established, premises a specific framework in order to be operative. A number of rules and routines are necessary to apply if a school and a classroom want to achieve their cognitive, emotional, and social goals. In this paper, we present data of a research relating to the exploration of teachers’ attitudes, beliefs and practices concerning issues of school “discipline” in Greek schools. Our research strategy is Case Study and its main technique is in-depth semi-structured interview. Our main findings display what teachers who participate in our research consider as causes of school discipline problems; how they relate these problems with wider social reality pupils face; how their positive and negative behaviors contribute to pupils behaviors; techniques they use to prevent and resolve “discipline” problems and how they evaluate their basic studies and retraining in order to manage their classrooms.

Keywords: Teachers, School, Discipline, Greece

Introduction

Discipline is a concept for which a consensus has not been reached regarding its definition. This is not striking though as far as social sciences are concerned, due to the fact that it's content may be subject to diverse definitions deriving from various scholars' point of views. So, depending on the contents that we give it, the concept of discipline can take positive or negative, progressive or conservative polarity.

“Discipline” in the school and in the classroom is related with learning, order and punishment (Nroué, 1992, p. 18) and that is the reason it concerns educators, parents and guardians, as well as politicians in many countries (Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012). There is no doubt that discipline is required in schools (Apple, 1984, p. 6), and that it is a necessary and indispensable condition for the academic achievement (Creemers, 1994). Without “discipline” there is a risk for: First, general misbehavior and violence inside the classroom (Lewis et al., 2005: 731). Second, the safety of students and third, the psychological balance of the teachers (Dunham, 1984). Without discipline there can be no effective teaching (Ματσαγγούρας, 2003, p. 272; Haroun & O’ Hanlon, 1997, pp. 237- 238; Jones, 2014, p. 1-2; Lefstein, 2002, p. 1648; Mohapi, 2014, p. 433; Nelson, 2002, p. 10; Sharkey & Fenning, 2012, pp. 95-96; Walter, 1980, p. 6).

"Discipline" in school and in class, can also be considered as a tool for socialization, since it enables teachers to create a fertile ground for the cultivation of moral values and attitudes to life.

We advocate a content of school "discipline", according to which the cultivation of democracy is of primary importance. A school "discipline" which will ensure that ethnic variations, different viewpoints and critical thinking can be pursued and achieved in the classroom. We believe that such a school discipline is necessary, especially for children who come from lower socio-economic backgrounds, as it helps them train themselves physically and mentally in that kind of work, that will bring intellectuals who will fight for social emancipation and for a better society. A school "discipline" that support a moral and character education, which will cultivate values such as civility, kindness and respect to the others (Munn, Johnstone, & Sharp, 2004, p. 1), but will also support human rights, such as life, liberty, equality, and employment.

Teachers & School Discipline

Causes of school discipline problems

As disciplinary problems, non-accepted or unproductive behaviors, we call the students' actions that put in danger the aims of the educational process. Disciplinary issues in schools and classrooms are created by the behaviors which are considered -by the teachers- as problematic, inappropriate and embarrassing (Galloway & Rogers, 1994).

Non-accepted behaviors of pupils, are influenced by both what happens inside and outside schools and classrooms (Lordon, 1983, p. 58). National and global economic, political and social developments and cultural characteristics (language, religion, communication codes) are factors which belong to the first of the above categories, while curriculum, school climate, teachers and students to the second.

Global and national economic conditions affect the families' standard of living, which directly affects the environment where children grow. As a result, it can create stress, psychological problems, and tensions between the couples (conflicts and violent behaviors). Family plays an important role to the productive or non-productive behavior of their children at school, since the way parents raise their children, and more particularly their values, communication styles and "discipline" methods are transferred – most of the times- to their children. Especially issues related to family codes of communication and behavior (kindness, freedom, claims, fees, penalties), and the means parents use in order to achieve their goals, are crucial to pupils' behavior in the classroom (Ζάχος, 2007). Subsequently, children, voluntarily or involuntarily "practice" these behaviors in their interpersonal relations in all kind of environments (school, peer groups) (Αναγνωστοπούλου 2008, p. 24).

Family behavior codes may differ from those of society and school. Consequently, many problems can come up, especially when the school opposes to or neglects pupils' culture, resulting to a cultural conflict (Garegae, 2007, p. 48). A monocultural curriculum, and a teacher who does not recognize cultural differences and needs of his / her pupils can lead to such a situation (cultural conflict).

School is another factor that has its own contribution to its pupils' "discipline". Poor school facilities, low budget resources (Haroun & O' Hanlon, 1997, p. 246), overcrowded classes, restrictive layout of the school building (Αραβανής, 1998, p. 13), frequent stuff changes, strict school regulations, limitation of students' autonomy and self-motivation (Αναγνωστοπούλου 2008, p. 24) are some of the factors that lead to the unproductive students' behavior.

Pupils' behavior in the classroom, is a subject of many theoretical and scientific research that deals with issues of school "discipline", classroom management and school effectiveness. The oldest years, it was believed that behavior was a self-determining function of individuals, completely unrelated to the environment they lived (Rice, Carr-Hill, Dixon, & Sutton, 1998). As a result, a number of researchers maintained that behavior problems in class were associated with mental health (Freudenberg & Ruglis, 2007). In other words, some scientists believed that bad behaviour is a dysfunctional individual pathologies issue (Slee, 1995, p. 5). Today, it seems that the approach, according to which endogenous factors interact with the environment and form people's behavior, has gained ground, especially between those engaged with pupils' behavior and "discipline". Family, community and school belong to pupils' environment, so they can help to the reduction or exacerbation of children's behavior problems (Moffitt, 1993, p. 684).

School community and "discipline" in school. An effective school is based on the quality of relationships that are developed between the members of its community. Good cooperation between students and teachers; teachers

themselves; teachers and parents and guardians of their students; and finally between pupils, can contribute to the creation and maintenance of a fertile ground for learning and socialization.

Good relations between teachers, concerns the ways they communicate and cooperate. A positive learning school environment presupposes the establishment of a cooperative teachers' culture and best relations between teachers and administrators, in order to face everyday problems. In an effective school, the policy of the school is more likely to come from discussions and meetings (Short, 1988, p. 1) and be truly common and not that of one man's or woman's. Concerning particularly pupils' unacceptable behavior, all teachers of a school should cooperate and establish a common way to deal with them (Jones, 2014, pp. 2, 62; Lescault, 1988, p. 46; Lordon, 1983, p. 59; Nelson, 2002, p. 17). The aim should be the creation of a school climate that encourages students' productive behaviors and attitudes and prevent those ones that disrupt its' normal operation. To achieve this goal, schools can introduce a new set of rules, to aid courses of appropriate behaviors and prepare contingency plans (Manitoba Education, 2001, p. 6.3; Rimm- Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 322; Short, 1988, p. 1). Teachers themselves, should be the ones to design and apply a supportive -for the establishment of a positive school climate- program (Nelson, 2002, p. 11; Short, 1988, p. 1). Appropriate curriculum, counseling, guidance, and training must be provided not only to teachers and pupils, but also to parents and guardians in order to consolidate positive attitudes, and ways of dealing with school indiscipline (Nelson, 2002, p. 75).

Parents and guardians of pupils may have a crucial role especially in terms of prevention (Nelson, 2002, p. 31; Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010, p. 53; Williams, 1998, p. 40), planning and plans' implementation of undesirable behaviors (Grossnickle, Bialk, & Panagiotaros, 1993, p. 66; Lescault, 1988, p. 46; Milne & Aurini, 2015, p. 53). That is why teachers should inform parents about what is going on in the classroom, as well as to advise them about the ways to have a best communication with their own children (Frosch & Gropper, 1999).

As it concerns pupils, teachers should try to make them cooperate (in groups) (Rimm- Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 322), in a climate that promotes coexistence, respect, creativity, dialogue and respect to different opinion and social diversities.

Educational process (interesting or boring lesson, equal treatment of pupils, cooperation, distractions etc.) has its own contribution to the maintenance of a good classroom climate. For a successful educational process, teachers are key players. Their personality and personal theory of teaching, as shaped by their education, ideology, interests, aptitudes and skills, play an important role in good -and productive for the purposes of learning and socialization- classroom climate. In addition, teacher's characteristics, such as consistency, objectivity, love for the children and hard work, also contribute to a better school life. On the other side, lack of training and preparation, partiality, stringency, non-interesting teaching and non-objective pupils' evaluation are often causes of negative students' behaviors in the classrooms (Κυρίδης, 1999, p. 109).

In order to make the educational process more productive, teachers should find ways and means that will prevent pupils' negative / unacceptable behaviors. A warm and safe school, may be proactive, and when there is balance between consequences and incentives, students perceive and adapt easily the values of the school community (Cotton, 1990, p. 3; Sharkey & Fenning, 2012, p. 99). In any case, teacher is better to prevent than cure negative behaviors and incidents in his / her classroom. To achieve this, he /she must first examine his /her own beliefs and practices. A first step has to do with whether and how he /she respects individual differences; takes into account students' needs and interests; creates and maintains high expectations for each one of them; respects their rights and develops and cultivates a sense of responsibility (Cotton, 1990, pp. 3, 12; Dever & Karabenick, 2011, p. 142; Jones, 2014). Teachers should be friendly, approachable and supportive (Evertson & Poole, 2008, p. 137), consistent and fair in their work and in their reactions to certain types of behavior (Lordon, 1983, p. 60; Nelson, 2002, p. 75), and to maintain self-controlled (Rousmaniere, 1994, p. 52). In order to achieve the best possible communication with his/her pupils in the classroom, a teacher should be characterized by immediacy and courteous behavior; to care for his/her students and to be aware of the specific needs of each of them; and he / she should encourage, reward and praise (not punish) them (Αναγνωστοπούλου 2008, pp. 55-59). Noting saying that teacher's humor can play an important role (Evertson & Poole, 2008, p. 137) to the teacher – pupil relation.

Before the begging of the school year, a teacher should make some preventive actions, as to gather information of any non-productive behaviors and its' possible causes shown by his/her new pupils in the past (Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010, p. 65; Short, 1988, p. 2). Another teachers' preventive action concerns the conduct of group discussions, in which every view will be heard and respected. In this way the child will feel that it is accepted by all (Dreikurs & Cassel, 1978, p.

65) and will be encouraged to improve its behavior (Cotton, 1990, pp. 4, 13). Negotiation and learning skills such as cooperation, self-awareness and self-control (Cotton, 1990, p. 13) can be helpful in order to eliminate unpleasant situations in the classroom. At this point, we should emphasize that the achievement of this goal can be more approachable by smaller learning environments (McMasters, 2002, p. 16). In other words, by smaller number of pupils per classroom, a teacher can easier provide immediate feedback, try to correct the unacceptable behaviors (Rimm- Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 322), and to cultivate group work-spirit, universal values and critical thinking.

So, a teacher must encourage her students to talk about their interests and their problems, and allow them to express themselves in a free way, since dialogue and discussion contribute in the reduction of unacceptable behaviors (Manitoba Education, 2001, p. 6.17). Discussion in the classroom, based on specific local issues, or issues arising from pupils' differences (of origins, class, etc.), gives them the chance to generate strategies so as to deal with any behavioral problems (Evertson & Poole, 2008, p. 136).

In such classroom, rules can and must be established democratically and collectively. It is more possible that children accept and comply with rules that have themselves contributed to their establishment (Duke & Jones, 1985, p. 278; Lescault, 1988, p. 48; Milne & Aurini, 2015, p. 61), than in cases where rules imposed on them without consultation. Rules are an instrument that facilitates class organization, in a way which promote effective teaching and learning (Brophy, 1998, p. 2). Noting saying that rules should be clear and understandable (Lordon, 1983, p. 59; Walter, 1980, p. 13), in a way that give pupils the change to take responsibility for their actions and to develop self-control (Rimm- Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 325).

What each teacher expects from his students, what he accepts and what annoys him, should also be clear. In other words, the teacher should make clear his limits, margins and roles. When a teacher knows what students expect from him and students know what the teacher expects from them, a successful class is easier to be established (Nelson, 2002, p. 21).

As it concerns restoration practices aimed to school "discipline" problems, they should be separated according to problems' severity (Cotton, 1990, p. 4). In some cases, a teacher needs to quickly deal with any offensive or negative behavior, wherever it occurs, whoever the pupil is (Lordon, 1983, p. 59). In some other cases, a teacher should ignore minor disruptive behaviours. But before any action or any measure, a teacher should take into account that each pupil is unique, with its own character and personality (Dreikurs & Cassel, 1978, p. 101).

A common reaction to "discipline" problems many teachers adapt, is a sympathetic or strict look (eye contact), a wave of her hand, a shake of the head and a light touch (Evertson & Poole, 2008, p. 136). In more severe cases, suspension of pleasure activities can be used to pupils who have displayed unproductive behaviors (Manitoba Education, 2001, p. 6.11). Another common intervention, which has caused plenty of reactions, is the practice of moving a student to another place in the classroom (Cotton, 1990, p. 4) or expelling her out of the classroom (in a special "discipline" room, in teachers' or principal's office).

As it concerns most serious behavior problems, traditional school discipline includes standardized zero tolerance practices such as suspension and expulsion. Those practices do not provide support to the pupils in order to correct their behaviors and do not take into account their individuality (McMasters, 2002, pp. 13-14). Expulsion of a pupil from the classroom, and generally the use of stricter disciplinary practices, may also exacerbate indiscipline and have negative impact on children's learning, academic success, and their relationship with school, inasmuch it is possible to lead to social isolation, to create psychological problems and to increase delinquent behaviors (Gregory et al., 2010, p. 60; Mohapi, 2014, p. 434; Sharkey & Fenning, 2012, pp. 96-97). Expulsion should be used as (extreme) last resort and not as everyday practice (Gregory et al., 2010p. 65). At this point we should emfisize that corporal punishment should be banned and eliminated from every educational institution. We advocate Rousmaniere's (1994, pp. 52, 62) approach, according to which only a teacher who lacks originality, inventiveness and strategies can resort to such means of "punishment".

Finally, as it concerns teachers' ability to face non-productive behaviors of students in the classrooms, it seems that they do not have the best qualifications (basic studies and retraining) (Αναγνωστοπούλου, 2008, p. 74; Butera et al., 1998, p. 112; Stough & Montague, 2014, p. 446; Webster-Stratton, Reinke, Herman & Newcomer, 2011, p. 510). Teachers receive little support on how to manage behavior and school "discipline" problems (Ματσαγγούρας, 2003, p. 272; Rousmaniere, 1994, p. 61). So, it seems that teachers need special education program, which could have a positive influence to themselves and their pupils as well. In such programs the emphasis is on the use of positive, deterrent and preventive

strategies both to handle the students' problematic behavior and also to reduce teacher's anxiety and negative emotions (Stough & Montague, 2014, p. 452). According to Beisser (2008, p. 2), those who attend those programs feel better prepared and ready to (re)enter classroom.

Method

Our main research question ran on how teachers of a Thessaloniki's district perceive and view problems of pupils' non-productive behaviors they face in classrooms. We used a qualitative approach, since our research "focuses" on the meaning of the phenomenon has for our participants and is about personal views, stories and narrations (Robson, 2010, p. 322). Specifically, we chose Case Study, as our research strategy, and semi-structured, in-depth interview, as our basic research technique. Semi-structured interview allows detailed descriptions of reality (Creswell, 2007), as it is experienced by the people who take part in the research.

Our research revealed new data related to teachers' views concerns "discipline" in Greek schools. Through this way, our study contributes to the complement of the existing theory and enrich the relevant international research production. In our opinion, the case of Greece presents a significant distinctiveness: Teachers do their work without being subjected to the pressure -their colleagues in other countries might feel- from current educational policy measures (eg. Zero tolerance discipline policies in USA). In other words, they have greater freedom to implement their pedagogical approaches on the way they will arrange issues of pupils' behaviors and "discipline". This is due to the fact that in Greece for almost thirty-five years, teachers have not taken part in any formal individual (personal) evaluation.

2.1 Participants

Twenty-three primary education teachers of the municipality of Oraikastro (Thessaloniki, north Greece) participated in our research. Participants' recruitment was carried out through snowball sampling: Firstly, we interviewed some teachers we knew, and then we recruited other participants. We stopped when conceptual saturation occurred. In other words, we stopped looking for new participants at the point where we realized that no additional data (new categories or subcategories) emerged from the interviews. Participants in our research were seven (7) men and sixteen (16) women. More analytically:

Table I (*participants age*)

Age	Number of teachers
35-40	2
41-45	6
46-50	10
51-55	5

Table II (*participants' years of teaching*)

Previous experience in education	Number of teachers
1-10 years	2
11-20 years	9
21+ years	12

Table I (*participants' studies*)

Studies	Number of teachers
School academy (non-university)	16
Exomoiosi (re-study of one year length for those who were non studied in University schools of Ed)	8
School of education (university)	7
2nd University degree (of some other University school)	3
Postgraduate studies	4
Doctoral degree	0

2.2 Data collection and analysis

Data collection took place during the period September - December 2015. The interviews were conducted face to face with the teachers in their schools of in public spaces like cafes and parks. Sixteen interviews were recorded, while for the remaining seven, detailed notes were kept. Interviews lasted from a half to two and a half hours.

We used a number of core questions (see Annex), whose initial form emerged from a thorough and extended literature review we made in Greek and English language. Those questions were adjusted after a pilot study with four (other) teachers. We used these questions flexibly, without keeping the order we had set and being limited to them, in order to cover a wide range of topics. Interviews were transcribed by hand and "generated" two hundred and fifty pages' text.

In order to analyze our material, we used classical qualitative analysis method (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Data was thoroughly read, scrutinized and analyzed. More analytically, in the first stage, we carefully read the data (all the interviews) and kept notes on the issues raised. In the second stage, we returned selectively to some of the data that we considered essential, so as to highlight aspects of the phenomenon studied. In the third stage, we separated five dominant themes, which are presented below, using indicative excerpts from the interviews.

2.3 Findings

Causes of school discipline problems

Participants in our research consider as the dominant cause of behavior problems at school and in the classroom the environment of the students, and particularly their families, the way they behave and bring up their children:

"Attitudes emanated from the family. Some of my pupils bring negative emotions in the classroom. When I spoke with their parents I understood the reasons of their behavior... I think family influences them the most" (C.K., woman).

According to teachers we interviewed, children's environment, apart from the family includes some other factors, such as television and the internet (social media, games). Our participants believe that pupils' families have responsibility to manage the use of those factors. This is the reason why school and teachers should take into account ways to deal with environment's negative consequences:

"The environment they live and socialize with the children, the Internet and television affect them to a great extend, and the responsibility is firstly on parents and secondly on school. We have to notice it" (T.K., woman).

Another reason, which was submitted by some of the teachers who took part in our research, is the "nature" of children.

"The most serious cause ... I told you is the nature of the child, because some children behave like that, due to their nature" (D.M., woman).

Although our research is not quantitative and it has not intention to make any generalizations and find "social laws", we should underline that references to individual characteristics responsible for behavior problems in the classroom were reported by eight teachers. We stress this fact because schools of Educational Sciences (Pedagogical faculties) in Greece, not only introduce but emphasize economic, social and environmental factors that contribute to pupils' behaviors and attitudes. Faculties of Education in Greece fight against views like the following:

"Individual factors, learning disability, health problems, elliptical attention and mental disorder of the child are the causes of school discipline" (N.K., man).

Finally, other factors that were highlighted by participants in our research are related to the large number of students per class and the effort of children to attract the interest of their peers and teachers. What is missing here, is schools' and teachers' responsibilities, which only mentioned by two of our participants:

"For some reason children feel that school does not understand them and when I say school I mean not only the institution but the people who are in school as well" (M.M., Woman).

"We, teachers, have probably our responsibilities concerning school discipline problems. I want to say that pupils might not be interested, not be attracted by the lesson. As a result, they do not pay attention in the classroom" (A.P., woman).

How teachers relate these problems with wider social reality their pupils face

Participants in our research do not mention any of the systemic factors (such as poverty, social inequality, and social exclusion) that contribute to pupils undesired behavior when we posed the relevant question. However, in other parts of the interviews they repeatedly mentioned the current economic situation in Greece and how it affects their daily lives at school.

"Since 2009, the year that economic crisis begun, children's behavior, generally speaking, gradually changes" (A.D., woman).

According to the participants in our research job loss, unemployment, job insecurity and the decline in living standards, have led to the increased of children's aggressiveness and of unwanted behavior:

"If a family has one or two unemployed parents, it causes problems, real problems in their relationship with their children and it is very normal that disorder and instability will be reflected in their children's behavior, definitely" (N.N., woman).

"Over the last years, especially due to financial problems, I realize that children have become more troubled and feel the need to defuse aggression... Even a parent who works, is in a permanent state of frustration, due to the risk of losing his job, a feeling that the parent transfers to his child, who feels this frustration itself" (P.S., woman).

Another aspect related to the daily activities of the school and especially issues of school "discipline" concerns the moral crisis that emerged in the Greek society with the outbreak of the economic crisis:

"All doctors steal, all teachers do not work, all pavilions are then all that comes out in the behavior of the children. So I think that parents often interfere with teacher's role or interfere with coming up so often to admonish you because of the way you behaved or sometimes without asking or knowing what happened they come and try to prove that their child was right" (B.T., man).

How teachers' positive and negative behaviors affect pupil's behaviors

Participants in our research believe that a teacher plays a determinant role in creating a productive climate in the classroom and preventing inappropriate behavior.

"Discipline is created by the teacher. She creates it. She does not impose it. She creates it in the classroom. And she will find ways of what children are interested in, how to cope with them, what they can be occupied with. Children know that even if a teacher shouts in the classroom, she shouts for their own good, pupils will never say that she is a strict teacher. Because children can feel. They can feel the love, the reason why you say these things to them, they feel if you love them, if you care about them" (N.T., woman, 45).

The characteristics a teacher should have, which contribute to achieve the best possible result, are related to his psychological balance, pedagogical training and maturity:

"If a teacher knows pedagogy, he is psychologically balanced and does not have either psychological or physical problems, I think that he can handle a situation with maturity without "convey" his negative behavior to the pupils" (P.P., man).

Maturity, experience is a characteristic highlighted by several teachers who took part in our survey:

"Yes yes yes, because over these years I have behaved badly... I've lost control, mostly the first years that I did not know, I did not have the experience in the classroom. It's completely different when you have two children and when you have 30 plus after all" (M.D., 40).

A final element emerged from our participants' interviews is that they believe that:

"a teacher is an exemplar for her pupils and school class imitates her behaviors" (K.A., woman).

This important aspect of the teachers' role can lead to the development of a class climate that serve educational goals, as well as and the aim of a better society:

"When one of my pupils sees, let say me for example, with the mother of one his classmate, an immigrant woman, economic migrant, worker or whatever. If I am by her side and support her, then, I believe that team-spirit changes immediately and pupils of my class will begin to adapt attitudes and accept the immigrant student" (A.P., woman).

Plan and techniques teachers use in order to prevent and resolve "discipline" problems

Teachers who participated in our research believe that non-productive behaviors of their pupils can be the reason of fertile group discussions in the classroom. They believe starting from an incident of indiscipline, they can pose some critical issues:

"I think that disobedient behavior can be a starting point for lecturing. You can use it in order to improve your pupils behaviours and morals." (G.T., woman).

According to participants of our research, their attitudes, techniques and tools -they use in the classroom- aim to form a positive environment, which will promote creative learning, pupils' socialization and wellbeing:

"I use their first name, ... I use humor in teaching mathematics, i say, from time to time, something that I know will make my pupils laugh" (G.G., man, 54)

Teachers of our research believe that having discussions with pupils who do not behave properly if of primary importance:

"Yes a conversation, a private conversation, the conversation, the dialogue, the question arises in the panel. As I previously stated, we all together can discuss these issues during what we call "the circle", which takes place within a lesson called "flexible zone" once per week, for an hour. Especially during times that I undertake a class for the first year and I should familiarize with my new pupils, I pose behavior issues in "the circle" and we have some group discussions" (D.S., man).

Our Participants, in some cases, ignore bothersome behaviors, especially when they are not so disruptive. In some other cases, they use small material rewards in order to "convince" a pupil to adapt a better way of behavior:

"When my pupils talk to each other, sometimes I pretend that I do not see them and I do nothing. Sometimes I think that they talk to each other because they do not find something interesting in this course... Sometimes I offer stickers, ballot or a ticket to the cinema in order to reward a pupil that behaved with the best way" (M.T., woman).

Teachers who participated in our research seem to form classroom rules with the cooperation of their pupils and to wish a closer contribution of their students' parents and guardians to school life:

"The rules should be established by the children! I only help them focus on the most important issues... In cases a child do not adjust her behavior to the rules, I'll call her parents and try to find a solution together in order the problem to be solved" (N.T., man).

How they evaluate their basic studies and retraining in order to manage their classrooms

According to teachers that contributed in our research, there is a clear distance between theory and practice. A large portion of them believes that what happens in school little has to do with what they had taught in the school academies:

"No, if we do not do something else, not. They are stale, stale and more theoretical. The act... when you get in the classroom, the class itself and seminars, by people who are enlightened in particular subjects and specialized" (G.H., woman, 50).

At this point, we should emphasize, that only three (from eight) Departments of in Greece include courses related to school discipline and classroom management in their curriculum.

Another topic we want to underline, concerns those teachers who participated in our research and their only degree (qualification) comes from "School Academies", the old non-university schools of teachers' training (two years of study): Most of them believe that a teacher's daily practice is not associated with his or her studies and qualifications:

"what will we do on Monday has nothing to do with our studies. Those are mostly theoretical. We learn in practice" (K.W., man).

"... having a master does not mean that you can manage the classroom. I think that what counts more is experience, clearly it is the first factor, and then it is the willingness of the teacher," (C.H., woman).

Those who have finished University Departments of Education (four years of study) seem to appreciate more the knowledge and skills acquired at university, particularly the psychology courses:

"My studies helped me, because when I studied in 1984, our department joined university. As a new one, the department of education "borrowed" professors from other faculties, and as a result we were taught many psychology lessons. Most of our courses were psychology lessons and teaching methods" (M.K., woman).

Another theme, which we want to underline, concerns that small portion of our participants who believe that a teacher should always renew his or her pedagogical knowledge and skills:

"We should constantly get informed and be in touch with books, because researches are being conducted all the time, the research never stops when you have to do with pedagogy... We can't say that we have learned these things and its okay; we have seen everything and that's it. People are changing and social environment is changing, values are changing, and by changing values mean that we should always get informed" (M.K., woman).

Concluding

This study examined -through qualitative research- the views of primary school teachers in Greece concerns issues of "school discipline". Data qualitative analysis enabled in depth understanding how participants perceive issues of non-productive behaviors and which actions, measures and treatments they take in order to achieve goals posed by the curriculum, parents and teachers themselves. At this point we should emphasize again that our data represents only twenty-three participants in our research. Future research could build on our findings and quantitatively explore issues of "school discipline". This way we could have a wide record and the opportunity to make correlations between their opinions, attitudes and views and their ideology, qualifications, years of service, etc.

References

- Αναγνωστοπούλου, Μ. (2008). *Το ζήτημα της πειθαρχίας στην εκπαίδευση* [The issue of discipline in education]. Θεσσαλονίκη: Αδελφών Κυριακίδη Α.Ε.
- Αραβανής, Γ. (1998). *Πειθαρχία και εκπαίδευση. Ο ρόλος των ποινών και των αμοιβών στο σχολείο και στο νηπιαγωγείο* [Discipline and education. The role of penalties and fees at school and kindergarten]. Αθήνα: Γρηγόρης.
- Ζάχος, Δ. (2007). Η Αντιμετώπιση των Εκπαιδευτικών Προβλημάτων των Μαθητών/τριών από Διαφορετικό Πολιτισμικό Περιβάλλον [Facing school problems of pupils from different cultural Environment]. Στο: Μπότσαρη Ε. (επιμ.), *Θέματα Εισαγωγικής Επιμόρφωσης για Νεοδιόριστους Εκπαιδευτικούς*, Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο, Αθήνα, σελ. 144-158
- Κυρίδης, Α. (1999). *Η πειθαρχία στο σχολείο. Θεωρία και έρευνα* [Discipline in school. Theory and research]. Αθήνα: Gutenberg.
- Ματσαγούρας, Η. (2003). *Η σχολική τάξη. Χώρος, ομάδα, πειθαρχία, μέθοδος* [The classroom. Area, group, discipline, method]. Αθήνα: Γρηγόρης.
- Ντού, Μ. (1992). *Πειθαρχία και τιμωρίες στο σχολείο* [Discipline and penalties in school]. Αθήνα: ΣΥΓΧΡΟΝΗ ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΣΗ
- Apple, M.W. (1984). School discipline: Why simple solutions are no solutions at all. *The High School Journal*, 68(1), 6-9.
- Ball, S. J., Maguire, M., & Braun, A. (2012). *How schools do policy: Policy enactments in secondary schools*. Oxon, London: Routledge.
- Beisser, S. (2008). A five-year study of field based pedagogical partnerships to prepare new elementary teachers. *The Innovation Journal: The Public Sector Innovation Journal*, 13(2), article 3.

- Brophy, J. (1998). Educating teachers about managing classrooms and students. *Teaching & Teacher Education* 4(1), 1-18. doi:10.1016/0742-051X(88)90020-0
- Butera, G., Klein, H., McMullen, L., & Wilson, B. (1998). A statewide study of FAPE and school discipline policies. *The Journal of Special Education*, 32(2), 108-114. doi: 10.1177/002246699803200205
- Cotton, K. (1990). *Schoolwide and Classroom Discipline*. School Improvement Research Series Research You Can Use. Retrieved from <http://educationnorthwest.org/resources/school-improvement-research-series>
- Creemers, B. P. M. (1994). *The effective classroom*. London: Cassell.
- Creswell, J. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design. Choosing among five tradition*. Thousand Oaks, CA:Sage.
- Dever, B., & Karabenick, S. (2011). Is authoritative teaching beneficial for all students? A multi-level model of the effects of teaching style on interest and achievement. *American Psychological Association* 2011, 26(2), 131-144.
- Dunham, J. (1984). *Stress in teaching*. London: Croom-Helm.
- Dreikurs, R., & Cassel, P. (1978). Πέτα μακριά το ραβδί σου. πειθαρχία χωρίς δάκρυ [Throw away your wand. Discipline without tears]. Αθήνα: Ουμύρι.
- Duke, D., & Jones, V. (1985). What Can Schools Do to Foster Student Responsibility? *Theory into Practice*, 24(4), 277-285.
- Evertson, C., & Poole, I. (2008). *Proactive classroom management*. In T. L. Good (Ed), *21st century education: A reference handbook* doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412964012.n14>
- Freudenberg, N., & Ruglis, J. (2007). Reframing school dropout as a public health issue. *Preventing Chronic Disease*, 4(4), A107. Retrieved from <http://www.cdc.gov/pcd/issues/2007/>
- Frosch, M., & Gropper, N. (1999). Fostering friendships, curbing bullying. *Educational Leadership*, 56(8), 72-75.
- Galloway, D., & Rogers, C. (1994). Motivational style: A link in the relationship between school effectiveness and child behaviour. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 11(1), 16-25.
- Garegae, K. (2008). The crisis of student discipline in Botswana schools: An impact of culturally conflicting disciplinary strategies. *Educational Research and Review*, 3(1), 048-055.
- Gregory, A., Skiba, R., & Noguera, P. (2010). The achievement gap and the discipline gap: Two sides of the same coin? *Educational Research*, 39(1), 59-68. doi: 10.3102/0013189X09357621
- Grossnickle, D., Bialk, T., & Panagiotaros, B. (1993). *The School Discipline Climate Survey: Toward a Safe, Orderly Learning Environment*. *NASSP Bulletin*, 77(556), 60-66. doi: 10.1177/019263659307755608
- Haroun, R. & O'Hanlon, C. (1997). Do Teachers And Students Agree In Their Perception Of What School Discipline Is? *Educational Review*, 49(3), 237-250. DOI: 10.1080/0013191970490303
- Jones, V. (2014). Effective classroom management. In, *Practical classroom management* (Chapter 1). United States, US: Pearson Education.
- Lefstein, A. (2002). Thinking power and pedagogy apart- coping with discipline in progressivist school reform. *Teachers College Record*, 104(8), 1627-1655. doi: 10.1111/1467-9620.00215
- Lescault, P. (1988). Guidelines for developing a discipline code for an effective learning environment. *NASSP Bulletin*, 72(504), 45-49. doi: 10.1177/019263658807250411
- Lewis, R., Romi, S., Qui, X., & Katz, J. (2005). Teachers' classroom discipline and student misbehaviour in Australia, China and Israel. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 729-741. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.05.008>
- Lordon, J. (1983). Establishing a climate for school discipline: The total perspective. *NASSP Bulletin*, 67(462), 58-60. doi: 10.1177/019263658306746207
- Manitoba Education. (2001). *Towards Inclusion: From Challenges to Possibilities: Planning For Behavior*.
- McMasters, C. (2002). *Student and Teacher Perceptions of Discipline at The Middle School Level*. University of Wisconsin-Stout.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Milne, E., & Aurini, J. (2015). Schools, cultural mobility and social reproduction: The case of progressive discipline. *Canadian Journal of Sociology* 40(1), 51-74.

- Moffitt, T. E. (1993). Adolescence-limited and life-course persistent antisocial behavior: A developmental taxonomy. *Psychological Review*, 100(4), 674-701.
- Mohapi, S. J. (2014) Teachers' view on causes of ill-discipline in three rural secondary schools of Nkangala district of education. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(10). doi: 10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n10p433
- Munn, P., Johnstone, M., & Sharp, S. (2004). *Discipline In Scottish Schools: A Comparative Survey Over Time Of Teachers' And Headteachers' Perceptions*. Retrieved from <http://www.gov.scot/Publications/2004/11/20255/46683>
- Nelson, M. F. (2002). *A Quality Study of Effective School Discipline Practices: Perceptions of Administrators, Tenured Teachers, And Parents in Twenty Schools*. Electronic Theses and Dissertations. Paper 718. Retrieved from <http://dc.etsu.edu/etd/718>
- Osher, D., Bear, G., Sprague, J., & Doyle, W. (2010). How can we improve school discipline? *Educational Researcher* 39(1), 48-58. doi: 10.3102/0013189X09357618
- Rice, N., Carr-Hill, R., Dixon, P., & Sutton, M. (1998). The influence of households on drinking behaviour: A multilevel analysis. *Social Science and Medicine*, 46(8), 971-979.
- Robson, C. (2010). *Η Έρευνα του Πραγματικού Κόσμου (Real World Research)*. Athens: Gutenberg.
- Rimm-Kaufman, S., & Sawyer, B. (2004). Primary-grade teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, attitudes toward teaching, and discipline and teaching practice priorities in relation to the "responsive classroom" approach. *The Elementary School Journal*, 104(4), 321-341.
- Rousmaniere, K. (1994). Losing patience and staying professional: Women teachers and the problem of classroom discipline in New York city schools in the 1920s. *History of Education Quarterly*, 34(1), 49-68.
- Sharkey, J. D., & Fenning, P. A. (2012). Rationale for designing school contexts in support of proactive discipline. *Journal of School Violence*, 95-104.
- Short, P. (1988). Effectively disciplined schools: Three themes from research. *NASSP Bulletin*, 72(504), 1-3. doi: 10.1177/019263658807250402
- Slee, R. (1995). *Changing theories and practices*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Snider, S., & Murphy, C. (1975). Discipline- what can it teach? *The Elementary School Journal*, 75(5), 299-303. The University of Chicago Press.
- Stough, L. M., & Montague, M. L. (2014). *How teachers learn to be classroom managers*. In E. Emmer (Ed), *Handbook on classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (2nd ed.) (pp. 446-458). Taylor and Francis Group Publishers.
- Walter, D. (1980). *Classroom Management*. Indianapolis, IN: Kappa Delta Pi.
- Webster-Stratton, C., Reinke, W., Herman, K., & Newcomer, L. (2001). The incredible years teacher classroom management training: The methods and principles that support fidelity of training delivery. *School Psychology Review*, 40(4), 509-529.
- Williams, S. (1998). The school discipline plan: Does it have all the right components? *NASSP Bulletin*, 82(596), 40-43. doi: 10.1177/019263659808259608

ANNEX

Interview

Sex, Age, Studies, Years of teaching, Type of school

Which do you consider the most serious cause of disciplinary problems?

Do you believe that the economic and social factors affect children's behavior (poverty, unemployment, single parent family, religious minorities)? And if so, how?

Do you believe that the number of students in the class is related with the prevention or treatment of indiscipline? And if so, how?

Does economic and social reality in Greece nowadays affect student's behavior? And if so, how?

Do you think that there may be positive teacher's behaviors that contribute to students' discipline? If so, refer 2-3 behaviors.

Do you believe that there may be negative teacher's behaviors that can lead to students' indiscipline? If so, refer indicatively 2-3 behaviors.

Do you consider that discipline is associated with students' performance? Justify your answer.

In what way does discipline help in a classroom?

Do you think that the unruly behavior has an impact on the educational process and class operation? If so, in what way?

In what way do you think students must behave in school and what behaviors are considered acceptable in the classroom?

Which children's behaviors do you think are undisciplined?

Which do you consider the most serious disciplinary problems in the classroom?

How often unruly behaviors take place in your classroom?

Do you believe that there may be prevention of unruly behavior? If so, describe a technique that you use in the classroom.

Do you think that there are ways to deal with unruly behavior? If so, please give us one of these you use in the classroom.

Do you praise your students in the classroom? In a material or a verbal way?

Do you use penalties in the classroom?

Do you think that penalties or praise help more for suppressing unruly behaviors?

Do you use rules in the classroom? And if so, do you consider that it is important for the teacher to explain why each rule is established to the students?

Do you think that the rules should be defined in cooperation with teacher and students or exclusively by the teacher?

Do you think that when a rule is established, the consequences, in case of deviation, should be defined as well?

Do you think that the rules should be modified according to circumstances? And if so, indicate some of them.

Do you think that children's cooperation and team work can help so as to reduce indiscipline?

Do you think that teacher is responsible for the creation of disciplinary problems?

Do you believe that the sex of the teacher contributes to the prevention or treatment of indiscipline? If so, in what way?

Do you believe that teacher's basic studies help him to face unruly behaviors?

Can teachers' and parents cooperation improve the students' unruly behavior?

Securitization of Migration and Human Rights in Europe

MSc Enela TOPULLI

European University of Tirana, ALBANIA

Abstract

The Post-Cold War period would face the states with new problems in the field of security. Among the most discussed and contested aspects of the respective agendas is the migration. The events of September 11th redefined the concept of security in line with the new non-state actors, that came into the system. Migration in this respect is perceived as associated with terrorism and as a threat to the security of states. The phenomenon is widely regarded as securitized. The question relates to the legitimacy of this process and to what extent it affects and impacts human rights and fundamental freedoms. It is widely recognized that there is a contradiction between the human rights framework and that of security. What is noted is the nature of the discrepancy and alternatives to manage the risks, that political elites see as inextricably linked to migration. The paper focuses on concrete cases, such as France, UK and EU.

Keywords: securitization, migration, human rights, sovereignty, Copenhagen School .

Introduction

Migration is among the most controversial issues of security agendas after the 1980s. The economic crises, conflicts, climate change, state collapse, etc., seem to be key factors of global migration. The phenomenon means extraordinary impact on the social, economic, cultural and political life of nations.

What is widely accepted in academic literature is that migration is securitized. An act of securitization refers to the classification of some specific phenomena (and not a few others), some people or entities as existential threats, that require urgent measures (Collins, 2013:153). Question mark lies in the legitimacy of this process and to what extent it affects human rights and fundamental freedoms.

The paper focuses on the migration – security dichotomy, the perception of the Copenhagen School on the phenomenon and especially on the interrelation securitization – human rights. In this regard it aims to highlight the difficulty of the coexistence of this rapport and what states can specifically do, in order to bring together security and human rights. In view of the analysis, will be considered examples in France, United Kingdom and the EU framework in particular, as a supranational element, just to emphasize the above.

Migration and Security

IOM defines migration as "the movement of a person or a group of people across international borders or within a country. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people regardless of distance, composition and causes; it is about the migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants and persons who move for other purposes, eg family reunification "(Wohlfeld, 2013:62)

It is noteworthy that the international relations literature has reserved a special place to this phenomenon, seen in different ways, given that migration itself as a case study, is interdisciplinary.

The causes are of different nature, from economic, environmental, social to the political ones, such as internal conflicts, authoritarian regimes, regime instability in respective countries. It is widely proclaimed as a feature of weak and least developed states of Third World, although migration itself somehow has undone the notion of boundary or barrier, taking already a transnational dimension.

There is certainly a security - migration dichotomy. The notion of security in this regard has been evolutionary. The events of September 11th and other cases like that of London and Madrid have led to a redefinition of the concept, according to the new circumstances of the international arena and the new type of actors that appeared in the system, of non-state character. So state security, in the traditional and simple sense means the individual protection of the territory by the state.

The issue of migration has escalated intense political debates in Europe. It is regarded as related to socio - economic or political crime, breakdown of law and order, unemployment, epidemics, cultural and religious threat, political instability, etc. So, in short, it is raised as a security threat. The fact that migratory waves are seen this way, has influenced a lot policy development in the European context, as well as internal policies of countries in terms of asylum and migration (Leonard, 2007:5).

Migration is associated particularly with terrorism and 'threat of states' national security'. Border and territorial integrity is perceived as vulnerable and threatened. As a result, countries facing pressure from the consequences of terrorist acts, the outrage according to them of cultural identity of the state, public order and safety at risk, have felt the need to reconsider the border policies and migration law. The latter has undergone numerous interventions, suffering further restrictions.

Securitization of Migration according to Copenhagen School

The perception and treatment of the notion of security only within the military aspect of the Cold War was considered insufficient. Three main schools of thought contested and challenged this rigid view of security studies, the Critical Security Studies School, Paris School and the Copenhagen School respectively.

The largest contribution of Copenhagen School is the securitization (Angelescu, 2008:11). As a concept, securitization was originally introduced in 1995 by Ole Waever, to redefine the terminological meaning of security, criticizing and questioning all previous theoretical and ontologically materialist approaches (Themistocleous, 2013:2). It is very important to note that for securitization the concept of security is built or better said constructed by relative and subjective norms and depends on the political objectives of certain actors. According to this line, security is built by acts of speech. It is the discourse that gives the concept a reality, and consequently to the threat to security. This process according to the Copenhagen School includes three main stages (four stages when completed successfully) :

Presentation of a case, individual or entity as a threat to the referent object,

Convincing the audience or public opinion for the existential danger,

This legitimizes the drastic measures taken by the securitizing actor/agent ,

If the process results effective it may be considered desecuritized, which constitutes the final stage.

The contemporary structure of the approach to security is dominated by the dichotomy myself and the other. As it is common among people the discursive practices among states as well, undergo differentiation, discrimination and racism. They are fed by a kind of xenophobia, prey of which Europe is gradually falling. Generally states associate the interior insecurities with those beyond the border. Discourses in this regard are not only a reflection of reality, but also artifacts of the language through which the reality that they need to reflect, is built (Bilgic, 2006:12).

Characteristics of the political discourse mainly, in terms of migrants have to do with:

Positive self-presentation;

Negative Presentation of the other;

Association of migrants and refugees with crime;

Securitization of migrants and refugees.

Language is a structure that implies the deliberate manipulation and states know well how to use it at their advantage. According to the Copenhagen School there is no security issue in itself, but only issues which are constructed as such by the securitizing actors. By saying something, you eventually built it. In the discourse of security, an issue is likely to be

dramatized and exaggerated, presented as a matter of supreme priority. So it is difficult to judge and reason over the securitization of an issue, or whether it constitutes a real threat. As a result, Barry Buzan says rightly, that it would take a more objective measure of security that no security theory has yet managed to identify and even less, realize (Buzan et al., 1998:30).

To conclude this section, it is worth noting that the Copenhagen School is not yet adapted to the new context of security issues, remaining essentially rigid and traditional. The approach is critical, but only that. It only criticizes and does not recommend, what would have to do actually. The securitization framework is essentially linguistic, in other words a specific rhetorical structure. There is a need, for this approach to be reformatted, in order to fit the new circumstances and actors of the international system.

Securitization of Migration vs. Human Rights

The events of September 11th, besides building a new reality and situation in the system, redefined and highlighted more emphatically the security issues. The security - migration interrelation came more to the fore. In this perspective, security became ever more important, and human rights more and more limited. Migration control is key to sovereignty. There is usually a tension, if not contradiction between the Declaration of Human Rights and the state's sovereign right to control the borders. So the transnational migration brings attention to the constitutive dilemma of liberal democracies, as Şeyla Benhabib notes. While the principle of collective self-determination, which includes border control, applies only to the state, the principles of human rights apply to all people. So the contradictory principles of state sovereignty, the interest to control the borders and the obligation of human rights are recognized as the liberal paradox (Fauser, 2006:5).

Sovereignty and borders are important, but so, or even more are human rights. The reconciliation of sovereignty with human rights is probably one of the biggest dilemmas of policy-making and in this context, to determine an issue as a security threat has significant implications in law, norms, policies and procedures (Wohlfeld, 2013:76). There is a clash between state security and human security. Liberal values and human rights collide with the securitization process.

Let's see how the securitization process is presented in the United Kingdom, France and then the EU's formal framework. They were selected this way in order to highlight that states do not always comply with bodies' legislations where they adhere, for the conditions of which they have consented and signed an agreement.

In Britain the discourse on migration and asylum builds a kind of ideology, which is characterized by the identification of migrants and refugees as a threat to the welfare system. The overall securitizing strategy is to link migration with terrorism. This reinforces the perception of migrants as terrorists for the public. Since the 80s, conservatives have been those who have highlighted this more. In the wake of the elections 2005 the former Conservative leader Michael Howard said:

" We face a real terrorist threat in Britain today - a threat to our way of life, to our liberties. But we have absolutely no idea who is coming into or leaving our country. There are a quarter of a million failed asylum seekers living in our country today. No one knows who they are or where they are. To defeat the terrorist threat we need action not talk - action to secure our borders." (Schain, 2008:144)

Another feature of the speech in Britain is on the basis of identity differences, which means that foreigners are traitors and abusers just because they are foreigners and something like that is in their nature. So the securitization or the "war strategy" against asylum seekers is the limitation of the benefits from the welfare system. Asylum and Migration Acts (1996) and that of Labour (1999) reduced these rights more and more, they also conditioned the financial and accommodation assistance. Policy became more exclusionary (Bilgic, 2006:16). Britain's position was made more visible after September 11th, when the government had to retreat by the Act of Human Rights in 2000 on the grounds that there was a terrorist threat within its territory (Omand, 2010:91).

Maggie Ibrahim calls the securitization a modern form of racism. The new security paradigm asserts that, rather than focusing on how migrants in need should be helped, it increases their vulnerability. Description with pejorative terms legitimizes racist waves (Ibrahim, 2005:169).

France on the other hand is something else. Factors that differentiate France from the rest of the world are the greatness and the uniqueness of its culture of *liberté, égalité, fraternité*, to which, foreigners have no sensation. In view of securitization of migration xenophobia, social tensions, special treatment of foreigners and something less the economic side effects

come together. Unlike the British, who emphasize this part more, for French people their culture and identity is more important. Although the French republican tradition is founded on the principle of equality between citizens, it refuses to recognize the existence of different cultures in France, so different identities are rejected by the French political legacy. As a result, from the perspective of the Copenhagen School, these cultures are supposed to be securitized and seen as a threat to French identity and culture. Let's see the speech in France:

" Uncontrolled migratory movement would be a threat against our fundamental national interests."
(Philippe Marchand)

"You take a father with three or four wives and 20 children who gets 50,000 francs in welfare payments – naturally without working. Add the noise and the smell; the French worker on the same corridor goes crazy. "
(Jaques Chirac)

"France does not want to be an immigration country anymore. The objective is now immigration zero."
(Charles Pasqua)

This last assertion by the former leftist Interior Minister Pasqua, was included in a law. This move had totally securitizing and criminal treatment effects on migration and asylum policies. The new law gave new powers to the Border Police (Police de l'Air et des Frontieres) to return immediately anyone who did not have documents. It was this law that abolished the principle of *jus soli* in France. Many of these were not reached however, the process of securitization can be considered to have successfully concluded as a social discursive practice.

The second case of securitization in France, is the Debre Law of 1996. The law required all French citizens to inform local authorities when a stranger came into their home. This generated the greatest movement with a focus on civil rights in the history of France. It is a case to be highlighted because a securitizing move of such proportions was never realized so far as to limit the rights of the local population, as happened in wartime (Bilgic, 2006:22). In France the number of detained migrants is considerable. More than 47,000 migrants were detained in 2004. Reception areas and administrative detention centers have authentically detention characteristics, such as isolation rooms for detainees and irons. Also the general conditions and sanitation in these centers are a matter of concern by the Commissioner for Human Rights (Bourbeau, 2011:28).

In the case of EU, the issue is just a little different from the harsh policies of particular states. The identifying characteristic is only the fact that its initiatives being in a supranational level, tend to be more moderate, but they do not completely undo the securitization as a discourse. Inclusion of migration and asylum in security discussions began with the Schengen Agreement since 1985. Also the Dublin Conventions and Third Pillar of Justice and Internal Affairs, through the social construct and discourse have shifted and identified asylum and migration in a safety problem (Spijkerboer, 2013:216).

Securitization is also reflected in the documents of Council of the European Union and the way they are formulated. Since 1968 the Council differentiated the status between citizens who were part of the community and those who were not, thus making a clear separation. This was the first step towards securitization. In the Seville Presidency Conclusions in 2004 it is said: " In the comprehensive plan to combat illegal immigration, the European Union has equipped itself with effective instruments for the proper management of migratory flows and combating illegal immigration." It is a securitizing discourse and the words war, illegal migration show this. The Council Directive on Minimum Standards for the Qualification and Status of Third Country Nationals says: "Member States may revoke, end or refuse to renew the status granted a refugee ... when there are reasonable grounds for regarding him or her as a danger to the community of that Member State." So, contrary to the 1951 Geneva Convention, the Council deems some refugees as a threat. This is again a securitizing discourse. The same thing happens with the Work Programme of the Austrian Presidency in 1998 (Bilgic, 2006:27).

Regulatory policies on migration are left to national governments to design and manage, since countries like Britain, France and Germany rejected the imposition of the EU in this part (Düvell & Vollmer, 2011:9). A space not always managed within the framework of human rights.

Since 1997, Member States have delegated powers to the EU legislation regarding migration and asylum. At the international level there are three organizations that serve the framework of human rights, the UN Human Rights Committee (HRC), the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) and the Court of Justice of the EU (CJEU). HRC is the monitoring

body for the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), and the ECtHR that imposes or enforces the implementation of the European Convention of Human Rights (Costello, 2012:259).

Without focusing yet on the ways states operate, it is very important to underline that even the documents themselves, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) for instance is limited somewhere and opened elsewhere, through certain instruments. So UDHR speaks of "the right to have a nationality", but in one's residence or in the country selected by him / her. Affirms "the right of free movement and residence", but only "within the borders of each State" and "the right to leave any country (even his own state) to come back later", but not to enter another state. Article 14 (1) of the UDHR contains the right to seek, but not to guarantee asylum, claiming that "everyone has the right to seek and enjoy ... asylum from persecution." The statement is therefore controversial (Costello, 2012:261).

Such a contradiction going on since the formulation of the document, what can be said about the applicability then? Add to this the overlapping authority of HRC and the ECtHR. There are also identified cases¹ where treatment, made to the detainees is debatable, if it has been carried out within the established rules of the aforementioned institutions. The legal framework of the three institutions is evasive, gives some rights, but limits many others. States as stated, decide in terms of migrants and border control. EU bodies have no compelling power over this part. National law prevails when it comes to issues of sovereignty. The fact that the contingent of migrants could fall prey to legal restrictions, punishment, expulsion², plus the vacuum created by the terminologic uncertainty over the typology of the migrant makes the securitizing process legitimized in some way. Organisms like FRONTEX and EUROSUR serve for this purpose. It is easier for the states to expel the migrants than to ensure that their rights are adequately protected inside a lawful process of migration control (Human Rights Council, 2013:15).

Securitization can be considered an alternative and practice of lazy states that refuse to cooperate even when this is imposed in treaties, programs, common policies, etc., that deal with the management of the waves of migrants. It is way easier for the states to invest considerable budget on border control rather than on coordinating work, complying with standards and the human rights framework. So there is a need for a strict monitoring of implementation and especially the manner of implementation of the agreements. Cooperation is not impossible, states have shown that they know how to cooperate when they have the will and desire. Securitization is not the only option, as we will see in the last section.

The Coordination of Security Strategies with Human Rights

Coordinating national security with human rights constitutes a big challenge. It is probably the most problematic equilibrium of the states' public sphere and perhaps an attempt for balance does not exist. The two approaches are in a permanent conflict. But before getting used to the typical cliché of difficulty, it can be affirmed that there are alternatives despite securitization.

Global data on international migration and security are limited and mainly developed at a national and regional level. It is intended to work more easily by stopping the entry of migrants than with thorough control of the people who penetrate because it costs less. States in this regard tend to strengthen the legal framework of migration beyond their borders. So basically the issue is about risk management.

Security strategies must be built in accordance with the human rights framework. It is this challenge that authentic liberal democracies deal with. In her report, regarding human rights, Special Rapporteur on Human Rights notes that "In exercising their sovereign right to regulate the entry, stay and movement of migrants and their policy on immigration, asylum and refuge, States should bear in mind the international obligations they have assumed in the area of human rights. In other words, States party to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, must guarantee to anyone who is in their territory and subject to their jurisdiction the rights recognised in those legal instruments "(UNGA, 2004:11).

¹ Kadzoev, El-Dridi, Mikolenko v.Estonia, Lokpo & Touré v.Hungary

² This happens even against to the principle of non-refoulement, the basic principle of the 1951 Geneva Convention and the European Charter of Human Rights.

Although countries tend to emphasize national security more than human security, more so given that there is no international judicial authority, to monitor the behavior of states in case of breach, there are alternatives to consider before they practice securitization. First, improving pre-entry and entry controls. Secondly, restricting the movement of unauthorized people, especially those who migrate with the help of human traffickers. Third, increasing the capacity to catch and prosecute those that pose a risk. Another effective measure is the use of intelligence services, but in this case it requires a shift of focus from the universal challenge approach to an intelligence one focused on a targeted group (IOM, 2004:15). It is further facilitated through bilateral agreements.

The strategy begins initially at an interstate level through cooperation. For persons potentially dangerous, but even in general, measures to be taken are short-term and as a result, they collide with migration laws that are long-lasting. A very important part of the state migration policy must be the protection of innocent migrants from violent reactions. The political leadership is very important as well, to educate the public opinion on the differences between foreigners and terrorists. Governments can help in a number of ways.

The last thing that should be noted is the principle of proportionality, so that any action in the name of security that impacts human rights should be proportionate to the threat. When there is danger in case of an emergency state, the measures to be taken should be reviewed by independent national bodies. Special measures should remain as such, of limited duration and be tightened only when strictly necessary (IOM, 2004:24).

Conclusions

The September 11th events were a very big turning point in the international arena, because new threats to global peace and stability were made known. So states faced problems of a different kind such as terrorism, transnational organized crime, trafficking etc. All these phenomena were connected to migration. States are powerless in the management of migratory flows, especially in terms of legal framework, and consequently securitization remains the only option left to cope with the situation. But such a process is not economically costly, it is costly for the lives of migrants, their rights and fundamental freedoms. Because globally there is not any body that imposes this framework, states tend to choose the easier option, with less financial costs. Migration is directly related to the sovereignty and policies are mainly taken at national and state level. Many human rights conventions are not implemented and ratified, especially in the countries I mentioned above, because it effectively means outrage of the sovereignty.

European countries share almost the same problem. The imperial past has made them become more protective towards their identity. In this paper were taken deliberately discourses from France, the leader of the revolution for freedom, equality, brotherhood and United Kingdom, the par excellence democracy. These are the countries that were shaped in the name of protecting human rights and the colonial countries as well, who have subjugated peoples. Alongside these, is the European Union, which is supposed to act precisely to mitigate the arbitrariness of the Member States, but which appears to be evasive and unclear in the formulation of its documents. The situation is now more difficult after Brexit and numerous terrorist acts in France, mainly. This paper tends to have a liberal approach but it should be noted that despite their universality, human rights remain contextual, they can not be otherwise.

References

- Angelescu, I. (2008). All New Migration Debates Commence in Rome: New Developments in the Securitization of Migration in the EU. Monitoring human rights and the rule of law in Europe. Retrieved 19 May 2016, from <http://eumap.org>
- Bilgic, A. (2006). *Securitization of Immigration and Asylum: A Critical Look at Security Structure in Europe (MA)*. University of Lund.
- Bourbeau, P. (2011). *The securitization of migration*. Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon [England]: Routledge.
- Buzan, B., Wæver, O., & Wilde, J. (1998). *Security*. Boulder, Colo.: Lynne Rienner Pub.
- Collins, A. (2007). *Contemporary security studies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Costello, C. (2012). Human Rights and the Elusive Universal Subject: Immigration Detention Under International Human Rights and EU Law. *Indiana Journal Of Global Legal Studies*, 19(1). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1353/gls.2012.0008>
- Düvell, F. & Vollmer, B. (2011). *European Security Challenges*. San Domenico di Fiesole: Robert Schuman for Advanced Studies, European University Institute.

-
- Fausser, M. (2006). *Transnational Migration -A National Security Risk ? Securitization of Migration Policies in Germany, Spain and United Kingdom*. Warszawa: Center for International Relations.
- Huysmans, J. (2000). The European Union and the Securitization of Migration. *Journal Of Common Market Studies*, 38(5), 751-777.
- Ibrahim, M. (2005). The Securitization of Migration: A Racial Discourse¹. *Int Migration*, 43(5), 163-187.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2435.2005.00345.x>
- Leonard, S. (2007). The 'Securitization' of Asylum and Migration in the European Union; Beyond the Copenhagen School's Framework. In *SGIR Sixth Pan-European International Relations Conference*. Turin, IT.
- Omand, D. (2010). *Securing the state*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Rezouni, S. (2010). *Illegal Immigration: Causes, Consequences and National Security Implications(MA)*. U.S Army War College.
- Schain, M. (2008). *The politics of immigration in France, Britain, and the United States*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Migrants,. (2013). *Regional study: Management of the External Borders of the European Union and its Impact on the Human Rights of Migrants*. New York City: Human Rights Council, General Assembly UN.
- Spijkerboer, T. (2013). Moving Migrants, States and Rights. *Human Rights and Border Deaths. Law And Ethics Of Human Rights*, 7(2), 213-242.
- Themistocleous, A. (2013). *Securitizing Migration: Aspects and Critiques*. The GW Post. Retrieved 21 May 2016, from <http://www.thegwpost.com>
- United Nations General Assembly,. (2004). *Report on the Human Rights of Migrants submitted by the Special Raporteur of the Commission on Human Rights*. Geneva: UN.
- Usher, E. (2004). *Essentials of migration management*. Geneva, Switzerland: International Organization for Migration.
- Wohlfeld, M. (2014). *Is Migration a Security Issue ?*. In O. Grech & M. Wohlfeld, *Migration in the Mediterranean: Human Rights, Security and Development Perspectives* (1st ed.). Malta: MEDAC.

Utilization Trends of Endocrine Therapies for Breast Cancer in Albania During 2004-2014

Laerta Kakariqi

MD, PhD, Department of Biomedical and Experimental Subjects,
Pharmacology Section, Faculty of Medicine, University of Medicine, Albania

Eduard Kakariqi

MD, MSc, PhD, Professor, Head of Department of Epidemiology and Health Systems,
Institute of Public Health, Albania
& Faculty of Public Health,
University of Medicine, Albania

Abstract

Aim: To evaluate the patterns of use of the out-of-hospital endocrine therapies for breast cancer in Albania during the period 2004-2014. **Methods:** The study was retrospective and we analyzed the prescription and consumption of these drug classes in the primary health care in Albania during 2004-2014. All data were collected from Health Insurance Institute (HII)(1) and analysed reflecting the ambulatory and outpatient use for the period 2004-2014. The data about the consumption of drugs were expressed as a number of Defined Daily Dose (DDDs) /1000 inhabitants/day. Utilization was measured in DDD/1000 inhabitants/day and was also compared with breast cancer morbidity/1000 inhabitants, to understand the covering of the population from the reimbursement scheme. For all the period under study 2004-2014, there were collected and analysed the data of import and domestic production of drugs, which altogether represent the real consumption of drugs in the country. These data were subsequently included in a comparative analysis with the utilization data according to the HII. **Results:** The drug with the highest values of consumption is Letrozole 0.05-0.37 DDD/1000 inhabitants/day(2004-2014). Anastrozole was introduced to the scheme in 2008. Its consumption in 2014 was 0.26 DDD/1000 inhabitants/day. The consumption of Tamoxifen is reduced through these years with values 0.32-0.17 DDD/1000 inhabitants/day respectively 2004-2014. Breast cancer morbidity data indicate that there does exist a correlation statistically significant between this disease and the trend of consumption of endocrine therapies drugs ($p = 0,0009$) **Conclusions:** It is evident that a non-small part of the patients remain untreated under the scheme. There is noted a shift in use of endocrine therapy from tamoxifen to aromatase inhibitors. This trend is consistent with major international clinical guidelines that recommend preferential use of aromatase inhibitors in post-menopausal women.

Keywords: Drug utilization, DDD, endocrine therapies, breast cancer

Introduction

Breast cancer is the leading cause of cancer deaths in women around the world, with approximately 522 000 women dying of the disease in 2012.(2)

Hormonal therapy, also called endocrine therapy, is an effective treatment for most tumors that test positive for either estrogen or progesterone receptors (called ER-positive or PR-positive), in both early-stage and metastatic breast cancer. This type of tumor uses hormones to fuel its growth. Blocking the hormones can help prevent a cancer recurrence and death from breast cancer when used for early-stage disease either by itself or after adjuvant or neoadjuvant chemotherapy.

Tamoxifen. Tamoxifen is a drug that blocks estrogen from binding to breast cancer cells. It is effective for lowering the risk of recurrence in the breast that had cancer, the risk of developing cancer in the other breast, and the risk of distant

recurrence. Tamoxifen is also an effective treatment for metastatic hormone receptor-positive breast cancer. **Aromatase inhibitors (AIs)**. AIs decrease the amount of estrogen made by tissues other than the ovaries in postmenopausal women by blocking the aromatase enzyme, which changes weak male hormones called androgens into estrogen when the ovaries have stopped making estrogen during menopause. These drugs include anastrozole, letrozole, and exemestane. All of the AIs are pills taken daily by mouth. Treatment with AIs, either alone or following tamoxifen, is more effective than tamoxifen alone at reducing the risk of recurrence in post-menopausal women. AIs are also an effective treatment for metastatic hormone receptor positive breast cancer. Women who have gone through menopause and are prescribed hormonal therapy have several options: start therapy with an AI for up to 5 years, begin treatment with tamoxifen for 2 to 3 years and then switch to an AI for 2 to 3 years, or take tamoxifen for 5 years then switch to an AI for up to 5 years, in what is called extended hormonal therapy. Recent research has shown that taking tamoxifen for up to 10 years can further reduce the risk of recurrence following a diagnosis of early-stage breast cancer, although side effects are also increased with longer duration of therapy.

Premenopausal women should not take AIs, as they are not effective. Options for adjuvant hormonal therapy for premenopausal women include the following:

Five or more years of tamoxifen, with switching to an AI after menopause begins

Either tamoxifen or an AI combined with suppression of ovarian function.

Objective, Materials and Methods

Objective:

To assess the out-of-hospital endocrine therapies for breast cancer use in Albania during the period 2004-2014.

Materials and Methods:

The data were obtained from the HII. All data were collected for the period 2004-2014 and analyzed.

The analysis included, the total number of prescriptions made, and quantities of drugs used.

The data about the population were obtained from the Institute of Statistics (INSTAT)(3). The data about the consumption of drugs were expressed as a number of Defined Daily Dose (DDDs)/1000 inhabitants/day. All drugs were classified by groups of Anatomic Therapeutic Chemical Classification (ATC).

Data on the levels of morbidity

From the database of HII there were extracted the general number of patients reported for each diagnose, for each year. Following, there were calculated the respective levels of annual morbidity (based on the respective code-diagnoses) for 1000 inhabitants.

Data on real consumption (import and domestic production)

For all the period under study 2004-2014 there were collected and analysed data from the import and domestic production of the drugs,(4) which represent the real consumption of drugs in the country. It was noted that the increase in consumption from one year to another was small, e.g. the consumption from 2010 to 2014 (i.e. 4 years) was increased by only 2.98%. Consequently, in order to obtain an updated study, there were chosen the data of import and domestic consumption only for the last three years, 2012, 2013, 2014, and those were involved in a comparative analysis with the equivalent consumption data according to HII. In order to minimize the effect of variations between consumption and stock inventory balances from one year to another, it was calculated and put to analysis the annual average value of the three chosen years (on one hand that of the import and domestic consumption, and on the other hand that of HII).

Presentation of the results and statistical elaboration. The database of HII was modified in Microsoft Office Excel 2007, whereas the statistical elaboration of the obtained results was conducted with the statistical package StatsDirect (version 2.7.2.). A descriptive statistics was used to report all data on drugs consumption and the results obtained were displayed in tabular form as well as through the histogram method.

Average annual values of consumption in the country level and for each district were used as a basis to generate the overviews and the graphics that illustrate the trends of consumption for each class of drugs during the 8-years period 2004-2014. The linear regression model was used to evaluate the trends of consumption of drugs relative to the time. A value of $p \leq 0.05$ was considered as significant.

In order to assess if there exists a correlation statistically significant between the level of consumption of drugs and the level of morbidity, it was applied the Spearman correlation (with a significance level of ≤ 0.05).

Results

The drug with the highest values of consumption is Letrozole 0.05-0.37 DDD/1000 inhabitants/day(2004-2014). Anastrozole was introduced to the scheme in 2008. Its consumption in2014 was 0.26 DDD/1000 inhabitants/day.

The consumption of Tamoxifen is reduced through these years with values 0.32-0.17 DDD/1000 inhabitants/day respectively 2004-2014.

Breast cancer morbidity data indicate that there does exist a correlation statistically significant between this disease and the trend of consumption of endocrine therapies drugs ($p = 0,0009$) (Figure 1).

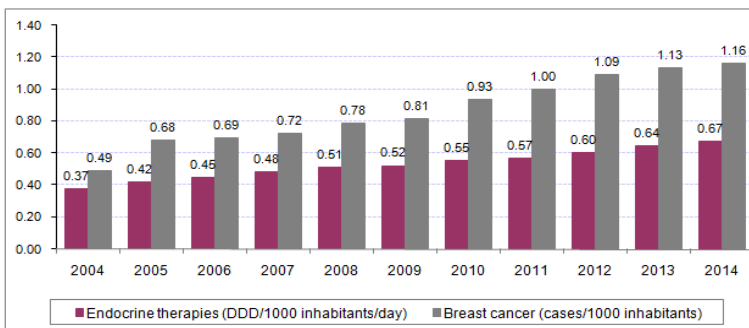


Figure 1 Consumption of Endocrine therapies drugs at the national level (DDD/1000 inhabitants/day) versus breast cancer morbidity (cases/1000 inhabitants);

($p = 0,0009$; correlation coefficient is statistically significant)

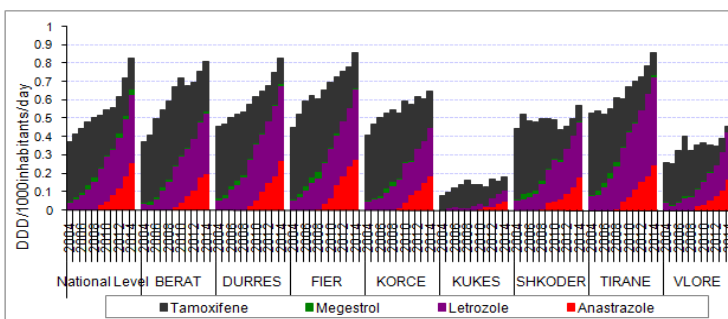


Figure 2 Consumption of endocrine therapies drugs in different regions and at the national level (DDD/1000 inhabitants/day).

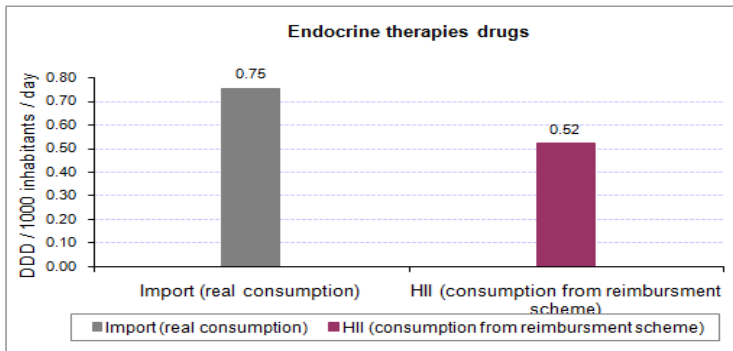


Figure 3 Annual average value of consumption of total Endocrine therapies drugs: consumption based on import (real consumption) [*] versus consumption based on HII.

[*] The "Import" item includes the consumption based on import data as well as the consumption based on domestic production: this represents the factual consumption.

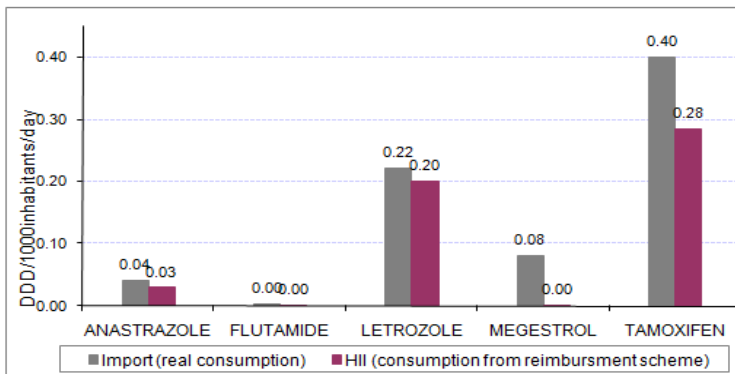


Figure 4 Annual average value of consumption of each Endocrine therapy drug: consumption based on import (real consumption) [*] versus consumption based on HII.

[*] The "Import" item includes the consumption based on import data as well as the consumption based on domestic production: this represents the factual consumption.

Discussion

It results that the increase in consumption of the anti-tumour drugs goes in line with the data on breast cancer morbidity, but in lower values. Particularly in recent years, the difference has become deeper, indicating that a non-small part of the patients remain un-treated.

One possible reason for this situation may be the delayed diagnosis of the disease, in an advanced phase. This phase may coincide with the passage from the hormonal therapy to classic cytostatic drugs, or with the preliminary termination of the treatment due to lethal complications of the base disease. Another reason may be the delayed inclusion of anastrozole under the scheme (only after 2008).

The breast cancer at females consists in a major public health problem due to the number of patients affected by this disease. The incidence of breast cancer increases with aging and around 80% of the cases with breast cancer appear at women of over 50 years old (5). Around 30% of all malignant tumours at females pertain to breast cancer, thereby causing a more frequent tumoural diagnosis (6). After determination of the diagnosis, the prognosis and the choice of the protocol

treatment depend on the progress level of the disease. Approximately 2/3 of the women with this diagnosis have positive tumour receptors to oestrogens. The aim of the therapy is to deter the growth of tumour cells by inhibiting the estrogenic proliferative stimulus. The ovarian inhibition and the treatment with tamoxifen has demonstrated an improvement of the 5-year survival rate even in cases where the condition or type of the estrogenic receptors is not known (7). Tamoxifen is indicated for the treatment of breast cancer at the preliminary and ER+ advanced phase (with 'oestrogen receptor-positive' invasive breast cancers) in the females at pre- and post-menopause (8). Differently from the females in pre-menopause, in which oestrogen is produced in ovaries, in women in post-menopause it is produced as a result of the action of aromatase enzyme in peripheral tissues of the body. Given that in the majority of cases breast cancer responds to estrogenic stimulation, the decrease of its production in the tumour tissue (e.g. breast adipose tissue) through inhibitors of aromatase enzyme (anastrozole, letrozole, exemestan) has been proved effective in the treatment of hormone-sensitive tumours at women in post-menopause(9).

With the aim to obtain a better understanding of the situation, the consumption data based on import were included in the analysis by comparing them with the consumption data based on HII. As a general rule, this group of drugs get reimbursed 100%, hence it is expected that the import data are in line with the consumption data based on HII (Figure 3, Figure 4). However, as it can be understood from the analysis obtained, a significant part of the patients are treated outside of the scheme. Around 30% of the consumption of anastrozole, tamoxifen and the whole class in its entirety occurs outside of the scheme. We can obtain the expected matching between the real consumption of anti-cancer drugs and the morbidity data, only by including these values.

The consumption of anti-tumoural medicaments has increased, although in minor values, in all the regions under study within the period 2004-2014 (Figure 2). The minimum values of consumption of these medicaments appear in Kukes, and then Vlora and Shkodra. Whereas, the maximum consumption values are noticed in Berat, followed by Fier, and then Tirana and Durres. In the majority of regions, we note the progressive decrease in the consumption of tamoxifen, against the increase in consumption of anastrozole, which is in line with the recommendations of therapeutic guides and the literature. The regions of Berat, Kukes and Vlora represent an exception, thereby indicating the lack of adherence of doctors to therapeutic guides and reflecting probable lack of update of information and therapeutic knowledge. Other reasons may be the poor social-economic standard of the women-patients in these regions, the low level of access of these patients to the medical system, the poor coverage by specialist doctors, as well as reduced diagnostic skills.

At the national level, the consumption of these medicaments shows an increase of 79,37% (0,37-0,67 DDD/1000 inhabitants/day, 2004-2014). Nevertheless, this increase results low, as it does not match with the data of morbidity of breast cancer, which show an increase of the disease of 137,78% (0,49-1,16 cases/1000 inhabitants).

As regards the prescription tendency (DDD%), there can be noted that the medicament most described is tamoxifen, which however, incurs a decrease in the period under study: from 85,92% in 2004 to 35,23% in 2014. The decrease in prescription of tamoxifen is in line with the literature and clinical studies conducted, which indicate a reduced efficacy of tamoxifen versus an increased risk from its usage after 5 years of therapy.

Meanwhile, we find an increase of prescription in enzymatic inhibitors: anastrozole and letrozole. Anastrozole included in the list of 2008, occupies the first place as regards the increase in prescription: 1,05%-9,20%, 2008-2014. Whereas, letrozole, which appears in the list since 2004, is characterised by a prescription in higher amounts but with a lower increase: 12,61%-44,38%, 2004-2014.

This increase in the prescription of aromatase inhibitors goes in line with therapeutic guides, according to which:

For women in post-menopause with breast cancer, tamoxifen remains the treatment chosen as adjuvant initial therapy. In case of presence of counter-indications relative to its consumption (high risk for thromboembolic, or endometrial disorders), or in case of intolerance, the medicament needs to be substituted with an aromatase inhibitor;

For patients in post-menopause, it should be considered the change of therapy towards an aromatase inhibitor after 2, 3 or 5 years of treatment with tamoxifen.

For women in post-menopause at an advanced phase of the disease, it should be considered right at the beginning the initiation of treatment with medicaments of the III-d generation of aromatase inhibitors, before the usage of tamoxifen, or of megestrol acetat(10).

Conclusions

As a result, the increase in consumption of anti-tumoral drugs goes in line with the breast cancer morbidity data, but in lower values. Particularly in recent years, the difference becomes deeper and it is evident that a non-small part of the patients remain un-treated under the scheme.

There is noted a shift in use of endocrine therapy from tamoxifen to aromatase inhibitors. This trend is consistent with major international clinical guidelines that recommend preferential use of aromatase inhibitors in post-menopausal women.

Acknowledgments

Funding: *This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.*

Declaration of authorship: Laerta Kakariqi contributed to the data acquisition, study conception

and design, performed statistical analyses. Eduard Kakariqi contributed by critically revising the manuscript.

The Authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

References:

1. Health Insurance Institute, Albania; Ministry of Health of Albania
2. Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Ervik M *et al*. GLOBOCAN 2012 v1.0 – Cancer incidence and mortality worldwide: IARC CancerBase No. 11. Lyon, France: International Agency for Research on Cancer, 2012.
3. Institute of Statistics; INSTAT Albania
4. General Customs Directorate, Ministry of Finance, Albania
5. No authors listed. NICE technology appraisal guidance 112: Hormonal therapies for the adjuvant treatment of early oestrogen-receptor-positive breast cancer. www.nice.org.uk/TA112
6. No authors listed. Management of breast cancer in women. Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, ISBN 1 899893 34 2; www.sign.ac.uk
7. Love RR, Duc NB, Allred DC, Binh NC, Dinh NV, Kha NN, *et al*. Oophorectomy and tamoxifen adjuvant therapy in premenopausal Vietnamese and Chinese women with operable breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2002; 20:2559-2566.
8. Jordan VC. Fourteenth Gaddum Memorial Lecture: A current view of tamoxifen for the treatment and prevention of breast cancer. *Br J Pharmacol* 1993; 110 (2):507-517. [PMC 2175926](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/2175926/). [PMID 8242225](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8242225/).
9. Howell A, Cuzick J, Baum M, *et al*. Results of the ATAC (Arimidex, Tamoxifen, Alone or in Combination) trial after completion of 5 years' adjuvant treatment for breast cancer. *The Lancet* 2005; 365 (9453):60-62. [doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736\(04\)17666-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(04)17666-6). [PMID 15639680](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15639680/)
10. Eisen A, Trudeau M, Shelley W, Sinclair S, *et al*. The Role of Aromatase Inhibitors in Adjuvant Therapy for Postmenopausal Women with Hormone Receptor-positive Breast Cancer: Guideline Recommendations. Toronto, Feb 2008.

Competence - Based Learning in the Romanian Higher Education: Perceptions from the Inside

Adela Coman

-Associate professor- The University of Bucharest, Romania

Catalina Bonciu

-Professor- The University of Bucharest, Romania

Abstract

This study aims to address the problem of competencies offered by the Romanian universities, from the perspective of the players interested in them and present on the labor market: post-university graduates and employers, as competencies' beneficiaries. We started from the premise that postgraduate studies can make a difference in a changing labor market, and the Master specializations offered by the Romanian universities can provide the competencies required by the employers, particularly in the business world. Our exploratory research aimed mainly to clarify the following aspects: the perception of post-university graduates on the competencies acquired and the perceived level of these competencies; if there is a link between the postgraduate programme and the job currently held by the graduate; if graduates are satisfied /dissatisfied with their job and what is the main reason for satisfaction / dissatisfaction; if the competencies provided by the university coincide with the competencies required by the employer. The results of the research showed that there are categories of competencies perceived to be deficient, both by graduates and employers. However, the graduates declare that, broadly, they are satisfied with their jobs, the reasons not being linked, in most cases, with their level of competence.

Keywords: competencies, human capital, postgraduate studies, suitability

Introduction

The transformation of all European higher education systems during the recent years has been characterized by an increase in the number of students in undergraduate and graduate courses, the introduction of policies and procedures for quality assurance in higher education and adapting the university curriculum to the requirements of the new economy and of the labor market.

These transformations have led to the restructuring of the higher education model. One of the most important trends was the shift from the traditional model based on transmitting information to a model which supports the development of competencies and a more active involvement of the student. The introduction of a competency-based approach in defining the outcomes of education is probably the most important feature of the university reform, and is closely linked to the need of increasing the students' employability. An individual is considered employable if he/she proves to have enough professional skills/competencies required by the labor market or by the changes which occur at the job, where these competencies are capitalized (Villa, Garcia Aracil, Mora, 2007). The notion according to which enterprises need well trained graduates who also possess a set of basic competencies (e.g. teamwork, initiative, problem-solving) which allows them to adapt to change, has become increasingly important. Yet this process has neither been easy, nor has it been simple, due to the confusion arisen with regard to what needs to be taught, the manner in which knowledge should be transmitted and how it should be evaluated (Green, Hammer, Star, 2009).

This paper is structured in four sections: the first refers to the theoretical frame, in the broader context of the debate about the relationship between education and employability, which also allows foreshadowing the purposes of this study. The second section includes a description of the objectives pursued, the work methodology and some characteristics of the studied sample. The third section contains the results of the research and their interpretation. In the last section are presented an overview of the results, the implications, as well as the conclusions of the study.

A literature review

What particular competencies should be developed during undergraduate and graduate studies? This is a key issue which raises several questions: (1) how do we define “competencies”; (2) what are the basic competencies and what are the specific competencies for each field of study; (3) what are the real possibilities to teach certain competencies in university; (4) what is the relevance of the various types of learned competencies from the perspective of finding a job.

As regards the term “competency”, it was defined as one’s ability to pronounce oneself on something, based on a deep knowledge of the issue in question (DEX online). According to David McClelland (1973), competency refers to the sum of knowledge, skills and attitudes that contribute to a person’s ability to effectively carry out (to standards previously agreed upon) his/her job tasks and responsibilities (in short, to be efficient). Competencies can be defined and developed.

In this paper, we define competencies as a set of knowledge, skills and expertise that individuals and organizations possess. These may be perceived as a set of learnt skills and abilities to perform specific activities based on a certain level of past experience. Hence, competencies are a product or a result of a process which individuals and organizations must undergo (a training programme or a series of tasks). Specialized literature, generally, identified different types of competencies, such as: management, science, technology, engineering and mathematics competencies (STEM) and social and communication competencies (Curtin et al, 2011; Smith et al, 2012).

Basic competencies are considered to be discrete entities which are measurable, transferrable and decontextualized from the fields of study (Mora, 2007). The discussion regarding competencies considered as the most important and the reason why they hold this status (basic competencies versus specific competencies) actually start from the dilemma of competence-based education which ensures the *flexibility and adaptability* of graduates throughout their lives – *basic competencies* - versus the education based on *specific competencies*, intrinsically linked to the field of study (Green, Hammer, Star, 2009; Heijke et al, 2003). More recently, the so-called *soft skills* were brought into discussion; these include: social intelligence and proactivity, the ability to search for and find information, to maneuver large databases. These soft skills are associated to the new jobs in the economy of knowledge and increased requirements of employers with regard to the performance of young employees.

The construction of competencies, on the other hand, is the formal or informal development process or the acquisition of specific competencies by individuals or organizations. Many specialists, in fact, agree with the idea that the innovative performance of an economy is largely dependent on the learning process of organizations and individuals, as their constant ability to adapt and change in relation to the external environment changes, taking as a starting point precisely these skills. The motivation behind this focus on competencies and construction of competencies is based on accepting the fact that individuals and organizations must be able to adapt to the everchanging conditions. Therefore, in order to remain competitive, both individuals and organization must continually improve their competencies portfolio and constantly build/acquire new competencies.

If a company’s competencies are embedded in its processes and are known, generally, as structural capital, in the case of individuals, acquiring competencies means acquiring information, knowledge, understanding and skills by participating in a type of formal (educational institution) or informal education (e.g. “seeing and doing”). The outcome of individual competency construction is materialized in what we call today a (bigger) stock of human capital.

Certain authors draw the attention upon the fact that these competencies are hard to learn in the university environment, and that they can only be assimilated at the job. Heijke et al (2003) has proven that leadership and management competencies, such as creative problem solving, conflict negotiation and delegation of tasks are difficult to acquire outside a job.

According to the human capital theory (Becker, 1964), investment in education increases an individual's labor productivity and is rewarded by higher wages. Therefore, people entering the labor market should invest more in their education, as a long-term strategy. This theory is based on other studies regarding the positive correlation between the level of education and the wage level throughout the entire life. This suggests that, in situations where there is a shortage of workforce and a high level of competition, those who invest more in their own education, as a differentiation strategy, shall record higher revenues/earnings. In the current conditions of higher education massification, when an increasing number of people are considering university studies, the differentiation between the members of this group shall be determined by the access to postgraduate education (specialization courses, master programs, doctorate), assuming that there is a certain homogeneity among individuals with the same qualification in terms of knowledge and skills acquired, and having a postgraduate certification will be better rewarded on the market (Flores Lagunes, Light, 2009).

However, there are problems regarding the human capital theory, problems related to the difficulty in proving that the growth in productivity of the most qualified workers stands precisely in their education. Productivity is unknown to employers when these qualified applicants enter the labor market. In the current situation, when access to university education is (almost) unlimited, we do not know with certainty that the mere fact of spending more years in university makes one more productive (Dobbs, Sun, Roberts, 2008). It should also be taken into account the fact that people continue to study not only for economic reasons, but also to have access to more interesting jobs, to develop their skills and to acquire more knowledge and / or social recognition.

The emergence of credentialism theories (Arrow, 1973; Spence, 1973; Taubman and Wales, 1973; Stiglitz, 1975), as an alternative theory to the human capital theory, has given the higher education institutions a classification and selection function. It was assumed that the purpose of education was not to provide knowledge or skills designed to increase the productivity of individual (since this productivity is obtained after employment), but to certify individuals' skills, adaptability and learning abilities. Consequently, education was considered to be a *filter* to identify individuals with the best qualities in terms of their employability and to qualify them in the best conditions for preliminary and internal training courses. Starting from these premises, the hypothesis that postgraduate studies have an additional, intrinsic value, beyond the number of years spent in universities, is sustained, thus creating the perception of an increased productivity (Dobbs et al, 2008).

Both theories – human capital theory and credentialism theory – predict a better position for those who have completed some form of postgraduate studies (specialized studies, master or doctorate), as a strategy (of investment in education) designed to provide an increased degree of employability. Moreover, the credentialism approach says that a master and a doctoral program represents a greater competitive advantage than other postgraduate programs or training courses that are not recognized through a university diploma.

Following this approach, one of the objectives of this study was to examine the function of postgraduate studies (master programs) to increase the employability and competitiveness of graduates of such programs, whether the competencies acquired (as students of master programs) coincide with the competencies required at the work place.

In the next section are presented the research objectives, the methodology as well as the characteristics of the sample.

Research objectives

The objective of our research was to provide an answer to the following questions:

- (1) What is the perception of MA graduates regarding the competencies acquired and the level of such competencies?
- (2) Is there a link between the attended postgraduate program and the currently held position?
- (3) What is the level of satisfaction of MA graduates in their current job?
- (4) What are the main competencies required by the employer at the current job?

Methodology

Our research was carried out within a business faculty in Bucharest. Of all the master programs, we selected those that were regarded as "popular" both by the students and by the members of the teaching staff. More specifically, we

approached those programs that had the highest enrollment rate during the two analyzed years – 2010-2011 and 2013-2014, namely a master degree in human resources (HR), a master degree in communication and public relations (PR) and a master degree in business management and administration (MBA). Our aim was to find out if there were any significant differences in terms of the competencies acquired by the students of the three classes which were analyzed, as well as the extent to which there exists a correlation between these competencies and the requirements of the labour market.

This being an exploratory research, we designed a questionnaire with 20 questions aimed especially at the students' perception as to the degree to which 5 categories of competencies are assimilated: management competencies (decision-making, problem solving, creativity, leadership, teamwork), communication competencies (written communication, verbal communication and online communication), general academic competencies (critical thinking, research abilities), instrumental competencies (computational abilities, foreign languages), theoretical and practical competencies (assimilating theoretical concepts and practical skills).

The approach of competencies analyzed in this study combine the traditional perspective of university education (questions related to the theoretical and practical knowledge specific to the classical academic education) with questions about competencies specific to the 20th century, such a teamwork, creativity, problem solving and leadership, among others. This combination allowed us to make an assessment of the changes (however small) that occurred during the two periods under review, as a result of social pressure and the adjustment of the Romania education to the European higher education.

In order to ensure comparability of data, we administered these questions to 100 graduates of master programmes from each domain. We would like to mention the fact that the gender proportion was approximately the same in both intervals, namely 60% female and 40% male. The condition necessary for graduates to participate in the research was that they be graduates of the courses of at least one of the master programmes envisaged, and be employed.

Results

The graduate's perception as to the level of competencies obtained during postgraduate courses

In this section we approached two aspects: firstly, we identified which of the analyzed competencies records a deficit in the sense of the existence of a need which is not covered by such competencies; or the existence of a surplus of competencies in relation to what graduates are required at the job. Secondly, we sought to highlight the existence of change as to the manner in which students perceive these deficits/surpluses of competencies during the two analyzed periods. Thus, we proceeded with the differentiated analysis of the students' perceptions in each individual domain (HR, PR and MBA) and for each period (2010-2011 and 2013-2014). The results are presented in tables 1, 2 and 3.

Table no. 1. The perception of master students in HR on the deficit/surplus of competencies (MU=%)

HR Competencies	Deficit 2014	Surplus 2014	No disparity	Deficit 2010	Surplus 2010	No disparity
Decision-making	39	34	27	45	42	13
Problem solving	67	22	11	54	37	9
Leadership	48	35	17	42	40	18
Creativity	72	12	16	65	13	22
Teamwork	38	32	30	35	29	36
Written communication	27	45	28	33	41	26
Oral communication	32	42	26	39	38	23
Online cooperation	52	33	15	59	30	11
Critical thinking	50	29	21	42	32	26
Research abilities	62	25	13	55	28	17
Computer abilities	47	26	27	42	30	28
Foreign languages	34	32	34	33	35	32
Theoretical concepts	23	65	12	31	54	15
Practical abilities	64	28	8	56	32	12

Source: the authors' calculations

It results that students perceive a deficit of competencies in the following domains: creativity (72%), problem solving (67%), practical (64%) and research abilities (62%) and online cooperation (52%).

In 2010, competencies which recorded the highest deficit perceived by students were: creativity (65%), problem solving (54%), online cooperation (59%), practical (56%) and research abilities (55%).

We can notice that, generally speaking, the deficit of competencies of the two generations of graduates is maintained, the same categories of competencies being envisaged. One can also notice that the above-mentioned deficit of competencies records a slightly growing trend in the class of 2014 as compared to the class of 2010.

The competencies that the HR graduates consider to be on the surplus are: the assimilation of theoretical concepts (65%), written communication (45%) and oral communication (42%) in 2014. It is worth mentioning the fact that there exists a surplus of the above-mentioned competencies in 2010, as well, namely 54%, 41% and 38% respectively, the tendency being a growth of the perceived surplus in 2014.

In table no. 2 are presented the perceptions of the Communication and Public Relations (PR) Master graduates regarding the degree of competency assimilation.

Table no. 2. The perception of master students in PR on the deficit/surplus of competencies (MU=%)

PR Competencies	Deficit 2014	Surplus 2014	No disparity	Deficit 2010	Surplus 2010	No disparity
Decision-making	35	36	29	32	33	35
Problem solving	51	24	25	49	22	29
Leadership	38	31	31	37	30	33
Creativity	53	26	21	48	27	25
Teamwork	31	33	36	30	35	35
Written communication	22	58	20	23	55	22
Oral communication	25	55	20	28	53	19
Online cooperation	31	35	34	29	36	35
Critical thinking	58	22	20	55	24	21
Research abilities	33	34	33	28	35	37
Computer abilities	50	23	27	48	21	31
Foreign languages	39	42	19	36	40	24
Theoretical concepts	15	59	26	14	57	29
Practical abilities	70	15	15	69	14	17

Source: the authors' calculations

Graduates of the PR program perceive themselves as having a deficit in the following categories: critical thinking (58%), creativity (53%), problem solving (51%) and computer abilities (50%). These competencies are on the deficit both in 2014 and in 2010, the values of the perceived deficits recording a slightly growing trend. Unlike the graduates of HR, graduates of PR perceive the lack of practical abilities the strongest, approximately 70% of these considering that, generally speaking, they do not have practical abilities.

As regards the surplus of competencies, it is recorded in the following domains: assimilation of theoretical concepts (59%), written communication competencies (58%) and oral communication competencies (55%). It is worth mentioning the fact that these competencies were considered to be on the surplus in 2010, as well (namely 57%, 55% and 53% respectively). One can also notice the fact that all other categories of competencies there is a relative balance between the number of individuals considering that those competencies are in the deficit and those who consider them to be on the surplus. Moreover, there are no significant differences between the two generations of students who took part in the survey.

In table no. 3 are presented the perceptions of the Business Administration Master graduates (MBA) regarding the abilities acquired.

Table no. 3. The perception of master students in MBA on the deficit/surplus of competencies (MU=%)

MBA Competencies	Deficit 2014	Surplus 2014	No disparity	Deficit 2010	Surplus 2010	No disparity
Decision-making	49	24	27	48	25	27
Problem solving	55	26	19	53	24	23
Leadership	52	23	25	41	21	20
Creativity	57	20	23	45	28	27
Teamwork	20	56	22	23	52	25

Written communication	33	32	35	34	36	31
Oral communication	30	28	42	28	32	40
Online cooperation	23	51	26	26	47	21
Critical thinking	45	27	28	43	28	29
Research abilities	48	19	33	47	16	37
Computer abilities	46	24	30	49	20	31
Foreign languages	23	25	52	26	20	54
Theoretical concepts	22	50	28	28	42	30
Practical abilities	65	21	14	63	20	13

Source: the authors' calculations

Graduates of the MBA programme signal a deficit in the following competencies: creativity (57%), problem solving (55%), leadership (52%), closely followed by decision-making (49%), research abilities (48%), computer abilities (46%) and critical thinking (45%). The same competencies are in the deficit in 2010, with the noteworthy exception of two of them, i.e. creativity and leadership, which recorded a visibly growing trend in 2014 (55% as opposed to 45%, and 52% as opposed to 41% respectively). All the other above-mentioned competencies do not record significant evolution in 2014 as compared to 2010. It is also worth mentioning the fact that there is quite a big number of respondents who consider that there is no disparity in terms of the research and the computational competencies (approximately 30% both in 2014 and in 2010).

Equally interesting was the perception of MBA graduates regarding the "surplus" competencies. In this category they placed teamwork (56%), online cooperation (51%) and assimilation of theoretical concepts (50%). These same areas have been identified as surplus in 2010 (52%, 47%, 42%, respectively). The other competencies, namely written communication, oral communication and foreign languages have an approximately equal distribution among respondents who consider them a deficit, a surplus or in the category "no disparity". As in the case of PR graduates, the MBA graduates consider they lack most the practical abilities (65% in 2014 and 63% in 2010).

Analyzing the data referring to the graduates' perception as to the competencies assimilated during their master studies highlights the fact that, in general, competencies which are perceived as being in the deficit by all graduates of the master degree programs approached are: creativity, problem solving and practical abilities. Graduates of two out of three programs also mention a deficit in terms of research abilities (HR and MBA), computational abilities and critical thinking (PR and MBA), and only one program mentions a deficit of competencies in leadership and decision-making (MBA).

As regards the surplus of competencies, all graduates of these programmes consider that assimilation of theoretical concepts is redundant. Graduates of two out of the three programs mentioned a surplus of competencies in written communication and oral communication (HR and PR), and the graduates of one program perceived teamwork and online cooperation as being in excess (MBA).

The relation between the level of postgraduate education and the labor market

One of the most important indicators of performance of higher education institutions is the *degree of adequacy of the qualification obtained* by the graduates and the *characteristics of the job* they hold.

To address the correlation between the level of education and the labor market we started by addressing two questions related to the current job (or, in some cases, the job graduates had after graduation). First, graduates were asked: "What were the requirements for obtaining the job you currently have/you had after graduation?" The following answers were considered: "They required higher education in the field", "They required only higher education", and "They did not require higher education". Then a second question, linked to the first, was asked, which offered two possible answers: if the job implies a certain specialization (master degree), graduates were asked if the degree program they had graduated from was a requirement for holding that position; and in case no specific specialization was required, if it was necessary to be a master degree graduate. In the table below we highlighted the results obtained resulting the combination of the following variants: (1) a specific master program/a set of competencies and requirements for the job linked to the specific master program/the set of specific competencies; (2) a specific master program/a set of competencies not linked to the requirements of the job; (3) a non-specific master program to be correlated to specific competencies/job requirements; (4) a non-specific master program with competencies that are not job-specific (not correlated with the requirements of the job).

We mention that the questions were addressed to all graduates, therefore the results relate to both generations analyzed. The results are presented in table no. 4:

Table no. 4. Relation between specialization (graduated master program) and the competencies required for the job

Specific master program and specific competencies	Specific master program and non-specific competencies	Master program and specific competencies	Master program and non-specific competencies
32%	30%	26%	12%

Source: the authors' calculations

In general, the figures show that the graduated master program is correlated to the competencies required for the position held, in 32% of the cases the requirement being for job specific competencies, and in other 30% - non-specific competencies.

The question "Do you think the master program you graduated from is relevant for the position you currently hold?" was answered in the affirmative by most graduates (85% in 2014 and 78% in 2010).

It should be noted that the occupational status of the MA graduate reflects not only the impact of university education, but also the interaction between this and the macroeconomic conditions – what organizations capitalize and search in a certain period of time – as well as the graduate's characteristics and qualities such as: work experience, effort invested in finding a job, etc. (Velasco, 2007). Therefore, we consider that the answers to the question above should be interpreted with caution, given that at the time of the study we did not have all the necessary information to formulate an opinion on the relevance of university and MA education for an extremely large variety of positions.

Graduates were then asked to evaluate on a scale from 1 (very low) to 5 (very high) their level of *satisfaction* with regard to job they currently hold. The degree of satisfaction was considered taking into account four elements: the content of the activity they perform, the promotion perspectives, the salary level, the use of knowledge assimilated during studies. The results are presented in table no. 5:

Table no. 5. The MA graduates' perceived level of satisfaction

	Very low	Low	Neutral	High	Very high
Content of activity	15	12	24	28	21
Promotion perspectives	11	20	13	24	22
Salary level	34	38	21	5	2
Use of assimilated knowledge	26	22	16	31	5
General satisfaction level	20	23	18	22	17

Source: the authors' calculations

Analyzing the data, one can conclude that graduates of postgraduate study programs are satisfied with the content of the activity performed (49%), they have promotion perspectives in their career (46%), they consider useful (31%), but not very useful (5%) the knowledge accumulated during studies (36%), but are dissatisfied with the salary level (72%). Yet, the general satisfaction level is high (22%) and very high (17%).

Specialized studies regarding the satisfaction level show that, in general, graduates are moderately satisfied with their professional status (Mora, Carbonell, 2009). Moreover, as with salary incomes, the chosen specialization seems to be a determinant of satisfaction, along with the adequacy of education content compared to the job's structure and tasks (Mora, Carbonell, 2009). On the other hand, the disparity between the competencies provided by the university and the level of competencies required at the workplace does not seem to be a problem; on the contrary, it seems to have rather a positive impact on the level of satisfaction for the Romanian graduates. The idea of complex tasks at work involves a greater degree of satisfaction, perhaps because of the perception of a higher occupational status, and the motivation associated with jobs

that require greater effort. This is connected to the professional and personal promotion associated to/offered by these workplaces (McGuinness, 2003).

The relation between the complexity of the job held and the associated competencies from the employer's perspective

Until now, the labor market needs have been evaluated using two complementary methodologies: (a) the first focused on the question directly addressed to the employer about the competencies that graduates should possess to obtain a qualified job; (b) the second focused on the way graduates perceive the usefulness of the competencies acquired, what should be their level and how relevant are these to obtain the target job.

With regard to the competencies required at the workplace, it is difficult to analyze the results obtained by different researchers because of the disparity between the conceptual and methodological criteria used and the social and economic context in which the research took place. There were examined different periods of time and, therefore, different needs and values required on the labor market. As observed by Davies et al (2013), having IT abilities in the '90s was a competitive advantage, whereas today other competencies such as social intelligence, creativity, empathy, transdisciplinarity, intercultural competency, etc. are valued.

In this study, we referred to five categories of competencies and we asked the employers to rank them according to their relevance for the job held by the MA graduate. The ratings given by the employers were the following: management competencies (35%), general academic competencies (22%), communication competencies (16%), theoretical and practical competencies (15%) and instrumental competencies (12%).

As regards management competences, one has to emphasize the fact that, from the perspective of the job they currently have, graduates experience a deficit in *management competencies*, in particular in the problem solving and creativity aspects. The deficit is perceived as less emphasized in regard to decision-making and leadership competencies. In this category, only the one related to teamwork is perceived as redundant, yet it is true that only to a small extent

As regards general academic competencies we can also speak about a deficit. Both critical thinking and research abilities are not mastered properly by the graduates of masters programs (2 out of 3 master programs), considering that these are required by employers and prioritized, according to importance, on the second place, after management competences.

The only category of competencies perceived by graduates as being delivered excessively in relation to the job held is the *communication competency* category. These are important for employers as well, 16% of them giving roughly equal degrees of importance to oral communication, written communication and online communication.

The *theoretical and practical competences* (15%) are ranked, by importance, very close to the communication competencies. According to the analyzed data, the majority of the employers request graduates to both know/be in control of some theoretical concepts and practical abilities necessary for the carrying out of some operations. From the graduates' perspective, the fact that they feel an excess of theoretical knowledge, on the one hand, and an accentuated deficit in practical abilities, on the other hand, is remarkable. This perception is common to graduates of all three master programmes, from both generations.

In the category of *instrumental competences*, knowledge of foreign languages is recognized as fairly important amongst employers. Alternatively, this competency is not perceived as essential by the graduates. As regards to computational abilities, the graduates of two out of three programs say that they feel a lack of such competencies, fact that could create problems for the employers that need employees able to operate large quantities of information and sophisticated databases.

Conclusions and implications

The phenomenon of transforming the university education into mass education in the past years has led to a higher pressure on the qualified workforce and to a more severe competition for the graduates that enter the labor market. This situation determines higher education graduates (3 years) to continue their studies (through MA programs that add value to their professional training) in order to make a difference from their colleagues who do not do this.

Starting from these considerations, the aim of this study was to determine how the master program graduates relate to the delivered competencies, namely to analyze if there are differences that can be seen either as a deficit or as a surplus of the competencies offered through the graduated master programs. We also analyzed if there is a connection between the competencies delivered by the university and the ones required by the employers. In particular, we were interested in the degree of satisfaction perceived by graduates on the job currently held. Also, we wanted to see what are the competencies required by the employers, in general, in order to obtain a job that involves a master degree, and to what extent there is a discrepancy between the competencies provided by the university and those required by the employers. Several authors suggested that the discrepancy between the competencies obtained through university education and the ones required on the labor market is solved on the job through "on the job training" (Heijike et al, 2003). The hypotheses that all these authors start from is that generic competencies which are taught in university do not have a direct influence on the results obtained on the labor market.

In the specific case of our research, the master program graduates noticed a lack of management competencies (problem solving, creativity, decision-making, leadership), i.e. exactly those skills that are required to the highest degree by employers. Also, according to the graduates' perceptions, there is also an important deficit in critical thinking competence and research abilities, competencies that are prioritized by employers as second, according to importance.

Paradoxically, the employed masters programs graduates declare that they are satisfied and very satisfied with the job they have, despite the fact that they do not consider useful (31%) and not very useful (5%) the knowledge/competencies assimilated and delivered to them by the master programs. The degree of satisfaction remains high even if the salary level is not as expected (72%).

Briefly, the conclusions are the following: (1) competence-based education seems to have an impact on the labour market, although some of the competencies delivered are perceived as a deficit by their beneficiaries. In particular, we mean the management competencies (problem solving, creativity, decision-making, leadership) and the general academic competencies (critical thinking and research abilities); (2) the declared degree of satisfaction of these MA graduates does not seem to have a direct connection with the utility felt by them related to the competencies acquired and the level of such competencies. The satisfaction level is rather generated by the work content (job structure and tasks) and the prospects for professional development, promotion and career development; (3) there is a deficit of competencies also perceived/felt by the employers. We find interesting the fact that competencies such as creativity and problem-solving, for example, are on top of the competencies evaluated and required by employers to fill various positions.

We believe that in the future the focus should be on the fact that the main advantage a graduate brings on the labour market is his/her competence portfolio (a result of learning) in the guise of a specialization that defines his/her professional identity and the ability to carry out the taken assignments. And it is exactly this value of the competency portfolio that does not meet both the graduates' and employers' level of expectation. Competence assimilation (some of them difficult to assimilate in the university environment) represents only part of university education. From now on, we believe that the professionals in education should analyze not only the specific competencies of one specialization, but also the ones that are selected, promoted and searched for on the labor market for every profession. One should also check to what extent the selection and incorporation of new competencies in a certain field of study can lead to obtaining better jobs in terms of material and professional satisfaction. From this perspective, we consider that universities can and must make wise decisions regarding the selection and teaching of specific competencies for every field of study and specialization (this being an essential condition for the integration of the new graduates on the labor market).

On the other hand, businesses must be aware of the environment changes and adapt their strategies so as to include the need of future skills and competencies for jobs with greater complexity. HR professionals should reconsider traditional methods for identifying critical skills, as well as selection and talent development ones, since organizations need talent and new skills to reach their goals. A strategy regarding workforce in service of business sustainability should be one of the most important outcomes of HR professionals; but this strategy involves cooperation with universities in order to meet the longtime learning needs and learning/assimilation of new competencies and skills.

References

- Arrow, Kenneth: "Higher education as a filter", *Journal of Public Economics*, 2, 1973, pp. 193-216.
- Becker, Gary S.: "Investment in human capital: A theoretical analysis", *Journal of Political Economy*, 70, 1964, pp. 9-49.

Curtin, Penelope/Stanwick, John/Beddie, Francesca: "Fostering enterprise: The innovation and skills nexus. Research readings", Adelaide, Australia: National Centre for Vocational Education Research, 2011.

Davies, Anna/ Fidler, Devin/Gorbis, Marina: Future Work Skills 2020. Palo Alto, CA: Institute for the Future, <http://www.iff.org/our-work/global-landscape>, accesat 14 Septembrie, 2015.

Dobbs, Rita L./ Sun, Judy Y/ Roberts/Paul B.: "Human capital and screening theories: Implications for human resource development", *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 10, 2008, pp. 788-801.

Flores-Lagunes, Alfonso/Light, Audrey: "Interpreting degree effects in the returns to education", *Journal of Human Resources*, 45(2), 2010, pp. 439-467.

Green, Wendy/ Hammer, Sarah/ Star, Cassandra: "Facing up to the challenge: Why is it so hard to develop graduate attributes?", *Higher Education Research&Development*, 28(1), 2009, pp. 17-29.

Heijke, Hans/ Meng, Christoph/Ramaekers, G.: "An investigation into the role of human capital competences and their pay-off", *International Journal of Manpower*, 24, 2003, pp. 750-773.

McClelland, David C.: Education for Competence. In H. Heckhausen and W. Edelman (Eds), *Proceedings of the 1971 FOLEB Conference*, Berlin, Germany: Institut for Bildungsforschung in der Max-planckGessellschaft, 1973.

McGuinness, Seamus: "University quality and labor market outcomes", *Applied Economics*, 35(18), 2003, pp. 1943-1955.

Mora, Toni/Ferrer-i-Carbonell, Ada: "The job satisfaction gender gap among young recent university graduates", *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, 38(4), 2009, pp. 581-589.

Salas-Velasco, Manuel: "The transition from higher education to employment in Europe: The analysis of the time to obtain the first job", *Higher Education*, 54, 2007, pp. 333-360.

Smith, A, et al.: "Building the capacity to innovate: The role of human capital", Adelaide, Australia: National Centre for Vocational Education Research, 2012.

Spence, Michael A.: "Job market signaling", *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 87(3), 1973, pp. 355-374.

Stiglitz, Joseph, E.: "The theory of screening, education, and the distribution of income", *American Economic Review*, 65(3), 1975, pp. 283-300.

Taubmann, P. J., Wales, T. J.: "Higher education, mental ability and screening", *Journal of Political Economy*, 81, 1973, pp. 28-65.

Vila, Luis E., Garcia Aracil, Adela, Mora, Jose-Gines: "The distribution of job satisfaction among young European graduates: does the choice of the study field matter?", *The Journal of Higher Education*, 78(1), 2007, pp. 97-118.

The Challenge of the Trafficked Girls in the Difficult Process of the Reintegration

Alisa Biçoku

PhD. Cand, Lecturer at the Department of Social Science,
Faculty of Education Sciences, "Alexander Xhuvani" University, Elbasan, Albania.

Denisa Ballhysa

MSc, Lecturer at the Department of Social Science,
Faculty of Education Sciences, "Alexander Xhuvani" University, Elbasan, Albania.

Abstract

The reintegration refers to the process of trafficked girls' involvement in social and economic life. This process, which is important for trafficked women's life remains a long process to achieve. This study focuses on its core trafficked girls who are going through the long high of social reintegration. The aim of this study is to analyze the significance of experiences, emotions, social and economic difficulties that need trafficked girls face during reintegration into society. The specific objective of this study is the importance of the reintegration process and the factors that influence the success of this process in the social life of victims of trafficking. The methodology used in this study is qualitative, as an efficient method that provides a sense of depth to the exploration of subjects, giving us much more detailed and specific information. The tools that have been used are the focus group, organized in collaboration with girls' victims of trafficking which are secured in the Centre "Vatra".

Keywords: *victim of trafficking, reintegration process, assessment.*

Literature review for the provision of social model in assisting victims of trafficking

Reintegration refers to the process of recovery and socio-economic inclusion of individuals following a trafficking experience. Reintegration includes placement in a secure environment, access to a reasonable standard of living, opportunities for personal and economic development, and access to social and emotional support. In many cases, reintegration includes the return of the victim in the original family / community of origin. However, it can also include integration into a new country, depending on the needs and interests of the victim¹. The services that are offered to the girls victims of trafficking in Albania are divided into two categories:

Residential centers

Community centers (non-residential).

Residential Center

Otherwise known as residential the host centers, where young victims of trafficking will be able to stay for a short time or even for a longer time. Albania residential centers are open or closed (closed center)². Meanwhile centers open and semi-open give you the opportunity to pursue a professional course, go to work accompanied by center staff or only depending on the security problems that could have any individual. The reintegration center in Albania are: "Different and Equal," Psychosocial Centre "Vatra"; "Another vision" These organizations achieve with the support of three phases:

-Phase I - The first phase is the initial phase which includes accommodation in a residential center, which provides services such as accommodation, housing, clothing, food, medical assistance, legal assistance, psychological services, storage and

¹ Surtees, Rebecca.2008. Re/integration of trafficked persons: How can our work more effective. Nexus Institute.

² Closed centers means that girls of trafficking during the accommodation in the center cannot go outside

security 24 hours, vocational training, periodic communication telephone family mediation, family meetings, translation to the foreign beneficiaries transport services, referrals to long-term reintegration alternatives. This first phase of assistance and provide all centers in Albania.

-Phase II - The second phase is the medium phase where the life of the beneficiaries is semi-independent. The organizations like "Hearth", "D & E" and "Another Vision" in addition to supporting the victims of trafficking, they support them even after they go outside from the shelter by finding accommodation in houses (manner realized by "Hearth" and "Another Vision" organization, and the other manner it the payment of house rent this order applied by the organization "Different & Equal". These organizations except the part of housing, provides support services such as employment, familiarity with community resources, counseling, etc., these services empower victims are directed towards an independent life.

-Phase III - the third phase is the long- term phase who has as an objective leads to an independent life. This is the last phase which is achieved when a case can live independently.

Not residential services

Not residential services or community services support the victim of trafficking with their specific programs. These services are provided by day centers that are set up in cities from NGOs and institutions in the state. Day and community services offer several types of services like:

- Legal services and administrative assistance; Ongoing support and monitoring; Psychological services or counseling services; Financial assistance; Professional training; Support to find employment; Medical assistance; Education assistance; Information campaigns; Reintegration into school; Accompaniment during voluntary return ¹

Methodology

The methodology used in this study is qualitative, as an efficient method that provides a sense of depth exploration of subjects, giving us a much more detailed information and specific. The selected method is also suitable for highly sensitive nature and the delicate issues involved in this study, given that there are few studies in this field. During the study is held into consideration the fact that one element that distinguishes qualitative method quantitatively, that is, the first and the second is deductive, qualitative methods, is inductive. A deductive approach is what passes by a theory or hypothesis in empirical observations to conclusions.

Inductive approach follows the inversion that is when preceding observation hypothesis, theory and interpretation². The instruments that were used are focus groups with girls who actually assisted trafficking victims in the shelter "Vatra"

Why applied the qualitative methods in this study?

The qualitative methods assists in this delicate cases. Such, disturbing and witty, is the issue of reintegration of victims of trafficking in Albania, not only in the national level, also in the international level as yet has not found the key for the solution of this problem. Qualitative methods used to deepened the issues that interest us, because it gives the opportunity to see the problem in different ways: in our case the conclusion of the process of reintegration with the institutions that provide services directly to the victim of trafficking,

The drafting of the focus group interview

Focus group interviews may encourage more "the openness" of the respondents and provide information on free and complex. Draft an essential guide is a list of topics or themes to be discussed and that the researcher uses to guide the

¹ Standard 1: Purpose and types of service standards "Social care services for trafficked persons at risk of being trafficked or residential centers" approved by DCM 195, dt.11.4.2007

² Jane Ritchie, Jane Lewis, Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers, Sage, 2003, p. 106

focus group discussions¹. Through it, the interviewer stimulate each other with ideas and thoughts. Focus group offers various data, as panelists encourage communication and promote ideas on how to think and to speak². Through this instrument can be achieved qualitative data. Focus group had up to 8 people participating, because this compound group generates more ideas³.

The women victim of trafficking who has been assisted in the "Vatra" center participated in focus group. In realizing of focus groups, the researchers took into consideration what Wells, said⁴ about the ideal size of the group, and how participants sit, style and personality of the facilitators of the meeting in respect of the participants.

Collection and analysis of database

For the preparation of questions to respondents (women victims of trafficking) are taken into consideration and examined in detail 10 (ten) principles that guide the ethical issues related to the target group under study⁵. The implementation of the study has used the instrument of audio recording of interviews, which helped us to identify who among the respondents is that more active than the rest, as are expressed providers of services related to the program of the process of reintegration offered by them for women victims trafficking.

This method used has helped researchers be concentrated among persons who participated in the study, almost anytime throughout the interviewing process. Recording talks with service providers during the implementation of the focus group has helped us achieve better management of the interview with them⁶. The way to organizing discussions with participants of the focus groups helps researcher at running and determination of collection of data⁷.

The information collected refers to trafficked victims were identified and assisted in reintegration programs, while The researchers have not been able to analyze the information to victims of trafficking cases and unidentified untreated.

From the focus groups conducted with 8 girls victims of trafficking results that the biggest cases girls under the age of 20-25 years.

Age group information of women victims of trafficking

Age group	15-20 years	20-25 years	25-30 years	30 years
cases	1	4	2	1

If we return to a time necessary retrospect, all studies refer to the phenomenon of trafficking associated with the age group 20-25 years, which constitute 41% (Study on the socio-economic reintegration of victims of trafficking in Albania, June 2009, p. 30-32). Even in our study age group 20-25 years is the major cases.

Residential information of the victims of trafficking

Birth place	Small town	Urban zone	Rural zone	The foreign
Cases	-	5	3	-

If we refer to studies carried in our country shows that the origin of young trafficking victim belongs to the rural areas that make up 58% (Different and Equal, 2006).

In our study results that large cases (5) young victim of trafficking, belonging to urban areas. This relates to the fact that within these years in Albania has changed the demographic distribution of the population as a result of the migration

¹ Richard A. Krueger, D. L., Morgan, The focus Group Kit. Thousand Oaks, Sage, California, 1998, p. 51

² Morgan, D. L., The Focus Group Guidebook, Sage, London, 1998, p. 65

³ Edward F. Fern, The Use of Focus Groups for Idea Generation: The Effects of Group Size, Acquaintanceship, and Moderator on Response Quantity and Quality", Journal of Marketing Research, February, 1982, p. 3

⁴ William D. Wells, Group Interviewing, Handbook of Marketing Research, 1974, p. 254

⁵ (WHO ethical and safety recommendations for interviewee trafficking women. London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London: Daphne Program of the EU, 2003).

⁶ Edward F. Fern, The Use of Focus Groups for Idea Generation, p.2

⁷ Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S., Effective Evaluation, Jossey- Bass Publishers, San Francisco, CA, 1981, p. 26.

process. Also, if we refer to the years of the birth of girls, the majority of pregnant women, they give birth at the regional hospital where in were registered.

Information about the legal status of women victims of trafficking

Legal status	Married	Divorced	Widow	Single	Mother girl
Cases	-	2	-	5	1

From interviews conducted with women victims of trafficking (WVT), it turns out that the legal status of most of the respondents is "single".

This result is consistent with previous studies where the most cases victims of trafficking were single (81% Study on the social-economic reintegration of victims of trafficking in Albania, June 2009, p. 34).

Information about the education of women victim of trafficking:

Education	Without education	Primary school finished	Primary school unfinished	Secondary school	Higher education
Cases	1	4	2	1	-

The interviews show that the average educational level of trafficking victims is primary school (consisting of 4 cases). Even in the studies conducted earlier the highest percentage of the victims of trafficking had only primary school (63% - Different and Equal study, 2009 and 49% in the annual report of "Vatra" center, 2007)

4.3. Factors affecting the successful reintegration of the women victim of trafficking

Based on the focus groups it was found that all the girls interviewed are part of residential services of the center "Vatra". Many of them said they felt safe with strengthened after the services they received from shelters. Below are some pieces of interviews conducted with women victims of trafficking (WvT)

"I'm more empowered to face life only through the support of girls ... " (refers to the employer of Vatra shelter=

"I was helped many services received, I do not know where I would have ended"

"I advise girls like me to be part of the services that will be valid for the future ..."

The staff helped me by giving me a hairdressing salon ... I work and live thanks to their support..."

"I can't imagine how my life would be if I had the girls will not help giving up alcohol"

"I feel more confident, I have no anxiety and fear for my life and my child ... and thanks to the staff."

"If the center would not have helped at that time, maybe today I would be wandering the streets, infected with various diseases, drugged, probably will not live anymore ..."

From interviews conducted with it emerges that the services were offered by the shelters were in full compliance with their needs. They say they feel safer after the services have been stronger to cope with their lives independently. It was rated as important and fundamental reflection of the main components of the reintegration process, including the review in this way and the main challenges faced by victims of trafficking during the process, as:

Employment, economic and professional situation;

Housing safe and convenient for them;

Family and social relations;

Psychological and physical welfare;

Education and professional development.

Employment, professional and economic situation of the victims of trafficking

Based on interviews conducted with victims of trafficking girls in Elbasan the results are:

Information about the employment of WvT

WvT	WvT employed	WvT unemployed
Cases	4	4

From interviews conducted with the girls, 4 of them affirm to be employed in the private sector and 4 of them are not currently employed.

WvT employed	WvT satisfied with their work	WvT not satisfied with their work
Cases	1	3

The girls' opinions about their employment should be seen in different angles. It result that only a girl feel satisfied with her work.

"The work I do makes me feel better ... i am satisfied with the work i do, there i have made new friend and learn how to sew a beautiful dress ... "said WvT employed in beauty salon" Vatra "in Vlora.

During the interviews three girls said they were not satisfied with the work they did. This came as a result of not financial motivation from the work, and e make low wages; feeling discriminated in the work environment; the failure of a proper relationship between the employer and the employee. They said:

"I work 10 hours a day without rest and eventually paid 120,000 Lek (85 euro). Unable to pay the rent and could not cherish children. I will be interested to find another job with higher pay.... ", said WvT which work as a sanitary in o local city.

"I have two months working in a clothing store and the owner treated me well. Someone had said that i stand in the center. Since that day she requires reasons so i leave work ... " said WvT employed in a boutique," Vatra "in Vlora.

"My boss behaves sometimes good with me, sometimes he yell at me for being late at work... We are human... sometimes we don't want to get out of bed..... than he started...."do this job" without finishing the work that i was doingno let me drink a coffee with friends during work hours I am very upset, I will leave this job just when I find another job" ...said the WvT employed as kitchen helper.

Girls' employment sector was the private sector as they have been unable to find an employment in the public sector. 4 of reasons why girls were not employed are: caring young children, healthy reasons, and safety reasons. All of this related to the failure to find a job due to economic crisis: they said:

"I am searching for a job for two weeks around the city and have not found work yet ... I am very sad"

"I am not searching a job in this moment... I have two month baby and I have no one to hold me or the kindergarten does not accept in this ageah how I would like to work, to earn money for myself and my children ", expressed WvT who has two children, a 4 years old son and two-month-old daughter,

"It hurts the body all the time, I have terrible bone pain ... I do every month depending (medicine for rheumatism). I am not able to work ... ",.

I am not searching a job in this moment, I have fear (from the pimp) that will kill me", said the women victim of trafficking in "Vatra" center in Vlora.

The study demonstrates the difficult economic situation and social facing girls in their daily life and the huge impact that this situation is in the process of reintegration. Extremely difficult economic situation affects the lives of young victims of trafficking.

Safe and convenient housing for the victims of trafficking

Housing remains one of the most fundamental components in the process of reintegration of WvT. Having a safe shelter and adequate directly linked with positive feelings for the WvT girls themselves have the perception of the future. Housing is considered important as it relates to their own safety as well as their sustainability towards an independent life. When the victim does not fulfill themselves this component, the chances that they become part of trafficking again, are higher compared with its own who meet this component.

Information about the housing of Wvt

Housing of Wvt	Wvt assisted in shelter	WvT assist in the autonomous apartments paid by Shelter
Cases	6	2

Based on interviews conducted with women victims of trafficking emerges that two women lives in the shelter and the other two lives in autonomous apartments paid by shelters. Based on interviews confirmed that the girls who lives in autonomous apartments paid by shelters and are financially supported by shelters have been easier integrate into society. They said:

"Is the center who paid my rent and they are my big supports..." said the women lives in autonomous apartments paid by shelters donators "Vatra" in Vlora.

"I live in an apartment paid by the shelter and i live alone. I am very satisfied, but I know one day this aid will end. I shall find difficult to afford the life by myself with only the monthly income..." said the women assisted by the "Vatra" center.

Based on interviews, it turns out that when their housing is inadequate, there have been cases where girls have fallen prey to trafficking again, being recycled into society. The interviews showed that two of the girls WvT are recycled into society, becoming again a part of human trafficking for sexual exploitation. Woman victim of trafficking recall moments from their lives:

"After a period of 1 year in the center, has came the moment when i needed to leave the shelter, because i had benefited all services that provide the center. With two children i was settled in a rented apartment and payed by myself the rent (70,000 per month). I worked as assistant cook in a restaurant where they paid me 150,000 a month. I could not feed my children neither with bread. I left the job and started in a bar in the periphery of the town as a waitress, but with the same salary. The bar owner promised to help me economically. He began to bring me customers and i worked for. In this way, i returned again in the profession.... ", Says one women, which is recycled and is currently at the center" Vatra "in Vlora.

"After i stayed tow years in the center e had taken all of the services, i worked as a hairdressing and have raise money to make an independent life. I rent a house that cost 100,000 lek in a month. After two months cause of my bad management, i don't have any money. I was too embarrassed to go to the center and tell them i had no money to pay the rent. Neither to my boss i can not ask money because I woe to him150.000 lek. Situated in this situation, i met a guy and i explicated to him my situation. He told me he's gone help me. After weeks he rent o house for me and then I realized that I was beginning to work for him. I had no choice, must live ... "said the women WvT, after recycling was assisted "Vatra" to the center in Vlora.

"The center girls was very kind with me, but i was upset sitting all the time with other people. I can't stand the women with their children so i decided to leave the center. I rent o house in the center for 80.000 lek in a month. I could not afford to pay the rent the last months. Two young men offer me a job as a cleaner in one hotel. I doubt for the intentions so I asked for help to the girl of the center, they helped me with the payment of the rent...." said the WvT.

From the interviews conducted emerges that the safe housing is a very important element in the process of a successful reintegration of the women victims of trafficking.

Family and social relations of the victims of trafficking

The relationship with the family is a very important component in the process of reintegration and, if this relationship is healthy and supportive, the victim is more easily reintegrated into society

Information about the family origin of the WvT

WvT	WvT which maintain contact with the family of origin	WvT which doesn't maintain contact with the family of origin
Cases	5	3

Based on interviews conducted with WvT results that 5 cases have decided to keep good relationship with their family of origin. These cases result to have more chance to reintegrate into in society successfully. The family support helps victims of trafficking to be empowered and ready to face the other challenges of this process. Some of the girls have a positive attitude about the relationship they have with their families:

"Establishing contacts with my mother thanks to girl of the shelter _ will help me in the future to return home to get rid of bad road. Today I continue school to pursue my passions (paintings) ... ", says 16-years old girl assisted in "Vatra" center in Vlora.

"During the stay time in the shelter the operators helped me to establish relationships with my family. After leaving the shelter they will receive me home again, although they lived in the village where we see you differently. They will help me to create my new family to outstrip my past.... ", expressed WvT assisted in "Vatra" center in Vlora.

"After exiting the organization will go to my family. The staff of the center will help me and my family to open o small business (bakery) where we will work all together ... ", expressed WvT assisted in "Vatra" center in Vlora.

The interviews show that 3 cases have no relationship with the family of origin

Wvt	WvT rejected by the family of origin	WvT not wanting to keep in touch with the family of origin
Cases	1	2

The girl rejected by their family of origin stated that:

"My family could not accept the fact that i was exploited and ask help and lives in the center. Despite that staff made efforts to establish contacts with them, they refused and refuse even to this day when they spent three years ... ", expressed WvT assisted in "Vatra" center in Vlora.

The interviews showed that the two girls did not wish to maintain the relationship with the family of origin for reasons relating to: family incest.

"My brother, when he was under the influence of alcohol, has tried many times to have sexual relations with me. Bring home and his friends who tried to have intercourse with me ... ", said the

"He (stepfather) raped me when my mother was not at home. When I told my mom, she did not believe me and beat me. He wanted to show that in fact had been a boy from the village. At that time I was only 10 years old ... ", remember the women vicktim of trafficking

The relationship with the family is an important element in the process of reintegration of girls in society. If this relationship is complex and conflicting, as it happens, it is very difficult for the victim to cross the state in which it is located.

The safety of victims of trafficking

Despite traffic victims receive legal assistance from shelters and subsequent monitoring, they still feel vulnerable because traffickers are free and they have no protection from the state. Based on the interviews, one girl said:

"I do not feel safe to live independently. I fear that my tutors are free. If they see me on the street, they will kill me ... ",

This finding shows that these girls are victims of trafficking do not become part of the reintegration process. Albanian state has not developed social policies to assist this target group.

But the study found that the majority of WvT interviewed feel safe to live independently, because they have enough information and know where to turn for help. They feel empowered by the services received. Girls say:

"Thanks to the service I got from the shelter, now know how to protect myself ..." says a girl

"I feel empowered ..." said a girl

"I won instruments to defend himself ..." says a girl

Education and professional development of the victims of trafficking

From the studies and the result of the interviews emerge that the most girl victim of trafficking have only the basic education. This fact makes difficult their process of reintegration in the society. Vocational courses has helped finding o job the women victim of trafficking when thei lived in the shelter. Professional courses offered to victims of trafficking services are tailoring, hairdressing, sitter, kitchen, etc. These professions which are equipped girls are professions that do not provide sufficient income in Albania, ranking lower paid sector. This fact has a direct impact on their daily lives. What will ensure a better future is reinsertion into the school system, but again, this fact is related to several factors such as age, years of school-, desire and willingness to return to school, etc. One girl says:

"I do not have any education, only two professional certificate course ... i wish i will find o job "

The study proves that the certification of professional courses during assisting the victim of trafficking in the center, helped the girls to find a job.

Conclusions

The study claims that the factors impede the realization of the process of reintegration in society of women victim of trafficking are social and economic factors;

A finding of this study is the effectiveness of shelters that offer complete packages of quality services, short and long term reintegration in the country;

Deemed important the relationship and the support provided to the family of origin. How friendly are these relationships, more the WvT go toward his positive process. Positive family relationship often serves as motivation WvT to move forward in their lives independently. In cases where families have been part of the process of trafficking them or abusing them in childhood, in these cases they do not want to restore relations with them;

A finding in of this paper is appreciated the establishment of a healthy relationship with society of the girls as an important element of the process of reintegration. The women victim of trafficking who have managed to establish positive social relationships with trustworthy individuals, then the possibility of these girls for recycling is much less than girls who can not establish healthy relationship;

A real challenge to successfully implement the process of reintegration in society, remains their employment. Employment is a significant indicator of its sustainability as an individual. If a WvT finds a suitable job and safe, there are bigger spaces to empower independently. Employment is not always reaching WvT is sufficient to meet the cost of life. Here we refer to low pay, schedules prolonged poor conditions of work;

This study demonstrates that an important element is the provision of vocational training in order to have facilities in finding a job on the basis of exchange with which they are equipped. This serves for the girls as job security in the future. It is important to note that professional course offered must be in accordance with the wishes and personal skills of the WvT;

The study indicates that if the women victim of trafficking have a safety housing, a suitable employment, education and vocational training, are supported by family of origin and friends, then they have bigger premises to achieve a successful reintegration process.

Recommendations

Recommendations to the policy makers:

Should be taken measures to combat and punish the traffickers and the crime organization. If the legislation is implemented the women victim of trafficking feel more safer;

Financial Compensation of WvT. A form of compensation would be that the Albanian government confiscate the property of the tutor and give it to the women victim of trafficking;.

Ensuring the physical safety of all victims of trafficking regardless of whether collaborating with the justice system;

Improving national and international bilateral legal, judicial and law enforcement in the fight against human trafficking;

Be implemented the new strategy carefully in Combating Trafficking in Human Beings (2014-2017) and sets up monitoring by the relevant institutions in the implementation of this strategy;

Albanian state, through to the function of municipalities, has introduced the law No.9232, dated 13.05.2004, for the benefit of social housing for families with socio-economic difficulties. Part of the benefit of this law should be and girls victims of trafficking, as one of the most vulnerable categories of society;

Since employment is a crucial element in the process of reintegration and the biggest difficulty remains into the labor market, it is imperative to have an effective collaboration of the Regional Employment Office. This category should be considered one on the highest priority;

The State shall evaluate the possibility through various donors, such as the provision of microcredit as an alternative employment. Since WvT employment market is limited and wages are minimal, this service would help to secure employment with higher incomes;

VoT should have access to health services. In reality there is a law where health services for victims of trafficking are free, but many health workers in the area lack the the knowledge of the law. The state should be more involved through meetings, seminars and roundtables to inform the representatives of state institutions connected to his own advantage in the scheme of free health services.

Recommendations for service providers:

Strengthen programs providing assistance to long-term, aiming at the reintegration and social inclusion of young victims of trafficking, in accordance with individual needs;

Ensuring psychosocial legal, health services, and the continued support of victims of trafficking for their reintegration in social life, including services to prevent crises such as to facilitate the use of social services, social assistance, housing, Sharing of Information groups and persons in need, as well as training for life;

increase public awareness on all forms of trafficking in persons (trafficking for sexual exploitation, labor exploitation, child begging, etc.);

Improve the prevention of trafficking in women through the strengthening of protective systems, creating opportunities other socio-economic and lifestyle opportunities, as well as raising awareness of the wider community;

To ensure continuous monitoring of all the main stakeholders in the Fight Against Trafficking in Human Beings and the measures taken in the country, as well as increased promotion of information exchange between all partner organizations, state and non-state.

Bibliography

Edward F. Fern, "The Use of Focus Groups for Idea Generation: The Effects of Group Size, Acquaintanceship, and Moderator on Response Quantity and Quality", *Journal of Marketing Research*, February, 1982, p. 3

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S., *Effective Evaluation*, Jossey- Bass Publishers, San Francisco, CA, 1981, p. 26.

Jane Ritchie, Jane Lewis, *Qualitative Research Practise: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*, Sage, 2003, p. 106.

Morgan, D. L., *The Focus Group Guidebook*, Sage, London, 1998, p. 65.

Richard A. Krueger, D. L., Morgan, *The focus Group Kit*. Thousand Oaks, Sage, California, 1998, p. 51

Surtees, Rebecca. 2008. *Re/integration of trafficked persons: How can our work more effective*. Nexus Institute.

William, D. Wells, *Group Interviewing, Handbook of Marketing Research*, 1974, p. 254

Supply Chain Planning in Defence Operations: a Review from Alexander the Great Time to the Present

Lazaros K. Rizopoulos,

University of Peloponnese, School of Economics, Management & Informatics,
Department of Economics, Tripoli, Greece,

Dimitrios D. Thomakos,

University of Peloponnese, School of Economics, Management & Informatics,
Department of Economics, Tripoli, Greece,

Abstract

We review the Supply Chain (SC) planning in Defence operations. Our main focus is an exploration of the literature to identify the significant factors concerning SC planning and the way they affect the implementation of Decision Making Processes (DMP) in (primarily) military operations. We take as our starting point the logistics of Alexander the Great's army, to identify the key factors that led to his legendary success and to understand how these factors influenced his strategic decisions. We then review the practices, and evaluate the effectiveness, of countries and international bodies that have already implemented such SC management and planning systems to assist in their defence activities' decisions. Then, we illustrate the literature review with specific modern day examples of military deployment. Although many countries have invested in IT systems which may provide up to date information and cost-effectiveness suggestions, nevertheless, the utility of these systems in the defence sector, seems to be often surrounded by emotions and private or vested interests. Our research thus far suggests that there are substantial benefits to be gained by adopting a relevant decision framework to be implemented among military activities. At the end we attempt an identification of the key factors concerning SC planning since Alexander's time and their effectiveness level in recent defence operations among other existing DMP tools.

Keywords: Supply Chain planning, Defence operations, Decision Making Processes, Alexander the Great

Introduction

SC planning tools, as well as DMP methods, have been accepted as a substantial positive factor by the majority of high-rank officials and key authorities in active, real-time decision-making. It is still controversial though, which are the exact positive outcomes and whether or not substantial economic benefits are potential due to the optimization of SC planning in an integrated way among decision-related issues. Referring to the DMP, the defence sector seems not to heavily engage data-driven methods widely but most likely, convenient on-site solutions. Nevertheless, some countries or international bodies - like United States (US), United Kingdom (UK) and NATO - have already in place relevant frameworks to assist SC planning procedures. Moreover, there are studies that reveal that the defence sector may anticipate positive outcomes related to business and scientific methods. This study -as a part of an ongoing research designed to end up with a Decision Model which leads to the optimal SC forecasting and planning of military operations- will try to identify and analyse the key factors concerning SC planning in defence operations. We are after a suitable, real-life decision-making model to optimize the SC and Logistic support systems among the defence sector, so as to operate both efficiently and sustainably.

Optimization methods may contribute in the most positive way to reform Logistics and SC replenishment procedures and should not be undertaken just as a tool for protecting the service budgets and salaries or satisfying interest groups.

Design and Methodology

A proper literature review is a first milestone in order to explore past ideas and to support the development of guidelines with certain steps to avoid bias distortions during research and data analysis. It may also provide the necessary criticism among all research steps. We are thus launching our research agenda by focusing on past and present SC practices in order to be able to understand what has been done so far.

Quantitative research involves the measurement of SC management performance, and many researchers recognize benchmarking performance in Defence sector as the biggest challenge. Qualitative methods concerning the assessment of SC management may include surveys, interviews, case studies and theoretical analyses. The value of a qualitative approach depends on the expert level of participants, the quality of the interviews and the cooperation of the participants. Although both methods may apply to the present study and both are involved in the ongoing research, there are inherent difficulties in collection of sufficient quantitative data for analysis. Disclosure issues are very crucial among the Defence sector and the public availability of them is challenging. Therefore, it was critical to choose the research method cautiously, with respect to its features and the researcher's objectives.

Worldwide, since the end of the Cold War and more drastically since after 9/11 terror attack, Armed Forces (AFs) have delivered changes their static posture to a one that should be capable of supporting expeditionary military operations far from their national military bases. That doctrine shift required investments in training, transport assets and upgraded supply chain and logistics capabilities, so, forecasting, modelling and simulation in SC chain planning should be more integrated among DMP. So, the need for action and evolution of the present models is crucial. Models should be more sophisticated to capture and tackle with the dynamics of demanding national security issues, future hybrid threats and extended needs (Wiles & Chinn, 2010).

This study will try to identify and evaluate significant factors concerning with SC planning, as a part of the ongoing research. It mainly uses the literature review method and utilizes Grounded Theory method tools (Charmaz, 1983). Grounded theory has been selected because it may generate a theory that can be used as a forerunner for further investigation of a phenomenon. Also, allows other qualitative research techniques and quantitative methods or a combination of both to be used in order to test, verify or extend the qualitative propositions that become apparent from the research (Bryant, 2002). Moreover, useful results can be produced among the complexities of Defence sector context, and the researcher may incorporate them into the understanding of the phenomenon. Personal interviews from Defence/business sector experts and key official authorities were conducted. These methods have frequently been used in other studies, particularly in complex business and/or military sector and are considered to be appropriate for the present study. The combined results were used to provide recommendations.

First of all, an initial review of the existing documentation was performed as well as of the existing frameworks, legislation, and relevant policies in the military context and generic. As a result, a particular number and range of countries that have already implemented such tools in their Defence activities were being identified and reviewed in conjunction with the accessibility of them, thus resulting in a representative sample. The review was being employed to identify the significant factors concerned with the successful SC planning of Alexander the Great campaign and modern era military operations. Besides, following an initial stakeholder analysis, personal interviews have been taken place from key authorities' officials, and Defence and business SC experts, to critically assess Alexander's achievements, evaluate the key factors which influenced his DMP. Experts also identified certain modern era military operations under the shadow of Alexander's logistics. Experts were cautiously selected regarding their experience, participation and knowledge level among defence sector's operations and business SC planning procedures as also as their availability. The experts' sample consists of former AFs' Chiefs of Staff, retired Generals and Lieutenant Generals, Ambassadors, former Defence Attaches, high-rank military Officers and civilian officials with SC planning authority. During the interviews, open-ended questions were used to define the concepts and identify the key factors. Presentation of the preliminary data collection and the initial results of the review was avoided in order to exclude bias distortions. The combined results of the literature review and the experts' qualitative data were examined to identify the key factors and outline the evidence of SC frameworks effectiveness.

Literature Review

Alexander the Great's Logistics Achievements

Most of the countries confront the need to safeguard their national interests and maintain their global military role, if any, despite the demanded budget restraints. So, Defence sector and AFs are - like any other public sector's agency - struggling with lower budgets and social pressure worldwide to secure their national security interests¹. Despite the need for innovative strategies and the fact that many countries have already invested in IT systems which should have been able to provide up-to-date information and cost-effective solutions, it is commonly accepted that Defence sector seems to be often surrounded by emotions. Moreover, actual peacetime planning is revealed to be rather more a typical outcome of various interest groups. However, the world remains a dangerous place, and AFs should be ready and capable of doing more with less. They should be able to maintain operational capability under current or future pressures on budgets, to promote sustainability and to shift from the traditional model of strategic planning to a more flexible and integrated one.

According to the literature, SC is a substantial element of strategic planning and can contribute the most to the effectiveness level of relevant DMP. The notion that "logistics are fundamental to the generation and maintenance of fighting power in every environment" (UK Ministry of Defence, 2003) is not new, but should be fully implemented in everyday practice and positively affect the military mindset. SC is one of the most important areas of military logistics. It is defined as "the set of processes, infrastructure, equipment, and personnel that moves a force to the theatre of operations and sustains it by maintaining stocks and transporting additional goods and people" (Wiles & Chinn, 2010). SC forecasting, planning, and execution orders should cover the military operations' replenishment needs around the world, no matter how far away from the home-base the troops operate. Although most military operations emphasize on planning and enhancing the fighting power of battle itself, history reveals that logistics and SC are the most valuable assets of warfare since the campaigns of Alexander the Great (Andrejevas, 2010). However, for the commanders of US, UK and NATO Allied Joint Forces, the importance of logistics has been acknowledged just since after the overseas operations of the 1990s. Logistical difficulties in the modern era deployments of AFs have proved the notion that no army, however well equipped may be, can function conveniently without an exceptional SC plan (Sticz, 2008).

Studying Macedonian Army's legendary success and Alexander's ability to deliver the most impressive SC plan and embrace the proper strategic insights as well, is constructive and valuable for all military leaders. Until today, Alexander the Great is considered a strategic pioneer, but it is his logistical solutions, "the complexity and smoothness of which offers ... the clearest signs of his genius" (Keegan, 1988). Review of Great Alexander's campaign profoundly recognizes that logistics and SC were the vital assets of his legendary success and identifies the key factors that influenced his strategic decisions (Pagonis & Cruikshank, 1992).

Alexander the Great was the first who successfully integrated and dynamically applied the logistics and SC planning into his strategic decision-making process (Engels, 1980). The review of his achievements and the way he utilized the troops' formations and movements, and the incorporation of new weapons as well, demonstrates that Alexander's genius military doctrine led to significant development of military mindset. His excellent performance in rigorous and hostile environment, the efficient deployment far away from his home base and the demonstrated flexibility are only some of the signs of his military innovative way of planning. Even more, the sophisticated and sustained SC replenishment of his army is considered as the key factor of his DMP which led to legendary victory (Van Mieghem, 1998).

He started his campaigns from Macedonia region in Greece and finally conquered countries including Egypt, Persia, Syria, and India. His achievements were the systematic result of operational and proactive logistics planning and precise precautions. SC planning was the base of every Alexander's military plan and strategic decision (Fuller, 2004). Due to his strategic and innovative logistic action, Alexander has been acknowledged as a legend, has inspired military mindset and warfare art, and has been the epitome among other leaders, including Julius Caesar and Napoleon (Van Mieghem, 1998).

As Donald W. Engels (1980) describes, before Alexander era, provisions -arms, food, and other supplies- were transferred and relocated by servants, wagons, and carts. To minimize the number of supplies needed and reduce the SC burden, Alexander enforced that supplies would have been carried by the military force itself. Soldiers' spouses have also been

¹ Notes From the Chairman. (2016, September 4). Retrieved September 4, 2016, from <https://www.foreignaffairs.com/interviews/2016-08-01/notes-chairman>

excluded. To anticipate the consequences of his decision, he permitted scheduled visits and encouraged marriages with locals. As a result, the total number of the military force was the minimum required, the needed transportation means were reduced and the servants were minimized to one for every four soldiers. Consequently, troops' speed, flexibility and mobility were substantially increased, and Alexander was capable of ordering accelerated marching and force attack. Additionally, Alexander transportation replacements -oxen to horses- resulted in transferring the necessary equipment without lowering troops' tempo. These strategic decisions did also reduce the total number of needed personnel and provisions (Andrejevas, 2010).

Moreover, because his troops could not have been self-sufficient for long distances, he decided to use ships as supply bases and he carefully selected the marching routes, which were close to rivers or coasts. Otherwise, the hostile areas of the Central Asia, the scarcity of resources and the potential reduction of troops' tempo might have had a dramatic effect on his campaign. If close to water routes were inconvenient, he could adapt planning to stay on track with fertile valleys and the Persian network road system. In Persia, there was a path between all cities and stationed supplies every fifteen to twenty miles to keep Darius Army informed, secure, and well provisioned. Alexander took advantage of it. Despite the decisions mentioned above, Alexander wherever he could not remain self-sustained -especially in far from sea or rivers areas- he ensured the host nation support (Van Mieghem, 1998). He had secured army's provision in advance with local officials, -locals were surrendered prior entering their territory- and precisely selected the invasion timetable following the local agricultural production and harvest schedule. That integrated and flexible Alexander's strategic planning concerning SC, as described before, is regularly found during his campaign (Pederson, 1998).

Additionally, the review demonstrates his ability to integrate and implement political, diplomatic and economic power tools in various ways, coordinated with the military force to achieve the planned goals and objectives. For instance, in order to moderate the needed fight power for his campaign, Alexander at the beginning of his campaign decided to ultimately destroy the city of Thebes, thus influencing next cities to surrender prior fighting. The intelligence service was always an asset for Alexander's campaigns strategic planning, following his concern for climate, transportation, geography, agriculture and cultural information. "In his short career Alexander completely changed the face of war. More than any of his predecessors he demonstrated the fundamental tactical principles of concentration of force, co-operation between different arms, and a sustained logistics by living off the land" (Hackett, 1989).

The results of the literature review seem to be in agreement with experts' opinion. According to them, Alexander the Great remains until today, the leader who has changed the warfare art significantly. He presented proactive action as also as an innovative, integrated and reasonable approach. His campaigns' assessment according to experts, provide evidence that his success was not a surprising outcome. He managed to embody SC planning into his strategic plans, just as any modern-day military and business leader should incorporate his needs in order to deliver and safeguard the competitive edge. He achieved speed action and managed to deliver more by handling less. He presented flexibility when required and innovative spirit by changing the transportation means or the troops' size and formation. According to experts, he did not follow the "business as usual" spirit not even after the initial success of his campaign. Alexander had always been prepared in detail for the next area to conquer by setting the most capable information network and receiving feedback from his carefully selected subordinates. Information and research were fundamental factors for Alexander's decisions. Finally, experts agree that one of the most significant technique concerning his success is that he established one single point of control, himself, thus integrating SC at the strategic decision level. That was the best way to deliver and maintain competitive advantages in the hostile areas of marching and fighting. Alexander practiced and implemented 2,372 years ago notions that some agencies and companies are struggling to learn and adopt today. Information sharing, monitoring, benchmarking, auditing, training and being proactive provide the competitive edge and deliver satisfactory results. Concluding, experts were asked to identify the key factors that assisted Alexander to succeed in his campaign. The analysis of their answers ends up to the following: Leadership, Integration of SC forecasting and strategic planning, detailed Information sharing network, Command and Control abilities, and Political/Diplomatic skills. Accordingly, they defined the key factors concerning Alexander's SC planning, and the results were: Innovation, time, detailed and properly adjusted Preparation, Knowledge, Flexibility and Host Nation support.

Modern Era Deployment Examples. Based on the results as presented above, certain modern era deployments were reviewed, which present evidence of Alexander's approaches positive effect. In accordance, operational inefficiencies, weaknesses, and gaps could have been avoided and overpassed if Alexander's notions and tactics were incorporated into modern-day leaders' SC planning.

Everyone agrees that even the most excellent strategy is effective only if its execution delivers the desired results. Full of promise plans entirely failed in the battlefield due to limited preparation, wrong decisions or a missing SC link. Deployments to Iraq and Afghanistan uncovered shortcomings in the AFs supply chain planning and provided the right momentum and incentives for change. It has taken a long for the modern AFs' leaders to adapt to the characteristics of operating in the Asia region, yet progress has been made over the past years (Wiles & Chinn, 2010).

An example of successful integration of SC planning - since after inefficiencies were detected - into strategic decision level may be presented from the Persian War or Gulf War I (1990 – 1991). A Joint Allied Force (34 nations led by the U.S.) was fighting against Iraq in response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait. General Colin Powell, Chairman of the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff, served as a liaison between the Army and President George Bush. The implementation of their intention was General Norman Schwarzkopf's battlefield responsibility. The three of them developed the strategic plan which required that the equivalent of Alaska's inhabitants and their personal provisions have to be prepared for deployment and be transported to the Middle East. Lieutenant General Gus Pagonis was the dedicated official to execute the logistical part of the plan (single point of control). Following the success invasion, Powell gave much of the credit to Pagonis. Later, Pagonis described the SC plan he developed for the Gulf War, as based on the approaches of Field Marshal Erwin Rommel and Alexander the Great (Van Mieghem, 1998). The key factor for that successful implementation of his plan was that Pagonis had complete authority for all logistics: land, air, sea, and rail. He was able to direct share crucial information with the Chief of Command and incorporate SC priorities among the final execution plan. Due to that authority, Pagonis was able to successfully control over the SC planning and move the forces and provisions the right time to the right place in the correct order. For the record, land operations lasted just 100 hours (The Directorate of Research, 1995).

At the time of Iraq War or Gulf War II (2003 – 2011), the invasion started with the U.S. joined by the U.K. and other allies. The U.S. General Tommy R. Franks delivered the attack plans for the "Operation Iraqi Freedom", not under conventional notions, but enforcing a rapid and quick responsive force capable of speed attacks. His strategic plan, based on speed more than mass, had profound implications for the SC planning of that operation, like Alexander's technique years ago. Another challenge for the U.S. Armed Forces that time was to achieve the integration of the four operating branches. To confront this problem, General Franks created a single logistics control point to facilitate mutual reliance and communication among the four branches, and all of them used this single network. On the other hand, during that war, U.S. leaders tediously learned a lesson. Before the ground attack, 60 days of supplies were planned to be transferred in the battlefield. In real terms, the capability of sending such amount of supplies was proved, but no one could monitor the containers, thus resulting in missing or broken SC links. Finally, the half of the transported supplies was never used (40,000 containers). This example reveals the fact that if inventory is just well-stocked, that does not add value. It has to be feasible to monitor the supply and to transfer it the right time, to the right place, in the correct order. Effective SC should guarantee the knowledge of what and where the AFs have and manage the flow of that, following the battlefield requirements and the strategic planning (Morales & Geary, 2003).

For the same allied operation, UK AFs faced severe deficiencies during the extremely demanding deployment to Iraq. SC weaknesses and shortcomings became very clear and provided an impetus to make improvements. Based on the British House of Commons Defence Committee's review concerning SC performance, shortfalls occurred, like insufficient and inaccurate SC planning and static and unadaptable demand forecasting. Also, an inadequate deployment infrastructure and deployment's inventory deficiencies were unveiled. Finally, SC proved to be not synchronized with action and performance indicators did not exist (House of Commons Defence Committee, 2004).

According to experts' opinion, that keynote examples of modern era deployments reconfirm that a good SC plan is the basis for success in addition to the fact that Alexander remains the greatest military geniuses of all times. According to them logistics and SC planning are a deterring confrontation but under Alexander's inspirations, it is possible to overcome. Every battlefield area may have some degree of predictability, so the most important thing is to integrate SC with DMP and incorporate predictability, and information to conserve the necessary supplies. Proactive, secure support of host or neighbouring nations will result in establishing a steady flow to force units, thus delivering proper support where and when it is required. Alexander was able to conquer the Persian Empire with an out-numbered army, in an unknown area, against people defending their land. Experts identified the above deployment examples as keynote profoundly under the shadow of Alexander's pioneer tactics.

It is evident that General Franks at the time of Iraq War, preferred speed on mass accordingly to Alexander notion to keep his army on purpose small in number (<40,000), thus maximizing speed and flexibility. Alexander also forced marching to reduce the required amount of supplies and restraint the time needed. Alexander created alliances with regional nations and friendly locals to ensure resupply along campaign's routes. Accordingly, Joint Allied Forces proactively arranged the use of territorial nations' transportation air and ground secured routes. Full authority of General Pagonis and the single logistics control point of General Franks reveal an example of successful Alexander's insights' implementation.

Experts state that is the multitasking aspects of Defence sector and special characteristics of military operations result in the urgent need for the SC planning and the decision-related issues to be directed in a holistic and integrated way. National SC systems and independent frameworks cannot support an Allied Joint Force efficiently. Finally, incomplete transparency and partial monitoring of resources, result in additional supplies, while at the same time worldwide, significant equipment, financial inefficiencies and outnumbered military forces are confronted.

Discussion and Proposals

Studying the literature review and analyzing experts' opinions, it becomes apparent that there are many striking parallels between Alexander's ancient Macedonian army and today's military operations. The rapidly changed global environment demands efficiency at all costs. The rapid shifts in the security sphere do require fast, flexible and sustainable AFs. Rising costs due to technology advances under budgets cutbacks, state that no Nation can overpass critical decisions and choices. Future deployments seem to require smaller AFs but with the same capability while corresponding reductions in the Defence sector are unavoidable. Integration, collaboration, sharing and effectiveness are more than needed. Thus, a constant, integrated DMP framework concerning the SC forecasting and planning has to be designed and regularly implemented during the whole spectrum of military procedures and activities.

The basic principles and the key factors that influenced Alexander concerning planning and led to his legendary campaign may still provide a tremendous impetus for the modern era defence sector. It seems that recent reformation efforts have been the lessons' learned positive outcome. Both the U.S. and U.K. DoD have decided to identify precisely the weaknesses and redesign and integrate SC planning into DMP, thus improving effectiveness, enhancing flexibility, achieving savings and adding value. In this context, an integrated SC forecasting and planning capability has to be set to support the DMP holistically, optimize the operational planning, safeguard information sharing and deliver transparency and monitoring of the supplies and services flow.

The results of this study reveal the urgent need for increasing the effectiveness of logistics support and SC performance. SC planning, performance management, and supply processes are identified as weak areas by both defence and business experts. Though, it is apparent that progress has been achieved the recent years. All Alexander's techniques may not be enforced, but most of Alliance's armies may now anticipate SC delays, follow alternative routes and mitigate even partially inefficiencies impact through relative SC planning and DMP models. Most experts agree that transparency, certainty, flexibility and authority should be the principles of an active SC planning. These principles will lead to the achievement of goals like constant and sustainable battlefield support, agency integration and performance benchmarking.

Defence sector has to start by planning as quantified as possible even though all data may not be available. Quantification will assist cost reductions, will reduce system failures and shortfalls, will enforce performance benchmarking, will upgrade transparency and will make feasible the setting of viable objectives. Another one important factor is also to get leadership consensus and commitment. Cross-functional teams have to be set in order to overcome conventional mindset, emotionally driven behaviours and internal interests. "Out of the box" approaches and innovation have to be encouraged. Performance management, IT systems and mindset and cultural change have to be parallel developed. IT systems should provide monitoring and will then assist in building up one joint inventory and SC management system for all the army branches. Providing supplies for modern military operations demand high budgets, so benchmarking performance is essential.

Through studying the example of Alexander the Great and the lessons learned concerning the way he integrated SC planning into strategic decision level, Defence sector nowadays may find the appropriate instruments to rebirth the SC planning and efficiently combine the IT systems and technological advantages. Integration and optimization of SC will provide military leaders with more efficient logistics support to operations, will maximize efficiency, will define the optimal number in supplies to ensure operational capabilities, will provide transparency and even more will encourage collaboration among allied forces (NATO, 2012).

References

- Andrejevas, K., (2010), Operational Art and Lithuanian Armed Forces in next 10 Years Logistical achievements of Alexander the Great and Lithuanian Armed Forces Logistics, *The Bugle*, 8-11
- Bryant, A., (2002), Re-grounding grounded theory, *JITTA: Journal of Information Technology Theory and Application*, 4(1), 25
- Cantrell, R., (2003), *Understanding Sun Tzu on the Art of War*, Arlington, VA, USA: Center For Advantage
- Charmaz, K., (1983), The grounded theory method: An explication and interpretation. In R. Emerson (Ed.), *Contemporary field research: A collection of readings* (pp. 109-126), Boston, MA: Little Brown Company
- Engels, D. W., (1980), *Alexander the Great and the Logistics of the Macedonian Army*, Berkeley, CA, US: University of California Press
- Fuller, J., (2004), *The Generalship of Alexander the Great* (5th ed), Cambridge, MA: Da Capo Press
- Hackett, G. S., (1989), *Warfare in the Ancient World*, New York, New York: Facts on File Inc
- House of Commons Defence Committee, (2004), *Lessons of Iraq*, London: The Stationery Office by Order of the House
- Keegan, J., (1988), *The Mask of Command*. Harrisonburg, VA: Penguin Books
- Morales, D. & Geary, S., (2003), Speed Kills: Supply Chain Lessons from the war in Iraq, *Harvard Business Review*, 81 (11), 16-17
- NATO, (2012), *NATO Logistics Handbook*, Brussels, Belgium: NATO HQ, Defence Policy and Planning Division
- Pagonis, W. G. & Cruikshank, J. L., (1992), *Moving Mountains: Lessons in Leadership and Logistics from the Gulf War*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press
- Pederson, R. B., (1998), *A Study of Combined Arms Warfare by Alexander the Great*, (retrieved August 12th, 2016, from Defense Technical Information Center (DTIC®): <http://www.dtic.mil/dtic/tr/fulltext/u2/a350056.pdf>)
- Sticz, L., (2008), Logistic Planning and the Operations Logistic Chain Management, *AARMS*, 7, 485-504
- The Directorate of Research, (1995), *Gulf War Logistics: Theory into Practice*, Maxwell AFB, AL, U.S.A.: U.S. Air command and staff College
- UK Ministry of Defence, (2003), *Joint Warfare Publication 4-00 (JWP 4-00): Logistics for Joint Operations*, The Joint Doctrine & Concepts Centre
- Van Mieghem, T., (1998), Lessons Learned from Alexander the Great. *Quality Progress Monthly*, 31 (1), 41-46
- Wiles, M. & Chinn, D., (2010), *Supply chain transformation under fire*, London: McKinsey & Company

The British Council's Development After the Second World War

Dr. Malika SAHEL

Ecole Normale Supérieure/Bouzaréah (E.N.S.B), Department of English

Abstract

After the Second World War, Britain's position knew a significant change; a time which coincided with a turning point in Britain's colonial and foreign policies which particularly agreed upon the importance of British Cultural enterprise overseas. Thus, the British Council was encouraged to expand its work in order to improve Britain's damaged image and further British influence.

Keywords: The British Council, Post-World War II, Development, Cultural Enterprise, Government Support.

Introduction

After the Second World War, developed countries' cultural organisations started to manifest an increasingly very important dynamism overseas to help gaining support for national policies respectively. Consequently, the British Council was encouraged by its government to expand particularly in British colonies. This Council's backed development was in tune with the harsh realities of post World War in which Britain's glorious imperial image was seriously damaged.

The purpose of the present paper is to examine the major factors that contributed to the development of the Council's activities in the British colonies after the Second World War.

I- The British Critical Situation After the Second World War:

The British traditional values of pragmatism and progressive politics were no longer attractive. Britain was perceived to be an old-fashioned, outmoded power. Therefore, she had to promote a new image of herself as a dynamic, progressive democracy at the centre of a world-wide association of peoples, providing alternatives to communism and free-market capitalism. Her political and economic relative decline was coupled to a growing ideological gap between her and her colonies, which it was hoped would be closed. Indeed, after the Second World War, Britain had to reconstruct her destroyed economy and she needed support. So, she looked to her colonies for primary resources. Britain's damaged prevailing image there could no longer convince the colonial people to tolerate being exploited as they had previously been. This rejection of exploitation was encouraged by the pan-African movement which activated to spread awareness among the colonised people. The Manchester Pan-Africanism Congress of 1945 called colonial and particularly African peoples to oppose fervently imperial exploitation of their own resources. They also demanded equal and accelerated economic, cultural and social development of Africa ; a larger participation of Africans in the administration of their countries at different levels to prepare self government, a systematic planning and evolution especially in the interests of the Africans.¹

This hard colonial situation led Britain to look for suitable machinery that would improve her image and secure her prestige from a total decline in the world in general and in Africa in particular. After debate with the different departments, the British Government was convinced that a corporation body would better assist in cultural propaganda than a government department, and because of its 'independent status' from its government and its wide range experience in dealing with different overseas peoples, the British Council was thought to be the qualified machinery.² It was hoped the British Council might close the ideological gap that was threatening British imperial interests. For instance, in Africa, the Council's focus

¹ For further details, see E. Geiss, *The Pan-African Movement*, (London, Methuen & Coltd, 1974), p. 391.

² "Both at home and abroad persons and organisations in the cultural sphere who willingly collaborate[d] with the British Council as a non-official body but who would not be equally prepared to co-operate with any organisation directly controlled in all its activities by [the British] Government". T 219/85, Confidential, Review of the Future of the British Council 1950-1951, p. 27.

was mainly on adult education, led by discussion group and assisted by spreading library services. The aim behind such an approach was to induce in African 'a state of mind favourable to Britain',¹ and secure economic advantages for her as well as her world prestige. Therefore, the Council was required to sophisticate its organisation and develop its work.

II- The British Council's Development After the Second World War :

In fact, the consequences of the Second World War on Britain and her colonies favoured the acceleration of the British Council's timid growth experienced before the war.

II.A- The British Council's Structural Growth and General Functioning :

The post-war preoccupations required more professionalism from the British Council to lead a pertinent expansion of a long-term work in view of the sizeable turbulences Britain had to face. Consequently, the Council's organisation and policy were designed in general terms by a Cabinet decision of March 1946² which ordered the Council initially to confine its field of action to educational and cultural matters and to avoid overlapping with the Government's Information Service whose work mainly covered among other patterns lectures (except a small portion), visual propaganda, press and broadcasting.³ Later changes occurring on the structure of the post-war British Council led to developments of the Council's organisation, Finance and Staff.

Before the end of the Second World War, the British Council was organised into a number of divisions which increased from 3 (in April 1939) to 6 (in February 1943). After, the war in order to meet post-war British requirements and fulfil its wide-range activities, within an accelerated growth of international cultural enterprise, the British Council had to reorganise itself into 9 divisions each one including several departments which undertook a variety of tasks. The heads of those divisions proposed projects to the executive and Finance and Agenda Committee. The latter were assisted by a number of advisory ones. Moreover, the Council co-operated with various international institutions such as the United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organisation and the World Health Organisation.

In fact, this doubling of the Council's number of divisions during the Second World War reflected the manifested need for the Council's assistance to spread influence and protect British imperial interests from the propaganda other countries were leading against Britain and other allies. Such Council's backing was further requested once the war ended. Consequently, the Council's structural organisation which comprised 38 departments in 1939, had 37 in 1943 and 47 departments in 1950. This increased number of departments in the British Council's structure to cover new tasks, reflected the significant expansion this machinery's work witnessed after the Second World War.⁴

This Council's continual development of its organisation and important relationships at an extended scale was made possible by devoted qualified staff. The latter was divided into separate Home and Overseas Services. The appointment of staff to different posts had to be recommended by the Council's Personnel Board in London, confirmed by the Director-General or, by the Executive Committee for Senior Posts.

To open offices at home and overseas, be able to fulfil its mission to achieve its objective, the Council had to obtain financial support. Its funds derived from two main sources : the first one, money voted by Parliament. The grant in aid was provided in a separate vote accounted for by the Foreign Office and was spent on the Council's work in foreign countries only. The cost of the work in the colonies and Commonwealth countries was furnished from funds born on the votes for colonial services and Commonwealth services, respectively. The Council's welfare operations for colonial students in the United Kingdom were covered by a grant from the Colonial Office which derived from the funds furnished under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts. The grant-in-aid was officially for a net amount after deducting the miscellaneous receipts and the repayments by the Colonial Office and Commonwealth Relations Office. The Council's expenditure which amounted to £353,233,000 in 1939-40 knew continual increases ; was £480,673,000 in 1940-41 ; £688,773,000 in 1941-42 ;

¹ T 219/84, Second Meeting of Working Party, 2 January 1951.

² G. S. 29/05, Mr Bevin's letter 20th March, 1946.

³ F. Donaldson, *The British Council's : The First Fifty Years 1934-1984*, London, Jonathan Cape, 1984, p. 72.

⁴ For details concerning the Council's affairs management see : CAB 113/17, Confidential, Report on the British Council by Sir Findlater Stewart, 8 February 1945, p. 3.

£1,011,109,000 in 1942-43 ; £2,814,625,000 in 1945-46 and 3,140,956,000 in 1946-47.¹ The second source, miscellaneous receipts, included fees charged in the Council's institutes and schools, income gathered from courses and the 'service and material' operations of the Council, financial assistance from the Colonial Governments and contributions from private corporations and individuals in accordance with the terms of the Charter.²

Under the British Council's Charter, the responsibility for controlling the Council's expenditure rested with the Council's Executive Committee.³ The Foreign Office was responsible for general surveillance of the manner in which that control was exercised, and was accountable to Parliament for the proper expenditure of the grant-in-aid voted to the Council for work in foreign countries. The Colonial Office and the Commonwealth Relations Office were answerable to Parliament for the proper expenditure of the money voted to them for the Council's work in the colonies and the Commonwealth respectively. Moreover, the Foreign Office and the Treasury needed to be sure that the Council's own standards of financial correctness and of control were not below those of government departments. For instance, to facilitate the Council's expansion in the colonies, annual estimated expenditure by the Council operations there was increased from £369,000 in 1942-49 to £450,000 in 1950-51.⁴

Once the Council's needed money was secured, it was divided between United Kingdom and Overseas Services. For instance, in 1947-48, the British Council's total expenditure was £3,161,000, of which £1,607,000, rather more than a half was incurred in the centres overseas. Of the expenditure in London, educational services and material accounted for £577,000, Arts, for £167,000, Common Services for £341,000 and Headquarters administrative staff for £170,000.⁵

Post-war British Council's expenditure faced imposed cuts. Like all government machineries, the British Council suffered from the austerity policy Britain adopted immediately after the Second World War in order to face her economic problems and to meet the emergency imposed by the Cold War. Yet, the British Council did not mince efforts to spread British influence through the maintained work which helped the understanding of British policies overseas.

II.B- The Council's Policy Development:

The British Council machinery was entrusted with the task of supervising cultural relations as a formal activity of government⁶, but the British Government did not consider the Council's 'cultural' work as 'part of the normal functions of a diplomatic mission'.⁷ The Council's area of activity was restricted by the Foreign Office so as to cover the educated groups, leaving the other categories or the general public to the Information Service.⁸ In spite of the fact that it wanted to enlarge its audience and to deal also with non-academic audience, the Council was expected to influence, in the long-term, particularly educated, often already receptive groups in foreign countries through the English language, British Drama, Fine Arts, Literature and Music and focused much more on Higher Studies and the training of teachers.⁹ Thus, it was normal to see its staff involved with the training of teachers and the very filling of English-teaching posts in universities and other institutions overseas.

The new educational dealing proposed by the Council's new Education Director, Dr A. E. Morgan (1946-1951), was a serious problem in the Council's relations with the Foreign Office. Backed by Sir R. Adam (British Council's Chairman and Director-General 1946-1955 and President of the Council 1950-1954), Morgan claimed that direct teaching of elementary English and the support of British schools should not occupy the Council's first priority but these tasks had to be transferred to the countries concerned instead the Council should reach beyond political and intellectual elite through the use of discussion group techniques.

¹ F. Donaldson, *op. cit.*, p. 382.

² T 165/84, *op. cit.*, 1954, p. 7.

³ T 219/420, Charter, clause 6, British Council Financial Handbook, Chapter II.

⁴ T 219/85, *op. cit.*, 1951, p. 36.

⁵ For more details, see BW 151/10, Report of the British Council 1948-49 (London, June MCMXLVII).

⁶ FO 924/253 LC 4940/113/45, Foreign Office Circular N° 144, 28 December 1946.

⁷ BW 69/1, Minutes of a policy Committee Meeting, 11 February 1947.

⁸ BW 2/342, Minute by A. Dudley, 3 March 1946.

⁹ BW 2/343, Annex to Evidence presented to Sub-Committee D of the Select Committee on Estimates, 16 October 1946, p. 469, Memorandum by the British Council.

Such Council's advanced type of education was resisted by the Foreign Office. For instance, in 1949 the Foreign Office Secretary, Sir Ernest Bevin asked the Council to revise its new dealing of education policy. He emphasised elementary teaching, and the expansion of British-type schools.¹ The Foreign Office argued that discussion groups could not be a substitute for English teaching and British schools could be suspected by foreign governments. The Foreign Office precisely referred to educationally underdeveloped areas and warned that, Morgan's proposed policies were big mistake since they could provoke suspicion.² Convinced with these arguments, the British Council's educational policy came back to traditional lines at the end of the decade.

The Colonial Office welcomed and encouraged the British Council to work to its full financial capacity. In August 1947, Mr Green-Jones (UK delegate to UN 1946, 1947-8) expressed his strong feeling about the obligation to maintain the British Council's work in the British Colonies for the following reason :³

As the Colonies themselves progress towards greater self-consciousness and self-sufficiency, their culture and institutions may retain a British flavour and cultural ties may supplement or take the place of political ties on which less reliance can be placed than in the past.¹⁸

The Colonial Office instrumentalised the British Council to develop an understanding of British colonial policy through British publicity.⁴ The Council was also used in the Colonies 'not only as a means of 'putting across' Britain, but also as a powerful instrument in the improvement of race relations'.⁵ Such an enterprise was particularly necessary in African colonies where large unofficial European populations were established. In 1948, the Colonial Under Secretary, Charles Jeffries, himself stated :⁶

I feel that the Council can play a vital part in the development of closer links between the people of the Colonies and the people of Britain, ..., the services of the Council should be used to an even greater extent than they have in the past.²¹

This Colonial Office positive attitude towards the Council facilitated the establishment of Council representations in all but the smallest colonial territories. Moreover, the Council's policy there became clearly defined particularly, in 1948. The opportunity of the Council work was briefed as 'the carrying of any activity in the cultural and educational sphere whose chief purpose is the "projection" of British way of life and the promotion of closer relations in cultural matters between the people of Britain and the people of the colonies'.⁷ It was possible for the Council in the colonies to take part in cultural and educational operations which were to improve the promoted appreciation of the British way of life. In this respect, the British Council Annual Report for 1950-1951 pointed out :⁸

At present there are strong links between Britain and the Colonies which for the most part have not been forged by the Colonial peoples themselves. In many ways the strength of these links is threatened. It is to be hoped that as the peoples of the Colonies obtain greater control over their own affairs, they will realise the value of the connection with Britain and will themselves seek to strengthen the links between their countries and the Commonwealth clearly the Council can play ... in achieving this purpose.²³

Thus, the Council's work in the Colonies was perceived as a very important help to the Colonial Governments and was warmly encouraged and backed by the Colonial Office. Besides, the Foreign Office wished to see the work of the Drama, Fine Art and Music Departments severely reduced.⁹ It was proposed to make these activities self-supporting and in 1948, the Council was instructed to focus as much as possible on activities such as visits, courses, lectures and English lessons rather than on longer-term projects like exhibitions of modern paintings.¹⁰ This direct selection for the Council's post-war

¹ A. J. S. White, op. cit, p. 68.

² FO 924/771 LC 2291/71/452, Minute by J. P. Finch, 6 July 1949.

³ BW 26/4. J. Thomas to Adam, 9 August 1947.

⁴ PREM 8/648, Report of the Empire Publicity Sub-Committee, 20 February 1947.

⁵ CO 878/48/1, Minute by K. W. Blackburn, 17 January 1949.

⁶ A. J. S. White, op. cit, p. 85.

⁷ Ibid, p. 86.

⁸ BW 151/12, Report of the British Council 1950-1951, (London, MCMXLVII, 1951), p. 2.

⁹ BW 1/4, W. H. Montagu-Pollack to White, 17 January 1946.

¹⁰ CAB 124/1029, Bevin to Greech-Jones, 22 September 1948.

priority was expected to ensure rapid political return to which Britain was in most need particularly in relation to her colonies' young generation with whom Britain would have to treat in the future.

Conclusion

Thus, the British Council was allowed to know a significant change and development after the Second World War. In fact, the granting of self-government which was launched and the spread of communism which became a reality threatening British imperial interests in particular at that time, helped the Council to secure more support from the British government in order to strengthen its establishment and extend its work in British spheres of influence and later on, in different parts of the World to improve Britain's damaged image and further British influence.

Bibliography

BW 1/4, W. H. Montagu-Pollack to White, 17 January 1946.

BW 2/342, Minute by A. Dudley, 3 March 1946.

BW 2/343, Annex to Evidence presented to Sub-Committee D of the Select Committee on Estimates, 16 October 1946. Memorandum by the British Council.

BW 26/4. J. Thomas to Adam, 9 August 1947.

BW 69/1, Minutes of a policy Committee Meeting, 11 February 1947.

BW 151/10, Report of the British Council 1948-49 (London, June MCMXLVII).

BW 151/12, Report of the British Council 1950-1951, (London, MCMXLVII, 1951).

CAB 113/17, Confidential, Report on the British Council by Sir Findlater Stewart, 8 February 1945.

CAB 124/1029, Bevin to Greech-Jones, 22 September 1948.

CO 878/48/1, Minute by K. W. Blackburn, 17 January 1949.

Donaldson F., The British Council's : The First Fifty Years 1934-1984, London, Jonathan Cape, 1984.

FO 924/253 LC 4940/113/45, Foreign Office Circular N° 144, 28 December 1946.

FO 924/771 LC 2291/71/452, Minute by J. P. Finch, 6 July 1949.

Geiss E., The Pan-African Movement, (London, Methuen & Coltd, 1974).

PREM 8/648, Report of the Empire Publicity Sub-Committee, 20 February 1947.

T 219/84, Second Meeting of Working Party, 2 January 1951.

T 219/85, Confidential, Review of the Future of the British Council 1950-1951.

T 219/420, Charter, clause 6, British Council Financial Handbook, Chapter II.

Measurement of Economic Development and Interdependence of Countries

Larisa Korganashvili

Doctor of Economic Sciences, Professor,

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi, Georgia

Abstract

At the present time to assess countries economic development, mostly used indicators are per capita GDP and GDP. However, these indicators do not sufficiently reflect the level of economic development of countries. In this regard, for clarification of GDP a correction factor and to determine the interdependence of countries - the interdependence factors are proposed.

Keywords: Economic development, GDP, interdependence of countries, indicators.

Introduction

Economic development of a country is a multifaceted process, which is evaluated by the whole system of indicators. World Bank measures economic development on a national and global scale with more than 2000 indicators. Among them, in practice, the most used are GDP and GDP per capita. However, these indicators do not sufficiently reflect the level of economic development. In its turn the interdependence of countries has become an axiom of the modern world, so it is advisable to determine the level of dependence of one country on another, or on the global economy as a whole.

Purpose of this study is to propose new indicators for further economic development of the national and global economy and determine the interdependence of countries.

Methodology and results.

1. For the economic development of the national and global economy it is offered to use the correction coefficient C_{cor} and use it to correct the GDP of the country or the world. In this case

$$GDP_{cor} = GDP \cdot C_{cor} \quad (1)$$

where GDP_{cor} is corrected volume of GDP, C_{cor} – correction coefficient, representing an average of 5 indicators. In turn C_{cor} calculated as follows:

$$C_{cor} = \frac{\frac{GDP}{population} + \frac{GDP}{labor\ force} + \frac{GDP}{total\ area} + \frac{GDP}{economic\ efficiency\ area} + \frac{export}{import} + \frac{domestic\ investment}{direct\ foreign\ investment} + \frac{domestic\ debt}{external\ debt}}{5} \quad (2)$$

After the conversion formula (2) takes the form:

$$C_{cor} = \frac{\frac{labor\ force}{population} + \frac{economic\ efficiency\ area}{total\ area} + \frac{export}{import} + \frac{domestic\ investment}{foreign\ direct\ investment} + \frac{domestic\ debt}{external\ debt}}{5} \quad (3)$$

For example, for Georgia labor force = 1,991.1 thousand people, population = 4,490.5 thousand people, economic efficiency area = 52.3 thousand sq. km., total area = 69.7 thousand sq. km., export=2,860,671 thousand USD, import= 8,593,325 thousand USD, domestic investment = 4,050.9 mln USD,

foreign direct investment =1,758.4 mln USD, domestic debt = 1,008,381 thousand USD, external debt = 4,199,798 USD

$$\text{With the formula (3) } C_{\text{COR}} = \frac{\frac{1991.1}{4,490.5} + \frac{52.3}{69.7} + \frac{2,860,671}{8,593,325} + \frac{4,050.9}{1,758.4} + \frac{1,008,381}{4,199,798}}{5} = \frac{0.44+0.75+0.33+2.30+0.24}{5} = 0,812$$

Respectively based on the formula (1)

$$\text{GDP}_{\text{COR}} = 16507.8 \text{ mln. USD} \cdot 0,812 = 13404.3 \text{ mln. USD}$$

2. The interdependence of countries can be characterized by coefficient of interdependence, which is calculated by the formula:

$$C_{\text{in}} = \frac{\text{GDP per capita (A)} + \text{GDP per area (A)} + \text{export (A)} + \text{direct foreign investment (A)} + \text{external debt (A)} + \text{net migration (A)}}{\text{GDP per capita (B)} + \text{GDP per area (B)} + \text{export (B)} + \text{direct foreign investment (B)} + \text{external debt (B)} + \text{net migration (B)}} \quad (4)$$

Where C_{in} is coefficient of interdependence, representing an average of 6 indicators, GDP per capita (A) - GDP per capita of the country A, GDP per capita (B) - GDP per capita of the country B, GDP per area (A) - GDP per area of the country A, GDP per area (B) - GDP per area of the country B, export (A) - export of country A to country B, export (B) - export of country B to country A, direct foreign investment (A) - direct foreign investment of the country A to country B, direct foreign investment (B) - direct foreign investment of the country B to country A, external debt (A) - external debt of the country A to country B, external debt (B) - external debt of the country B to country A, net migration (A) - net migration of the country A to country B, net migration (B) - net migration of the country B to country A.

Table 1. Data for calculating the coefficient of the interdependence of Georgia and Azerbaijan

	Azerbaijan	Georgia
GDP, billion USD	53.05	13.97
GDP per capita, USD	5,496.3	3,796.0
GDP per area, USD	612,587	205,743
Export, mln. USD	539.0	241.0
Foreign direct investment, mln. USD	550	N/A
External debt,	N/A	11,512
Net migration	1,574	2,839

Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country>
<http://geostat.ge/index.php?action=0&lang=eng>
<http://www.stat.gov.az/indexen.php>

Substituting the values of the indicators presented in Table 1 in the formula (4) we obtain (because of missing data of foreign direct investment and External debt calculation is made on the four indicators)

$$C_{\text{in}} = \frac{\frac{3,796.0}{5,496.3} + \frac{205,743}{612,587} + \frac{241.0}{539.0} + \frac{2,839}{1,574}}{4} = 0,82$$

Note that if $K_v = 1$, in this case partners have roughly equal parameters and they are in an equilibrium position. If $K_v < 1$, the country A depends on the country B (calculations showed that Georgia is to a certain extent depends on Azerbaijan), and if $K_v > 1$, on the contrary: the country B depends on the country A. The higher K_v , the lower the country's dependence A from country B.

Conclusion

GDP correction factor which is proposed in the study, allows for a fresh look at the essence of the economic development of the countries and on the basis of the coefficient of interdependence among countries to determine their degree of interdependence.

Reference

http://geostat.ge/index.php?action=wnews_archive1&qy=1&qy1=16&lang=eng, <http://www.mof.ge/en/4435>

http://geostat.ge/index.php?action=wnews_archive1&qy=1&qy1=16&lang=eng, <http://www.mof.ge/en/4435>

Is the Adoption of IFRS Enough? What About Proper Implementation?

Alexis Kythreotis

Constantinos Constantinou

European University Cyprus

Abstract

The degree of corruption, among other things, indicates the non-proper implementation of laws, weak enforcement of legal sanctions and the existence of non-transparent economic transactions. Taking this definition into consideration, it is anticipated that the change in quality and specifically in reliability (faithful-representation) resulting from the adoption of IFRS, does not depend solely on the standards itself. This research indicates that it is also influenced by the level of corruption which has an impact on the proper implementation of IFRSs. The sample of this research consists of listed companies of fifteen European countries that have adopted IFRSs mandatorily. The time horizon is 10 years, from 2000 until 2009. The period between 2000 and 2004 is defined as the period before the adoption, while the period between 2005 and 2009 is defined as the period after the adoption. Finally, the findings suggest that the level of reliability after the adoption seems to be unaltered in countries with a low and moderate degree of corruption. However, in countries with a high degree of corruption the findings suggest a statistically significant reduction in the degree of reliability.

Keywords: Corruption; IFRS Adoption; Faithful representation/reliability.

1. Introduction

Following the decision taken in March 2002, the European Parliament decided to adopt the International Accounting Standards (IAS). Specifically, since 2005 all listed companies are required to prepare and present the consolidated financial statements in accordance with the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS). The decision regarding the implementation of the IFRS constitutes a significant and unprecedented change concerning the way financial statements are prepared and presented.

The ultimate purpose of the Committee of the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) is to create high quality standards in order to produce financial statements of the highest quality. To achieve this objective, the Commission establishes those standards that lead to the increase of the degree of relevance, faithful representation, comparability, timeliness, verifiability and understandability in financial statements. The Commission stresses that the financial statements must reflect the specific characteristics, as defined by the Conceptual Framework, so that the information provided is most useful.

As already mentioned, the IFRS creates the standards as well as the Conceptual Framework, while essentially aiming to produce higher quality financial statements. The critical question that arises is whether this goal has been achieved; that is, whether the financial statements following the IASB adoption are in fact, of higher quality.

Based on the existing literature, the quality is measured using different methods or, a combination of them, such as, by calculating discretionary accruals, conservatism, persistence of earnings etc. An important characteristic and a significant contribution of this research is the fact that the quality measurement methodology used, examines the quality of financial statements, as defined by the Conceptual Framework. The findings are expected to show whether the Commission actually achieved its initial objectives which is to enhance the quality of financial statements. Specifically, one fundamental qualitative characteristic (faithful representation/reliability) set by the IAS Committee through the Conceptual Framework is tested in much detail. Finally, it is argued that the expected change in reliability resulting from the adoption of IAS does not depend solely on the adoption of IAS but is, also, influenced by the degree of corruption in each country.

The findings regarding the aggregate sample (15 European countries) indicate a marginal increase in the reliability of the financial statements during the period following the adoption, nonetheless, without being statistically significant. In contrast, the findings that are identified for counties with a high degree of corruption indicate a statistically significant reduction in the degree of reliability.

The research findings constitute a useful tool both for the Commission as well as for users of financial statements. On the one hand, the Commission will be able to know the degree of achievement of the objectives set initially and to take the necessary actions/improvements wherever is deemed appropriate. Furthermore, the wide range of the sample comprising of 15 countries that are examined in this research enables one to identify potential problems with the application of IAS in specific countries (e.g. in countries where low levels of law enforcement are noticed) and to take the necessary measures. On the other hand, users are more equipped to make favorable decisions for their part.

2. Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of IAS essentially defines the general principles which should characterize the process of preparing and presenting financial statements. In no case does it have the power of a standard since the basic purpose of its creation is to help and guide the IASB to develop or review existing and future IAS. Furthermore, it directs those preparing the financial statements to correctly apply the standards and is an additional tool for handling accounting issues not covered by existing standards. At this stage it should be noted that if an existing standard conflicts with the conceptual framework, then the standard shall prevail. Finally, it helps auditors and users to understand whether the financial statements and the information provided is consistent with IAS.

The qualitative characteristics are divided into fundamental and enhancing. The fundamental features are designed to separate the information provided to users in the following parts: useful information or non-useful and/or misleading information. The two fundamental characteristics include relevance and faithful representation (KPMG, 2010). The conceptual framework highlights (paragraph 17) that in order for the information to be useful, it must be characterized by both of the aforementioned characteristics, i.e. relevance and faithful representation.

In addition, the IASB defines also four enhancing qualitative characteristics considered complementary to the fundamental characteristics. The main difference with the fundamental characteristics is that if the financial information is not characterized by the fundamental characteristics, then the enhancing characteristics alone cannot generate useful information to users. Specifically, the enhancing characteristics are comparability, timeliness, understandability and verifiability.

3. Literature Review

3.1. Reliability/Faithful representation and Adoption of IAS

Although IAS gives equal emphasis between the feature of relevance and reliability through their conceptual framework, the same does not apply as far as the literature is concerned. On one side, a significant proportion of literature has dealt extensively with the characteristic of relevance and how this is reflected in the financial statements. In antithesis, the emphasis of the characteristic of reliability is very limited (Richardson et al. 2005).

The vast majority of the literature deals with the characteristic of reliability of accruals identified by finding the discretionary (DA) and non-discretionary accruals (NDA). Several researchers have created models for measuring the degree of reliability using this methodology (Healy 1985, De Angelo 1986, Jones 1991, Dechow and Sloan 1991, Dechow et al. 1995), which are then used as tools for further research. Moreover, the concept of reliability of accruals has been identified with the concept of quality of accruals directly related to the literature that deals with the quality of earnings.

Escaping from the basic idea of the above researchers, which is to identify the DA and NDA, recently some researchers identify the quality of accruals and earnings by measuring the amount of error that arises from the relation between accruals and cash flows (Dechow and Dichev 2002, McNichols 2002).

In 2007, White, diverging significantly from the methodology of Dechow and Dichev (2002) and McNichols (2002), creates a new model that examines the extent to which the accruals at time t are converted into cash flow in year $t + 1$. In comparison to the previous models, important differences lie in that the calculation of accruals is not based on their changes, but on

the closing balances of the accounts. Moreover, the model does not have as an independent variable the overall operating cash flows, which acts as the cause for the introduction of error.

Beyond the research dealing with the reliability of accruals, only a very small part of the literature deals with the reliability of specific accounting items or financial statements as a whole. Cotter and Richardson (2002), in order to identify the reliability of Asset Revaluations, compare the valuation of intangible assets arising from independent appraisers, with estimates arising from the board of the company. The findings indicated that the valuations of plant and equipment that have been made by independent appraisers are more reliable. For other non-current assets, no difference in the degree of reliability of valuations has been detected. The authors detect the degree of reliability by examining the write-downs of an upward revaluation that took place in the past. They claim that the greater the reversal, the lower the reliability, as it implies that there was greater error in the initial revaluation.

In 2007 Lanito, detects the degree of reliability of IAS in Finnish companies through questionnaires that target business managers and auditors of financial statements. The findings resulting from the responses, both for managers and auditors, recognize as reliable the information provided by several standards whilst the findings regarding those reliability standards requiring the exercise of judgment, are characterized as neutral.

Richardson et al. (2005) and Bandyopadhyay et al. (2010), measure the degree of reliability through the ability of current earnings to predict the earnings of the following period. This is based on the argument that the error arising from accruals is incorporated to the process of calculating the earnings, consequently weakening the relationship between successive earnings. In other words, the larger the error in the current earnings is, the lower the correlation to future earnings is as well, leading to a lower degree of persistence/predictive power. An important problem that arises is that this way of measuring the reliability is not consistent with the definition of reliability, as defined by the conceptual framework of IAS. It is alleged that this method may lead to conflicting findings concerning the degree of reliability, especially when the revaluation model is used. In particular, it is argued that the use of fair value introduces additional variation in earnings while reducing their predictive ability (Riedl 2010). Therefore, based on the empirical model of Richardson et al. (2005), the degree of reliability would be characterized as low whilst by the definition given by the conceptual framework, the reliability is high (as long as the fair values are portrayed without error, presenting faithfully the economic reality).

Finally, the findings associated with the reliability and adoption of IAS are identified in 2005 by Van Tendeloo and Vanstraelen, discovering while using the model of Jones (1991) that the financial statements of German firms that voluntarily adopt IAS are characterized by higher degree of DA, compared with companies that do not adopt IAS. In addition, Chen et al. (2010) examined 15 European countries and applied inter alia the modified model of Jones and Kothari et al. (2005), discovered opposite results in comparison to the findings of the Van Tendeloo and Vanstraelen (2005). Particularly, they find that the degree of DA is lower in firms adopting IAS, which supports the increase in the quality of their financial statements. In addition, the same researchers examine the quality of accruals through the model proposed in 2002 by the Dechow and Dichev, identifying a reduction in standard deviation of the residuals of the model, which again supports the rise in quality.

4. Hypothesis Development

4.1. Adoption of IAS and the degree of Faithfull representation/Reliability of Financial Statements

Based on the definition of faithful representation/reliability, as defined by the conceptual framework, the financial statements are said to be reliable when they do not contain any material error or bias and reliably reflect the economic events that they must present. In particular, the financial statements should be governed by five partial characteristics, to qualify as reliable. First, to present faithfully the economic events; secondly, they should not be the product of any prejudice whatsoever, that is to be neutral; third, to present the economic substance of economic events unconstrained by legal aspects; fourth, decisions taken by the management regarding uncertain events which require the exercise of judgment must be taken with caution and finally, the financial statements ought to be complete.

The purpose of the IAS Committee was the creation and provision, especially to investors, of augmented levels of relevance in the financial statements. Given the interaction between the characteristics of relevance and reliability, the increase of the degree of relevance will be attained by increasing the reliability of financial statements. To achieve this objective, the IASB has taken the following actions: First, there was a reduction of alternative accounting methods (e.g. abolition of the LIFO

method), which aims to reduce the degree of manipulation of results and thus, the increase of their reliability. Second, there was a focus on the economic substance of events, giving in many cases the option to management to choose the accounting treatment (e.g. introduction of fair value as the valuation method) resulting to the better reflection of economic reality in the financial statements. Finally, the detailed presentation of the principles relating to valuation, recognition and publication of the financial statements, suggests that the degree of manipulation by the management is reduced and at the same time a rise in terms of completeness is observed.

Additionally, with the adoption of IAS and the increase of the degree of comparability, especially at international level, investors are able to compare at a lower cost the financial statements, identifying omissions and/or errors in accounting statements easier. This leads both, managements and audit firms that audit the financial statements, to be more careful in the drafting and auditing of accounts, resulting in more reliable financial statements.

On the other hand, in some cases, the use of fair value and the exercise of judgment by the management may result in the rise of the degree of manipulation. Moreover, the difficulty of calculating the fair value can introduce additional estimation error. These elements can cause loss of reliability, but are not considered likely to lead to a reduction in the reliability of the financial statements in the period following the adoption of IAS.

If one relies on the definition of reliability, it can be drawn that before the adoption of IFRS the financial statements were governed by a low degree of reliability, since due to the use of historical cost the accounting data did not adequately describe the economic reality, because the book values of a firm deviate significantly from the economic values. The deviation from the economic reality - an indication of low-level reliability - resulting from the use of historical cost is expected to be greater than the deviation caused by the use of fair value, upon adoption (which as mentioned above, in some cases can be manipulated or can be inaccurate). The fact that the elements that seem to reduce the reliability of financial statements, such as those mentioned in the previous paragraph, seem unlikely to prevail and lead to the reduction of the degree of reliability in the period following the adoption of IFRS in combination with the actions taken by the International Accounting Standards Board to increase the reliability, and result to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: The faithful representation/reliability of the financial statements of firms adopting IAS is higher during the period following the adoption of IAS in relation to the period before the adoption.

4.2. Interaction between Corruption and the Degree of Reliability

The high degree of corruption, among other things, indicates the non- implementation of laws, weaker enforcement of legal sanctions and the existence of non-transparent economic transactions. Therefore, the expected increase in reliability (hypothesis 1) resulting from the adoption of IAS, does not depend solely on the adoption of IAS but is, also, influenced by the degree of corruption in each country.

In many cases, the choice of accounting treatment by the management is allowed by IAS in order to better reflect the economic reality. But in countries where corruption is high and the imposition of legal sanctions and law enforcement is weaker, this option enables management to manipulate the results with greater ease and without fear of legal sanctions, thus reducing to some extent the reliability of financial statements. The conclusion is that the proper application of IAS and the reliability of the financial statements are directly dependent on the degree of corruption that governs every country. The hypothesis which arises is the following:

Hypothesis 2: The improvement of the degree of reliability of the financial statements of companies adopting IAS is higher in countries with low corruption.

5. Methodology

5.1. Measuring reliability - First Method

The first model used to measure the reliability has been developed by Kim and Kross (2005). Specifically, cash flows from operating activities and accruals at time t are set as the independent variables, whilst the cash flows from operating activities in $t + 1$ as the dependent variable. The model which emerges is the following:

$$Cfo_{it+1} = a_0 + a_1Cfo_{it} + a_2Acc_{it} + u_{it+1} \quad (1)$$

Cfo_{it+1} = Cash flows from operating activities in $t + 1$ / Total assets at t ,

Cfo_{it} = Cash flows from operating activities in t / Total assets at $t-1$,

Acc_{it} = DWC - DEP,

DEP = Depreciation / Total Assets at $t-1$,

DWC = change in net accounts Receivables / total assets at $t-1$, plus change in inventory / Total assets at $t-1$, plus change in other current assets / total assets at $t-1$, minus change in accounts payable / Total assets at $t-1$, minus change in taxes payable / total assets at $t-1$, minus change in other current liabilities / Total assets at $t-1$, minus change in deferred taxes / Total assets at $t-1$.

U_{it+1} = residuals

Reliability is defined as the ability of the two independent variables to explain the cash flows from operating activities in $t + 1$. This ability is identified by the coefficient of determination of the model (R^2). In other words, the identification of higher R^2 indicates a higher degree of reliability of the financial statements and vice versa. The comparison of reliability between the two periods - before and after the adoption - is performed by comparing the R^2 of two independent samples. The statistical significance of the difference between the two R^2 is examined through a test used by Van der Meulen et al, in 2007, which was based on the analysis of Crammer (1987).

5.2. Measuring reliability - Second Method

The second model used to measure reliability is based on the model developed by White, in 2007. There are two important properties of this model. First, is that the calculation of accruals is not based on changes in the accounting items ('traditional' approach), as older models (Dechow and Dichev, 2002, McNichols, 2002, Kim and Kross, 2005 etc.), but on their closing balances. Secondly, a distinction between accruals and deferrals is made, escaping from the hitherto definition of accruals that integrated the cumulative accruals and deferrals.

The underlying logic of the model is to isolate the amounts recognized in the year t and which are disbursed to the next ($t + 1$) (payable/accruals), the amounts recognized in the year $t + 1$ and disbursed to it as well as the amounts disbursed in fiscal year $t + 1$ and in relation to the upcoming year (prepaid/deferrals). Finally, White (2007) examines the ability of these three variables to explain the cash flows at $t + 1$. A basic assumption of the model is that short-term assets and liabilities are recovered or settled, within twelve months.

The higher the capacity of the three independent variables in explaining the dependent variable is, the higher the degree of reliability of the financial statements. In other words, when the accruals (payable/accruals at time t and prepaid/deferrals at time $t+1$) explain the operating cash flows at time $t+1$, then the management estimations relating to accruals can be regarded as reliable. Moreover, White (2007) argues that the introduction of the independent variable $Cpcfit+1$ introduces systematic measurement error in the regression (White, 2007: 18). Hence, he uses a proxy variable; the $Cpcf_{it}$. Finally, the explanatory ability of the independent variables is measured by the coefficient of determination of the model (R^2). As in the previous model the comparison of reliability between the two is performed by comparing the R^2 of two independent samples. Again, the statistical significance of the difference between the two R^2 is examined through the test used by Van der Meulen et al, in 2007. The model which emerges is the following:

$$Cfo_{it+1} = a_0 + a_1Accr_{it} + a_2Cpcf_{it} + a_3Def_{it+1} + u_{it+1} \quad (2)$$

Cfo_{it+1} = Cash flows from operating activities in $t + 1$ / Total assets at t ,

$Accr_{it}$ = Net accounts receivables / Total assets at $t-1$, minus other current liabilities / Total assets at $t-1$, minus inventory accruals / Total assets at $t-1$,

$Cpcf_{it}$ = operating income before depreciation at time t minus $Accr_{it}$ plus Def_{it-1} .

Def_{it+1} = other current assets / Total assets at t , plus inventory deferrals / Total assets at t ,

U_{it+1} = residuals

6. Sample

The sample of this study consists of listed companies of 15 European countries, which according to the classification published by the FTSE Group in September 2009 (FTSE, Country Classification, 2009) are characterized as developed. The countries considered are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the UK. Moreover, three subsamples were created: a) countries with low corruption (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Holland, Germany, and Ireland), b) countries with moderate corruption (United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Spain, and Portugal) and c) countries with high corruption (Greece and Italy). In order to categorise these countries to each subsample, the Corruption Perceptions Index published by Transparency International in 2010, was used.

The time period under examination in this research is period of 10 years consisting of the period prior (2000-2004) and the period after (2005-2009) the adoption of IAS. Given that the effects of IFRS on the financial statements of companies that are mandatory IAS adopters are the ones examined, firms which are either voluntary adopters of IAS, or they adopt them at a time after 2005 (as listed on AIM London Stock Exchange - alternative investment market) are excluded from the sample. In other words, any firms whose first publication of their financial statements under IAS was held a year other than 2005 are crossed out from the sample.

The data for the sample were provided by DataStream database. In addition, other than the aforementioned exceptions firms in the financial sector are also excluded (so that the findings can be directly compared with previous research), since the exclusion of financial firms from samples of previous research is almost ubiquitous. Additionally, according to the existing literature, companies with negative book value of capital are excluded. Among others, Collins et al. (1997) and Collins et al. (1999) and Brown et al. (1999) argue that the samples used for the measurement of relevance should incorporate only positive observations of book value of equity. In addition, 2% of the extreme values are deleted. The process of the creation of the final samples, as discussed in the previous paragraphs, is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Sample selection for IFRS mandatory adopters

	(N) 2000 - 2004	(N) 2005 - 2009	(N) 2000 - 2009
Original sample	26876	23047	49923
Minus:			
Observations for companies / fiscal year different from 1/1-31/12	7495	6501	13996
Observations for companies in the financial sector	1615	1459	3074
Observations for companies with negative book value of equity	581	572	1153
Voluntary adopters	7711	6686	14397
Data not available	437	449	886
Outliers (2%)	136	191	327
Final sample	8662	7428	16090

This sample refers to the reliability measure resulting from regression $Cfo_{it+1} = a_0 + a_1Cfo_{it} + a_2Acc_{it} + u_{it+1}$. Observations arising from the other model vary, depending on the unavailable data.

7. Results

7.1. Descriptive Statistics

In Table 2 the descriptive elements of the sample are presented. A detailed description of the variables used is presented in the table.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

Variable / Model	2000-2004					2005-2009				
	Mean	Median	Q1	Q3	Sd	Mean	Median	Q1	Q3	Sd
Reliability 1 Cfo_{t+1}	0,07	0,08	0,03	0,12	0,15	0,07	0,07***	0,03	0,12	0,11

Accr t	0,08	0,08	-0,01	0,18	0,20	0,08	0,08	-0,01	0,18	0,17
Cpcf t	0,07	0,06	-0,05	0,17	0,27	0,08***	0,08***	-0,05	0,19	0,22
Def t+1	0,07	0,03	0,01	0,10	0,11	0,06**	0,02***	0,00	0,10	0,10
Reliability 2										
Cfot+1	0,09	0,09	0,05	0,13	0,09	0,08***	0,08***	0,04	0,12	0,08
Cfo t	0,08	0,08	0,05	0,12	0,09	0,09***	0,09***	0,05	0,13	0,08
Acc	-0,05	-0,06	-0,09	-0,02	0,09	-0,04***	0,03***	-0,07	0,00	0,08

The model Reliability 1 refers to the regression: $Cfoit + 1year = a_0 + a_1Accrit + a_2Cpcf it + a_3Defit + 1year$, and model Reliability 2 refers to the regression: $Cfoit + 1year = a_0 + a_1Cfoit + a_2Accit$. Variables: $Cfoit + 1$ = Cash flows from operating activities in $t + 1$ / Total assets at t , $Cfoit$ = Cash flows from operating activities in t / Total assets at $t-1$, $Accrit$ = Net accounts receivables / Total assets at $t-1$, minus other current liabilities / Total assets at $t-1$, minus inventory accruals / Total assets at $t-1$, $Defit + 1$ = Other current assets / Total assets at t , plus inventory deferrals / Total assets at t , $Cpcf it$ = operating income before depreciation at time t minus $Accrit$ plus $Defit-1$, $Accit$ = $DWC - DEP$, DEP = Depreciation / Total Assets at $t-1$, DWC = change in net accounts Receivables / total assets at $t-1$, plus change in inventory / Total assets at $t-1$, plus change in other current assets / total assets at $t-1$, minus change in accounts payable / Total assets at $t-1$, minus change in taxes payable / total assets at $t-1$, minus change in other current liabilities / Total assets at $t-1$, minus change in deferred taxes / Total assets at $t-1$, *** = 1% statistically significant, ** = 5% statistically significant, * = 10% statistically significant, T-test and Wilcoxon rank sum test have been used to test for differences means and median, respectively.

7.2. Empirical Findings

According to the first hypothesis, reliability of financial statements is expected to increase in the period following the adoption of IAS. Moreover, this increase is expected to be larger in countries with a low degree of corruption. Tables 3 and 4 illustrate the findings on this matter. The change of the degree of reliability is detected by the linear models 1 and 2 and more specifically, by examining the change of the coefficient of determination (R^2). In case of increasing reliability, the R^2 of each regression is expected to be higher in the period after the adoption in relation to the period before the adoption. The results from both methods, concerning the aggregate sample, detect a marginal increase in the degree of reliability but are not statistically significant whatsoever. Specifically, with regards to the aggregate sample, the change of R^2 regarding both, regression 1 and 2, shows a marginal non-significant increase in reliability at the rate of 3% and 2%, respectively (Table 3, 4).

Finally, the degree of manipulation of accruals is detected to be stronger in countries with a high degree of corruption where the non-implementation of laws, weaker enforcement of legal sanctions and lack of transparent transactions comprise of traits that characterize these countries. The findings resulting from the further investigation concerning the reliability of countries in relation to the latter's degree of corruption, support this position. In particular, the findings that are identified suggest that countries with a low degree of corruption (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Holland, Germany, Ireland and Luxembourg) have increased the degree of reliability - during the period following the adoption of IAS in relation to the period before the adoption - but, are not however, statistically significant. In countries with a moderate degree of corruption (United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Spain and Portugal), the degree of reliability is at the same level, while countries with a high degree of corruption (Greece and Italy) presented a reduction in the degree of reliability. According to the aforementioned methods the reduction of reliability is identified to be statistically significant at 10% (Table 3, 4).

Table 3. Reliability 1

$$Cfo_{it+1} = a_0 + a_1Cfo_{it} + a_2Acc_{it} + u_{it+1}$$

Country	a0	a1	a2	Ad. R ²	Dif. R ²
All countries prior IAS	0.023369***	0.698654***	-0.093846***	51%	
All countries post IAS	0.014563***	0.679640***	-0.052264**	54%	+03%
Countries with low corruption-prior IAS	0.026736***	0.738618***	0.012380	52%	
Countries with low corruption-post IAS	0.007895	0.756328***	-0.038646	56%	+04%
Countries with moderate-corruption prior IAS	0.027605***	0.710540***	-0.048811**	52%	

Countries with moderate corruption-post IAS	0.019246***	0.684983***	-0.049401**	52%	0%
Countries with high corruption-prior IAS	0.017454*	0.680636***	-0.146830***	53%	
Countries with high corruption-post IAS	0.019981**	0.509181***	-0.050729	43%	-10%*

Variables : Cfo it +1 = Cash flows from operating activities in t + 1 / Total assets at t, Cfo it = Cash flows from operating activities in t / Total assets at t-1, Accit = DWC - DEP, DEP = Depreciation / Total Assets at t-1, DWC = change in net accounts Receivables / total assets at t-1, plus change in inventory / Total assets at t-1, plus change in other current assets / total assets at t-1, minus change in accounts payable / Total assets at t-1, minus change in taxes payable / total assets at t-1, minus change in other current liabilities / Total assets at t-1, minus change in deferred taxes / Total assets at t-1. The technique bootstrapping (Van der Meulen et. al 2007 and Crammer 1986) is used to control the statistical significance of differences in R². *** = 1% statistical significance, ** = 5% statistically significant, * = 10% statistically significant. Countries with low corruption: Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Holland, Germany, Ireland. Countries with moderate corruption: United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Spain, Portugal. Countries with high corruption: Greece, Italy.

Table 4. Reliability 2

$$Cfo_{it+1} = a_0 + a_1Accr_{it} + a_2Cpcf_{it} + a_3Def_{it+1} + u_{it+1}$$

Country	a0	a1	a2	a3	Ad. R ²	Dif.R ²
All countries prior IAS	0.025848***	0.442617***	0.459280***	-0.295475***	35%	
All countries post IAS	0.016293***	0.450523***	0.489532***	-0.333095***	37%	+02%
Countries/low corruption-prior IAS	0.027127***	0.487748***	0.484303***	-0.356328***	38%	
Countries/ low corruption-post IAS	0.001231	0.497264***	0.533139***	-0.304032***	42%	+04%
Countries/moderate-corruption prior IAS	0.022311***	0.423948***	0.439616***	-0.291573***	38%	
Countries/moderate-corruption post IAS	0.028847***	0.423866***	0.454805***	-0.394640***	37%	-01%
Countries/high corruption-prior IAS	0.032389***	0.526987***	0.606710***	-0.506074***	38%	
Countries/ high corruption-post IAS	0.018746***	0.389937***	0.419146***	-0.346933***	31%	-07%*

Variables : Cfo it +1 = Cash flows from operating activities in t + 1 / Total assets at t, Accr it = Net accounts receivables / Total assets at t-1, minus other current liabilities / Total assets at t-1, minus inventory accruals / Total assets at t-1, Def it +1 = Other current assets / Total assets at t, plus inventory deferrals / Total assets at t, Cpcf it = operating income before depreciation at time t minus Accr it plus Def it-1. The technique bootstrapping (Van der Meulen et. al 2007 and Crammer 1986) is used to control the statistical significance of differences in R². *** = 1% statistical significance, ** = 5% statistically significant, * = 10% statistically significant. Countries with low corruption: Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Holland, Germany, Ireland. Countries with moderate corruption: United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Spain, Portugal. Countries with high corruption: Greece, Italy.

8. Conclusions

The IASB creates the standards and the conceptual framework in an attempt to create higher quality financial statements. Throughout this article, the extent to which this objective has been achieved is examined. Specifically, whether the quality of the financial statements of firms adopting IAS is superior to the period after the adoption of IAS, as compared with the period before the adoption, is examined.

An important characteristic and a contribution of this research is the fact that the quality measurement methodology used varies greatly from other existing methodologies that are identified in the existing literature. Specifically, the quality of financial statements was examined in the light of the Conceptual Framework.

The sample consists of listed companies of fifteen European countries that have adopted IAS mandatorily. The countries included in the sample are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the UK.

Additionally, three subsamples were created: a) countries with low corruption, b) countries with moderate corruption and c) countries with high corruption. Finally, the time horizon that is investigated is 10 years, from 2000 until 2009. Specifically, the period between 2000 and 2004 is defined as the period before the adoption, while the period between 2005 and 2009 is defined as the period after the adoption.

The findings that are identified for the aggregate sample suggest a marginal increase in the reliability of the financial statements but, without being statistically significant. Moreover, it was detected that countries with a low degree of corruption have increased the degree of reliability, but still, this increase is not statistically significant. Moreover, the degree of reliability for countries with a moderate degree of corruption seems to be unaltered. Finally and more importantly, the findings that are identified for countries with a high degree of corruption indicate a statistically significant reduction in the degree of reliability.

References

- Bandyopadhyay, S., Chen, C., Huang, A. and Jha, R., 2010. Accounting Conservatism and the Temporal Trends in Current Earnings' Ability to Predict Future Cash Flows Versus Future Earnings: Evidence on the Trade-Off Between Relevance and Reliability. *Contemporary Accounting Research*, Volume 27, Issue 2, pages 413–460.
- Brown, S., Lo, K. and Lys T. 1999. Use of R2 in accounting research: measuring changes in value relevance over the last four decades. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*. 28(2): 83-115.
- Chen, H., Q. Tang, Qingliang, Y. Jiang and Z. Lin. 2010. The Role of International Financial Reporting Standards in Accounting Quality: Evidence from the European Union. *Journal of International Financial Management & Accounting*. Autumn, Volume 21, Issue 3, pp. 220–278.
- Collins, D., Pincus, M. and Xie, H. 1999. Equity valuation and negative earnings: The role of book value of equity. *The Accounting Review*. 74(1): 29-61.
- Collins, D., Maydew, E., Weiss, I., 1997. Changes in the value-relevance of earnings and book values over the past forty years. *Journal of Accounting and Economics* 24, 39–67.
- Cotter, J. and Richardson, S. 2002. Reliability of Asset Revaluations: The Impact of Appraiser Independence. *Review of Accounting Studies*. Volume 7, Number 4, 435-457.
- Cramer, J. 1987. Mean and Variance of R2 in Small and Moderate Samples. *Journal of Econometrics* 35: 253-266.
- De Angelo, L. 1986. Accounting numbers as market valuation substitutes: a study of management buyouts of public stockholders. *The Accounting Review* 61 (3): 400-420.
- Dechow, P. and Sloan, R. 1991. Executive Incentives and the Horizon Problem: An Empirical Investigation. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 14, 1991, 51-89.
- Dechow, P., and I. Dichev. 2002. The quality of accruals and earnings: The role of accrual estimation errors. *The Accounting Review* 77 (Supplement): 35–59.
- Dechow, P., R. Sloan, and A. Sweeney. 1995. Detecting earnings management. *The Accounting Review* 70 (2): 193-225.
- FTSE Country Classification Sep. 2009. Available at: <http://www.ftse.com>
- Healy, P. 1985. The effect of bonus schemes on accounting decisions. *Journal of Accounting and Economics* 7: 85–107.
- Jones, J. 1991. Earnings management during import relief investigations. *Journal of Accounting Research* 29: 193–228.
- Kim, M., Kross, W. 2005. The ability of earnings to predict future operating cash flows has been increasing - not decreasing. *Journal of Accounting Research* 43, 753-780.
- Kothari, S. P., A. Leone, and C. Wasley. 2005. Performance matched discretionary accrual measures. *Journal of Accounting and Economics* 39: 163-197.
- KPMG Briefing Sheet. 2010. Conceptual Framework for Financial Reporting: Chapters 1 and 3, Oct. Issue 213.

-
- Lanito, A. 2007. Does IFRS Improve the Usefulness of Accounting Information in a Code-Law Country? Working paper. Available at: http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=905218
- McNichols, M., 2002. Discussion of 'The quality of accruals and earnings: the role of accruals estimation errors.' *The Accounting Review* 77 (Supplement): 61-69.
- Richardson, S., R. Sloan, M. Soliman, and I. Tuna. 2005. Accrual reliability, earnings persistence, and stock prices. *Journal of Accounting and Economics* 39: 437-485.
- Riedl, E., (2010). Discussion of "Accounting Conservatism and the Temporal Trends in Current Earnings' Ability to Predict Future Cash Flows versus Future Earnings: Evidence on the Trade-off between Relevance and Reliability." *Contemporary Accounting Research*, 27(2), 461-467.
- Transparency International (2010). "Corruption Perceptions Index 2010, European Union and Western Europe" Available at: http://www.transparency.org/policy_research/surveys_indices/cpi/2010/results
- Van der Meulen, S., Gaeremynck, A. and Willekens M. 2007. Attribute differences between U.S. GAAP and IFRS earnings: An exploratory study. *The International Journal of Accounting*. Volume 42, Issue 2, pp. 123-142.
- Van Tendeloo, B. and Vanstraelen, A. 2005. Earnings management under German GAAP versus IFRS, *European Accounting Review*, 14(1), pp. 155-80.
- White, H. 1980. A Heteroscedasticity Consistent Covariance Matrix Estimator and a Direct Test for Heteroscedasticity. *Econometrica*. 48, 817-838.
- White, H. 2007. Assessing Accrual Reliability in Periods of Suspected Opportunism. Working paper.

Migration and Social Transformation. the Case of Albania and Greece

Rifat Demalija

PHD Cand., at European University of Tirana, Albania

Abstract

Migration has become a very sensitive issue for the society not in Albania, but in Europe and beyond it last twenty years. The development through migration seems to be a political issue, therefore it's still regarded a social problem which needs to be controlled. Migration has played a big role within the social order, bounding societies with high cultural differences and beliefs. The case of Albania and Greece, after 1991, helps me to claim that migration has not only influenced the development of both countries, but it has also transformed the social life. This paper aims to take into account two important issues; social transformation and human mobility and its relationship with migration and development, observing the case of Albania and Greece 1991 -2013. The paper will answer the question about the social integration and benefits of both social groups involved; migrants and hosting communities. Globalization (especially after the collapse of the communist regime in Albania), represents an important development in social, economical and political life in both countries, Albania and Greece. The migration of Albanians denied for more than forty years by the communist regime, was reflected with the wave of migration after 1991 initially in Italy and Greece. Within two years, more than 300,000 Albanians emigrated, seeking for a better life, while after 20 years more than 1 million Albanians are living abroad. Albanians are by far the largest groups of foreign workers in Greece, estimated at 650,000 to 800,000. With the economical crises in Greece the situation has changed and many of migrants have decided to return home. What they bring home is not only their money and experience, but they bring most the social transformation. Focusing on the social transformation and human mobility, this research brings into the attention not only benefits of economical developments, but also the social transformation, through exchanging skills and attitude, brain circulation from which benefits both countries.

Keywords: Social transformation, migration, development, brain circulation.

1. Introduction

After 1991, Albania has faced with one of the great emigration of modern times in Western Balkans comparing Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro. Between 1990 – 2013, roughly 800,000 people have migrated out of Albania, where more than 650,000 of them are settled in Greece, where Albanians make up 60% of immigrants (INSTAT, 2002). After the fall of communism in the early 1990, a large number of economic emigrants arrived in Greece to seek employment. Although our attention is focused on the migration after 1991, we should be aware that migration in Greece is not a new phenomenon for Albanians. The *Arvanites* in Greece, are the historical legacy of such Ottoman migration, and constituted a significant part of the tiny population of Athens at the birth of modern Greek state in 1830. A wave of Albanian migrations started in 1912 after the Balkan Wars and continued until 1945 when the new post-war regime prohibited emigration (Philip & Susan M. and Ferruccio, 2002) Although the initial entry of Albanians in Greece in 1991 until 2000 was through mountains by walk, after this time it seems to have been by visas for those who had relatives in Greece.

This paper, interprets social transformation and human mobility and its relationship with migration and development, focusing not only on economical benefits, but also the social transformation, through exchanging skills and attitude, brain circulation from which benefits both countries. It answers the questions about the benefits of both social groups involve; migrants in one side and hosting communities in the other side.

From the very arrival of Albanian migrants in Greece were stigmatized as “dangerous people” by Greek media. There were repeated claims such as that reported in a leading newspaper, *Kathimerini*, in January 1996 that 60% of all recorded crimes

were committed by foreigners, mostly Albanians (Lazaridis and Wickens, 1999). In fact, as demonstrated in some reports and analyses of immigrants and crime in Greece, the statistics cited that immigrant crime is largely confined to robbery, theft and beggary, whereas serious crimes (murder, rape) are committed overwhelmingly by Greeks (Baldwin-Eduards, 1998). After the first wave of Albanians migration, where most of them were engaged on different sectors of Greek economy, there is evidences that Greeks have increased personal contacts with Albanian immigrants and have changed the negative stereotype.

An important dimension of the relationships between immigrants and Greek families has started to appear after the integration of their children in schools. Both immigrants' children and Greek have studied in same classes, bringing so the culture differences in a setting that young people get over the stereotypes created in the past.

Because of the fact that Greek economy is suffering during last four years, the migration towards Greece is reduced. After 20 years of migration, as it has appeared the Greek crisis in its economy, many of Albanians have been thinking to leave Greece. Some of them are already returned to Albania with their families, while many others have migrated to other developed countries. In the period 1990–2003, an estimated 45% of Albania's academics emigrated to Canada, USA, UK and other EU countries, as did more than 65% of the scholars who received PhDs in the West in the period 1980–1990. 22,395 Albanians live in Canada, while 113,661 is the current Albanian population in United States¹.

In this paper I argue that we need to think more clearly what social transformation and development has happened due to the migration of Albanian in Greece. The reason why the relationship between migration and socio-economic development has attracted so much the public attention is because of the returning back in their home country and the need to adapt with the new environment. One of the questions that I want to raise, is how could we offer a better environment for repatriated emigrants? What are the social transformations that they bring back in Albania, and if we are ready to make them feel at home? What are the skills and attitude they bring back, and the government could develop policies for this group of people? In this context, I think that it is important to recognize the impact that returned migrants will have not only in the economy but also on social life.

Human mobility, is likely to have both positive and negative consequences for both countries, in the social transformation and development, thus it is quite challenging to analyze those.

Recent studies on relation between migration and development are focused mainly on international migration and its impact on economic growth, poverty as well inequality in sending countries. The debate on migration and development has tended to bring different perspectives from the 1950s as a theory of development-alism, moving later during 1980s towards views influenced by the new economics of labour migration, while after 1990s migration theories are focused on a transnational approach. During last four decades, the impact of migration on development in migrant sending countries has been the subject of heated debates. This debate is reflected on recent studies, targeting Albanian migration and immigration towards Greece and other Western countries.

The debate between migration and development has two different approaches, those who are optimists which are inspired by neo-classical theory and others who are pessimists which are drawn by structuralism social theory. Optimists see the migration as a tool that develops the economy and generate remittances and investments as well knowledge and skills to be invested in the economy and directly stimulate the development (Taylor, 1999), while pessimists tend to address migration as a negative phenomenon contributing to the "development of underdevelopment" instead of the reverse (Lipton, 1980, Rubenstein, 1992). Migration pessimists have also argued that remittances were mainly spent on investments such as houses a rarely in productive enterprise (Lipton 1980).

Remittances are considered a vital source for the development of the economy. However the current debate on migration, remittances and development suffers from a number of shortcomings. Sen (1999) offered a more comprehensive approach to development by conceiving it as the process of expanding the real freedom that people enjoy. His understanding of development includes elements such as social well-being, poverty alleviation, income inequality, gender equality and universal access to primary education, health care and meaningful employment.

¹ Migration Policy Institute. <http://www.migrationinformation.org/article/albania-looking-beyond-borders/>

These debates on migration and development seem to be influenced by the paradigm shift in social theory in which social scientists harmonize the debate interaction between migration and development.

2. Methods

The research methodology involves the collection and the analysis of materials relevant to the study. The basic way deals with: data collecting, data analyses and the analyses of the findings from the field work. To answer the main question, the study implies the method of analyzing theories and empirical work. Theoretical work is based on former studies related to immigration and development, and critics towards this perspective, analyzing the experience of migration of Albanians after 1990 in Greece.

The empirical task is focused on the field work, using thirteen interviews with returned and seasonal emigrants. All these data collected are analyzed qualitatively.

3. Migration flow

This paper is mainly focused on the migration after 1991, which is still continuing nowadays. In 2000, the Albanian migration scholar Kostab Bajraba published official of the total number of Albanian emigrants living abroad in 1999. The Albanian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs estimated 800,000 emigrants with 500,000 in Greece and 200,000 in Italy. Other countries hosting significant numbers of Albanians included Germany (12,000), United States (12,000), United Kingdom (5,000), Canada (5,000) Belgium (2,500), France (2,000), Turkey (2,000), Austria (1,000), Switzerland (1,000) and Australia (1,460). Some of these latter figures are likely to be underestimates, given the mobility of Albanian migrants, especially within Europe, and the rapid evolution of new migration channels and routes in recent years. Indeed, recently the new wave of migration of Albanians is towards Uks (Bajraba, 2000).

The publication of the results of the 2001 Albanian Census (INSTAT, 2002) enabled new estimates of the scale of emigration during the 1990s to be made. Moreover, some estimates of its regional incidence could also be inferred. The Census revealed an estimated net loss due to emigration of more than 600,000, calculated by the census residual method. This figure is somewhat less than Bajraba's (2000) slightly earlier estimate of 800,000; but again, as noted earlier, the two figures are not incompatible since the census explicitly excluded short-term migration of less than one year's duration.

Whilst most authorities concur that Albanians in Italy number around 200,000, possibly 250,000 (Pittau & Forti, 2004), quantifying the much more fluid movement and presence of Albanians in Greece is more difficult since its cross-border, to-and-fro nature challenges the very meanings of migration and residency. However, the 2001 Greek census figure of 443,550 Albanians tends to confirm previous estimates which were generally in the range 450,000 to 500,000, since the census will probably have missed some Albanians present in Greece (King, 2003).

4. Challenges and barriers of migrants

Migrants from Albania, with a diverse language and cultural background, from the very beginning have faced obstacles to gaining host community acceptance, which limited their ability to participate, contribute and settle in Greece. Some of the barriers faced are related with language, negative stereotypes, discriminatory attitudes, negative and stereotypical reporting by media, which have led directly to the access to employment, education, health and housing.

Living in these new realities, to adapt to these cultures developed or consolidated civilization, as the case of Greece, adaptation it has been undoubtedly necessary; to know the culture, language, habits, to become part of the fast development, competitive and dynamic modern life there. In this respects, Albanians have demonstrated extraordinary vitality, power and energy as a result of long suppression during 45 years of dictatorship, but also as a reflection of the fact that it is a young population with 60% of population under 30 years (Pango, 2013).

With the exception of immigrants from Greek minority of Southern Albania, all other immigrants did not have knowledge of Greek language. This used to be a serious disadvantage in terms of matching the professional skills and experience of them with the available jobs openings. Lack of language courses for immigrants have created the missed opportunities to benefit from high professional qualifications.

The socio-cultural adaptation of emigrants is a matter of cultural differences and their daily contacts.

"New migrants sufficiently motivated to move forward appear aggressive for success at work and in school. They preserve ethnic identity, but also develop strong ties of solidarity and of social groups. In the other side, we must not forget that during the process of adaptation, there is assimilation, but also marginalization. Although many of Albanian migrants with university education, they have worked in common with hosting communities and other migrants without proper education¹.

This is the impression of new comers, as for the rest of the new generation – the children of these families – the life become more interesting. The adaptation of migrants is highly depended on their age. Adaptation of migrants in a very small age is easier, comparing adults, which have their roots on memories, habits, relationships, emotions and everything else is more vivid at present. A typical case for the aforementioned claims is of the family *Sinani* from Kukes, which emigrated to Greece at early 1993.

We have emigrated to Greece on March 1993, following the path of other Albanians and our relatives. By that time, we had two children, our daughter 11 years old and the little son 4 years old. The adoption of our daughter to Greece life was really difficult, while for the boy was easier. After we decided to come back in Albania, we have faced more difficulties than when we went in Greece. Children are feeling foreign and have no affections, or connection. For us as parents, we it is easier, since we have relative and memoires here, and we were employed and stabilized. Children are looking forward to go back while we never think about this².

For the majority of migrants who arrived in the early 1990, these experiences were unexpected, while for the others arriving later these became normal norms. Many migrants believed these barriers had arisen as a result of a lack of understanding within host communities about the intended outcomes of immigration policies and the mutual benefits for all Greek population. Observation of real social practices shows that Albanian migrants are adapted and integrated in the hosting communities, and have played a key role in the social economical life.

Additionally, migrants are put in difficult situations when faced with the border experience, which include stories of maltreatment, death, rape and destruction of identification documents. Below is a case faced by a migrant crossing the Greek border;

"...crossing the border was the worst experience, full of fear not only from the Greek military, but also from Albanian gangs, that waited to rape or rob migrant people. I was going back for the third time to Greece illegally to work with a friend of mine, and just we crossed the border we faced a band that took us everything we had.³"

Another important issue not mentioned yet is related to the migrants without documents. The majority of migrants were illegal and without proper documents, to work, thus for this reason, most of them have find employment in the informal economy. Despite the missing data regarding undocumented migration, labouris founded in the sectors of construction, agriculture, hotels, restaurants and domestic work. Reports regarding undocumented migrants, assess the undocumented migrant workforce as complementary to the formal economy, but others have notes that settled migrants could be competing with undocumented, as the later are willing to accept more precarious working conditions due to language difficulties, nationality, non recognition of their qualification and general experience of discrimination.

Access to services for illegal migrants, such as health and education has been very difficult from the beginning. The situation has changed over the years, and nowadays children have the right for education and health services. In 1998, an amnesty bill was passed by Greek parliament which intended to regulate illegal migrants in Greece and migration policy in general. This bill intended to regulate illegal migrants that were already living in Greece by application of 'white card' and 'green card'. During 2001, a new migration policy named as Law 2910, "Entry and residence of aliens on Greek territory" was the most important law passed in the Greek parliament regarding regularization of migrants, because for the first time migrants could get citizenship (Castles, 2006).

¹ Interview with Sh. Gashi, 7 February 2014. He has worked and lived with his family in Larissa, Greece for 13 years.

² Interview with S.H. 13 February 2014.

³ Interview with Lulzim, on 12 February 2014, returned migrant from Greece.

5. Economic impact and social transformation of immigrants in Greece

Contemporary trends to global economic and political integration lead to processes of social transformation in all types of society. Social transformation drives emigration from poorer countries, but it is also a process that affects richer countries, shaping the conditions for immigration and incorporation (Castles, 2007). There is a reciprocal effect in economy and social life, based on the intercommunion of migrants and hosting population. Understanding migration as an integral part of social transformation is not possible to be covered in this paper; however, there are evidences and interviews that claim the importance of these relationships.

According the report on Immigration to Greece the immigration flow to Greece after 1990 has been really huge. According this report, 57% of all immigrants come from Albania. Most of the immigrants were male while their average age was approximately 34 years. It is largely accepted that immigrants have had a great contribution to the Gross Domestic Product of Greece, with a net contribution up to 1.5% of GDP (Lianos, 2004).

An important issue with regard to the presence of immigrants in Greece, is the extent to which they causes unemployment of native workers, although it is difficult to prove that immigration has affected in a positive or negative way the level of unemployment of native workers. However there is a common belief that immigration has caused unemployment in disqualified and semi-qualified section of the labour market.

A substantial proportion of incomes earned by immigrants are remitted to their families. In the case of Albania, the development of this country has been highly depended on remittances from Albanians working abroad, playing a great role in its economy. Remittances sent from Albanian emigrants to their origin households have reached record levels: the Bank of Albania reports that Albanian emigrants' remittances have reached \$1,028 million in 2004, which is twice the size of the foreign exchange revenues from export and about 13.7 per cent of official GDP (Castaldo and Reilly, 2007). Recent studies assert that most of the remittances are mainly spent on basic consumption, such as food and consumption or on building and improving housing (Cerruti, 2000).

Regarding Social impacts, one of most evident difficulties remains their integration in the Greek society. The majority of studies analyze the conditions of social exclusion, arguing that the source of this phenomenon is the nationalistic. Immigrants are seen in many cases as the cheap manpower, as well as people whose "inferior" cultural origin necessitates the assistance of more privileged societies (Lianos, 2004). Immigrants' activities and behavior haven't corresponded to the norms of the mainstream society, since Greeks perceive themselves as a cultural homogeneous group, identifying "others" with no potential for creative action and changes. An important issue related the economic impact of immigration is related with the welfare services and other social benefits that immigrants consume. Based on the observation and findings during this study, it is true that seasonal migrants have not benefited from social welfare, while residential emigrants have benefited after three or four years of their settlement. However, concerning the amount of social support received, it is concluded by that immigrants have used less social benefits than natives

Stephen Castles has argued for a social transformation approach to migration. It is simply not plausible to take migration in isolation as though it were not impacted by globalization and development, social and political struggles. For Castles, social transformation would be conscious of the complexity of social relation, interdisciplinary and comparative, always set in the broader context and historically grounded (Castles, 2000). In this perspective, I would rather bring in the attention the social transformation approach to trade unions, allowing us to view them as social movements. Although immigrants unions are not very well organized, they promote social movements, as a part of community, household, gender and cultural relations. Being able to organize different event, they can be seen as potential citizens and bearers of individual rights that can articulate collective grievances.

Among a variety of public portrayals, news representations play a significant role in the way people, culture and social life are represented in the public eye. News coverage is a means for all social groups to make their voice heard and communicate their agendas. Van Dijk, (1991) argued that immigrants were mainly represented in the print media in association with crime, violence, social welfare and problematic immigration, claiming that it is through newspapers that elites may affect what ordinary people think, therefore giving racist views popular currency.

6. Albanians returning from Greek migration

Recently there is a big attention regarding migrants returning from Greece, because of economic crisis they are facing. Their re-integration and broader sustainability has become an important issue last few years. As was previously seen, many of Albanian migrants in Greece have traditionally been temporary in nature of seasonal migration (Azzarru & Carletto, 2009). According recent studies, the returning of immigrants from Greece, particularly of those settled with families and for a long time, has started after the social-economical crises and political situation in Greece.

Many of these returned emigrants, after a long period of working and living in Greece with their family had decided to continue their life in Greece, because their children have started their education there and their language is better than Albanian, while there are also a category of migrants that had planned from the beginning their return to Albania, thus their integration in the Greek society has been very difficult. Some of the reasons found during the interviews with returned migrants are described as below:

Because of unemployment; problems of integration; poverty and others to start a business; or a few of them who are return after having satisfied their initial ambitions such as saving enough money to buy a home.

Living for a long time abroad, and especially for the new generation, young people who are educated in Greek, the Albanian society and sometimes even the Albanian language is unfamiliar to those young people. Being not prepared to return and having high problems to reintegrate in a country without experience, it has become a social problem for their families and for the community as well. A teacher from the primary school in Kukes, explains the difficulties of integrating a pupil returned from Greek.

"...In my class I have a girl who is eight years old returned from Greece and she speaks not very well Albanian. For me it is very hard to work with this category of pupils, as we are not used to work in the past. They need separated time, and the environment also seems to be very different with what this child is used to have in Greece. There is a lot of difficulty for her and for us both in the integration"¹.

There are other cases of returned migrants, such as of young people, who have studied in Greece. This category, believes that it is easier to penetrate to Albanian labour market than abroad, thinking that the labour market have more opportunities, especially in undeveloped areas. In this regard, many questions could be raised. What happens to a return migrant when they face the new reality? According to media in Albania, there are cases where returned people have become depressed, stressed or frustrated, because of big changes faced either by their children or by adults too. Professor Ylli Pango, explains this phenomenon as the case of their reasons for motivation; relationship between that is earned abroad and what is lost regarding cultural identity, individual personality and the ability to accept the reality (Pango, 2013). Regarding the fact what the migrant gained or lost is related with well-being in general in one side and social relations and contacts in the other side.

"...Economically I was very well, but something else was missing in my life. My relatives, friends and all my life are strongly connected with Albania. Although I was well adapted in Greek society, my mind was to come back in Albania"².

The fact of getting the attention within their friendship circle is likely the main reason for Albanians, particularly for those who migrated in an adult age, to return back. Nostalgia for oriental customs, such as chin or gossip, are typical for most of the people and migrants seems to miss them a lot. In most of the cases, returning back home from the emigration is as difficult as the time when they migrate abroad. Many of returned migrants are still living with their savings, which can produce a real social problem, while there are other cases that they have started new businesses. Their contribution to Albanian economy has been very significant, thus they deserve to be well treated in order to be re-integrated very well in the society.

¹A.D. Teacher of primary school, interviewed on 13 February 2014, Kukes.

²Interview with Gezim, 15 February 2014. He is 45 years old, and he is a musician.

7. Benefits from exchanging skills and attitude, brain circulation

Migrants coming from poorer countries are likely the source of their country development, because money remittances ensure a potential source of the investment. Another important discussion identified by different scholars recently is related with the idea of replacing 'brain drain' with brain circulation. Many migrants from countries in development, like Albania, are enhancing their skills through migration and after some years they are coming back home with more skills.

During the transition period 1991 – 2013, the tendency of migration to Greece has involved in the most cased migration of low level of education, while the migration of education people has been oriented mostly towards Canada or USA. The trend of migration by low educated people to Greece is because of the short distance, traveling without documents and the job market, where most of Albanian migrants are employed in construction, industry, agriculture and farming.

Although the level of education, it appears that both countries, Albanian and Greece have benefited from exchanging skills and attitude. Regarding the hosting country, migration provides a large pool of skilled labour, benefiting especially from the availability of skilled workers without the associated cost of worker training and education. Greek businesses, farming and agricultural families or cooperatives have benefited cheap labour force, getting a very positive impact on their outcomes, while Albania has benefited not only the remittances to its economy, but also brain circulation will be an asset for the development.

Another important element that needs to be mention is the new generation. As aforementioned in this study, many of migrants have already established their families in Greece and it is likely that their children born in Greece will not move back to Albania, since their homeland, unlike from their parants, is not Albania but Greece. In this case Greece is benefiting from the new population.

Arben, a householder migrant in Greece states that his children born in Greece don't like the idea of coming back in Albania. They are born in Greece and educated in these schools, speaking mostly Greek, while Albanian is spoken only at home. Their childhood and memoires will remain of Greek environment.

This case illustrates far better the benefits of the new age, which has derived from the immigration.

The phenomenon of migration has produced also some costs for hosting communities as well for the sending ones. Sending communities have lost their human capital; deterioration of local economy as a result of migration of skilled labour; break up of many families, where many of them are divorced, or in some other cases elder people are living alone. The last concern is often faced on the southern part of Albania, where many villages are with empty housed and only some elder people live there. Another concern for sending countries is related with economic costs. The sending country loses the income tax revenue that they would have received if the workers had stayed in their country. However, this could be justified with the remittances.

Regarding the brain circulation, the discussion has changed in recent years, seeing the migration not only as a brain drain, but more as a brain circulation. Analysts such as Solimano (Solimano, 2006) note that "the emigration of talent can also have a positive effect for the source countries as well in terms of remittance flows, mobilization of fresh capital, accumulated by emigrants when they return home, exposure to new technologies and managerial techniques and contacts abroad...". In the case of Albania, the success of emigrants is not only the remittances, but also the brain circulation, through the results of economic learning and bringing back to Albania. There are many cases and examples of returned migrants from Greece that have started different businesses, based on their previous experience and background they have practiced in Greece. Being in these conditions, the sending country, in this case Albania government has to prepare the social and legal infrastructure for the integration of the returned emigrants with a proper attention to those educated people that aim to invest in the country.

8. Conclusion

Based on our observation and findings, and other studies regarding migration and development, it is obvious that migration has played a big role within the social order, bounding societies with high cultural differences and beliefs. Despite the problems of integration, or other difficulties that migrants face either in hosting communities or sending ones, it is clearly accepted to state that migration still affects very much social changes, bringing social transformation and development for both societies, hosting and sending ones. It is clear that different immigrant groups - depending on their number in a

country – perform very differently in the social life, but in this case where Albanian migrants are the largest number in Greece, it is obvious their impact on the social cohesion. This refers to how migration has affected the hosting communities, their neighbourhoods where they are settled and local policies.

The social transformation is achieved through exchanging skills and attitude, brain circulation from which benefits both countries. The benefits from returned migrants have been underestimated and largely neglected by Albanian authorities and institutions, since the national and local authorities are moving very slowly in seeking ways to use the potential benefits from returned migrants. Most of the studies and reports have been focused on remittances rather than the human capital of returned migrants. Their impact in the economy is also through the transfer of knowledge, market information and sharing best experiences. Returned emigrants should not be seen as a problem for the economy, as it is mostly argued regarding the lost of remittances or if they can affect the rate of unemployment. What they bring back is not only their money and experience, but they bring most the social transformation.

What is it very important about migration and especially for the returned emigrants, it is related with the promotion of programs dealing with brain circulation and preventing the remittance dependence. In order to bring desired social changes, Albanian government should not only prepare appropriated policies and reforms, but it is important to foster the community about the social impact of returned migrants and their re-integration on the society. Social integration of migrants requires active participation and commitment in the communities where they live. Our observation explores that highly skilled migrants are returning in Albania with more human, social and financial capital and will play an important role on establishing businesses. Others who are not able to establish a business will bring a high impact on work environment of smaller companies, as they are experienced in a developed country.

References

- Azzarru, C. & Carletto, C. (2009). Modelling migration dynamics in Albania: a hazard function approach. *Journal of Southeast European and Black Sea Studies*, vol 9 , 407-434.
- Bajraba, K. (2000). Contemporary Patterns in Albanian Migration. *South-East Europe Review*, 3(2), 57-64.
- Baldwin-Eduards, M. (1998). *The Greek Regularization: a Comparative Analysis with the Spanish, Portuguese and Italian Experiences*. University of Reading, UK.
- Castles, S. (2007). 'Twenty-first century migration as a challenge to sociology'. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies* 33 , 98-124.
- Castles, S. (2006). The factors that make and unmake migration policies. *International Migration Review*, 852-884.
- Castles, S. (2000). Understanding global migration: A social transformation perspective. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies* 36(10), 1565-1586.
- Castaldo, A., Reilly, B. (2007). How do migrant remittances affect the expenditure patterns of Albanian Household. *Journal of Economics* 1, 25-54
- Cerrutti, M. (2000). *Remittances of Paraguayan Migrants to Argentina: Prevalence, Amount, and Utilization*. Centro de Estudios de Población, CENEP, Argentina.
- Gerber, Lupia, McCubbins, & Kiewiet. (2001). *Stealing the Initiative; How state Government respond to direct Democracy*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- INSTAT. (2002). *Instituti i Statistikave*. Retrieved February 5, 2014, from National Institute of Statistics: [Online] at <http://www.instat.gov.al/al/themes/popullsia.aspx?tab=tabs-5>

-
- King, R. (2003). Across the Sea and Over the Mountains: Documenting Albanian Migration. *Scottish Geographical Journal*, 119 (3) , 283-309.
- Lazaridis, G and Wickens, E. (1999). Us and others. Ethnic minorities in Greece. *Annals of Tourism Research* 26(3) , 632-655.
- Lianos, T. P. (2004). Report on Immigration to Greece. Pilot Study. Athens: Athens University of Economics and Business.
- Lipton, M. (1980). Migration from the rural areas of poor countries: The impact on rural productivity and income distribution. *World Development*, Vol. 8No.1 , 1-24.
- Martin, Ph & S., Pastore, F. (2002). International Migration "Best Practice Option: Albania". *International Migration* , pp. 103-118.
- Pango, Y. (2013). Ylli Pango. Retrieved February 5, 2014, [Online] at <http://www.yllipango.com/news/emigracioni-dhe-transformimet-sociale-qytetaret-shqiptare-jashte/>
- Pittau, F., Forti, O. (2004). Italia, paese di immigrazione: tra flussi regolari e irregolari. *Studi Emigrazione*, 153 , 157-168.
- Rubenstein, H. (1992). Migration, development and remittances in rural Mexico. *International Migration*, Vol.30, No.2, , 127-153.
- Sen, A. (1999). *Development as Freedom*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Solimano, A. (2006). The International Mobility of Talents and its Impact on global Development: An Overview. *CEPAL - SERIE macroeconomia del desarrollo no.52* , 22-38.
- Taylor, E. (1999). The New Economics of Labour Migration and the role of remittances in the migration process. *International Migration*, Vol 37. No.1 , 63-88.
- Van Dijk, T.A. (1991). *Racism and the Press*, London: Routledge.

When Teachers Become Parents: Parenthood Influence on Greek Teachers' Professional Lives

Konstantina Koutrouba

PhD, Associate Professor, Harokopio University, Athens, Greece

Eirini Kalantzaki

MSc, High School Teacher, Athens, Greece

Ioannis Christopoulos

PhD, High School Teacher, Arsakeia-Tositseia Schools, Athens, Greece

Abstract

The present study examines 30 Greek teachers' views about changes that took place after they became parents regarding teaching and learning, communication and cooperation with students and parents, and attitudes towards teacher profession. The data were collected through semi-structured face to face in-depth interviews, based on 25 close- and open-ended questions, and classified into categories using content analysis. The research indicates, inter alia, that parenthood had a major impact on teachers' empathy, on attitudes towards low-achievers, and on the implemented teaching procedures per se. It also shows that teachers who became parents tend to improve their communication with their students' parents, to be more tolerant of criticism, and to be more patient and supportive as regards students' academic and socio-affective achievements. Regarding at-home planning and preparation, and physical, mental and emotional fatigue of teachers during parenthood, the present study reveals developing burning-out symptoms, which are, however, counterbalanced by strong feelings of rewarding love and acceptance displayed by their students. It finally shows that parenthood does not subjugate the professional aspirations of vivid, ambitious teachers, although female teachers who became parents are expected to face more obstacles than their male colleagues during their professional and family life, especially if they hold a position in school administration, lack the provision of at-home help or have family children who display learning or other physical disabilities or misbehavior problems.

Keywords: teachers; parenthood; changes; education; Greece

Introduction

Extensive research over the past years has convincingly shown that parenthood has a major impact on professional life. since, after becoming parents, both men and women have to redefine their values, re-hierarchize their priorities and develop personal traits and features that facilitate effectiveness in both roles, the professional and the parenting one (Drago, 2001; Frone, 2003; Hudson et al., 2001). Although, however, such changes are expected to happen whenever professionals become parents, their extent, depth and impact, and the experiences they produce are difficult to be monitored, controlled or managed, since they depend on a great variety of factors regarding the personality and the life of the parent such as the gender, the system of pre-existed beliefs, values expectations, and aspirations, his/her physical, mental, emotional, and social abilities and dexterities, the social and financial setting, the support s/he gets from others, the demands of his/her profession and so on (Bailey, 2000; Cosford & Draper, 2002; MacLure, 1993).

The difficulty of so many factors' effective management by professionals who became parents is further aggravated when professional and parental demands are conflicting (MacDonald, 1994; O'Connor, 2008), for example when the same person is expected to be strict and over demanding at work but pliant and consenting at home. From this point of view, the teacher profession seems to be privileged, given the fact that, prima facie, the same person is expected to deal with children at

work and at home, to develop in the course of time unified personality traits that are equally effective in job and in family (Stoeber & Rennert, 2008; Zembylas, 2003), to organize personal and professional life in a compact, unaltered way and in the form of harmoniously communicating vessels, or, in other words, to conveniently develop only one role practised in two different places, at school and at home (Parker et al., 2012; Rice, 2003).

Such oversimplified misleading expectations and misconceptions could probably provide reasons for the lack of extensive research on the field of parenthood influences on teachers' professional lives. The existing, however, research clearly reveals teachers' effort to achieve balance between professional, family and personal life, not always with successful outcomes (Day et al., 2007; MacDonald, 1994); sometimes imbalance derives from the excessive demands and expectations that parent teachers have from themselves and the social environment they live in (Edwards et al., 2002; O'Connor, 2008), in other cases the professional knowledge accumulated from work seems to be ineffectively applied in the family setting, and, conversely, the experience deriving from in-family life cannot be easily utilised at school since students' expectations and needs are shaped in different social and financial settings, or the students seem to have completely different cognitive, affective and social abilities than teacher's family children (Gannerud, 2001; Wentzel, 2002). In many cases, however, teachers perceive such differences as interesting challenges which prevent professional stagnation and possible burning-out, and enrich daily life with motivating or mind-provoking experiences (Eren, 2015; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

In addition, parenthood seems to have an apparent impact on the organization of parent teachers' daily tasks and time. Inevitably, after becoming parents, teachers have to consider whether their family children are of the same, of lower or of higher importance than their students – a dilemma also common to almost all other occupations where professionals have to prioritize their family or/and their work (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Marston et al., 2006). It has been reported (Cinamon & Rich, 2002) that parent teachers who are young or does not have long professional experience tend to consider job and family as being of the same importance, while the perception of family's priority grows and strengthens as parent teachers age or obtain long and consolidated educational experiences (Farkas et al., 2000; Klassen & Chiu, 2010). In every case, however, parent teachers are expected to spend a lot of care, time and energy in their children's raising at the expense of personal leisure time, self-education (an oxymoron for professional educators), or even professional aspirations (Drago, 2001). As a consequence, the risk of professional burn-out remain high in parent teachers, especially when physical and emotional fatigue is further aggravated due to feelings of inadequacy and guilt since usually they have to spend more time with other people's children than with their own ones (Knowles et al., 2009). It has been also shown that for female parent teachers, parenthood constitutes an important obstacle when women want to make a career in the administration of education, given the fact that, due to consolidated social stereotypes, women were considered more suitable as mothers to raise and as teachers to teach children but men were expected to administer the schools or make demanding careers (Sikes, 1997; Stoel & Thant, 2002). It is rather obvious that such stereotypes highly contribute to the development of remorseful feelings of inadequacy when women have to come up to personal, family, professional and social expectations at the same time (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

The complexity and the multiplicity of factors that influence the double roles of parent teachers can apparently explain why so far there is no enough evidence from relevant research about more specific issues regarding changes in the teaching process per se, or changes in teacher attitudes towards their students' academic, affective, and social achievements (McFarlin, 2007; Sikes, 1998). Moreover, we do not have yet extensive findings regarding changes that teachers reported after they became parents regarding their attitudes towards their students' parents.

As regards Greece, relevant research findings about changes in teachers' behaviour, attitudes, professional beliefs due to parenthood are similarly poor. Greek educational system remains highly conservative, despite minor reforms that introduced several teaching innovations in Greek in-class reality (Georgiadis, 2007; Koutsourakis, 2007; Traianou, 2009). Such innovations regarding mainly experiential learning activities in primary education, and cooperative and project-based learning procedures in secondary education, seem to be welcome by Greek teachers, parents and students as well, but only on the condition that the core academic, cognitive objectives of the teaching procedure are not underestimated or downgraded (Koulaidis et al., 2006; OECD, 2015). In-depth changes as regards students' socio-emotional development rarely happen, since the educational system disseminates long-established traditional knowledge, beliefs and values through well-accepted teacher-centred techniques which are considered to help students more easily and quickly perform measurable, credible academic achievements (Kassotakis, 2000; Koutrouba, 2012). At the same time, the bureaucratic character of Greek education, through the domination of quantity over quality of the provided learning material, the rapid

pace of knowledge dissemination and the strict assessment procedures discourage teachers who would like to diversify, to experiment or innovate freely their teaching techniques (Eurydice, 2015; OECD, 2011). In such learning settings, many Greek teachers' prime objective is to evolve their students' academic performance, often neglecting, this way, in their classrooms students who present learning disabilities, need individualised assistance or are, simply, academically low-achievers (Ifanti & Fotopoulou, 2011; Koutrouba & Christopoulos, 2015).

The present study aims at examining Greek teachers' views about changes that took place after they became parents regarding teaching and learning, communication and cooperation with students and parents, and attitudes towards teacher profession.

Methodology

Participants

Of the 30 teachers who participated in the research, 70 percent were women, while 30 percent were men. Fifty percent of the participants were elementary education teachers (with students 7-12 years old), 20% were junior high school teachers (with students 13-15 years old) while 30% were upper high school teachers (with students 16-18 years old). The working experience of the majority of them (53.3%) ranged from 21 to 35 years, while 20% of the reviewees held a position in school administration. Moreover, the overwhelming majority (60%) of the participants did not possess any postgraduate degree in Education. Finally, the majority of the participants (46.7%) had two children, (43.3%) had one child, 6.7% had three, and 3.3% of the reviewees had four or more children.

Data Collection and Analysis

The present study was conducted in Athens, Greece, in 2015. A qualitative approach was selected as the most suitable method to carry out the present research. A qualitative approach allows researchers to "get in participants' position" and see the world through their eyes without being misled to arbitrary conclusions (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Mason, 2002; Silverman, 1998). Specifically, the *semi-structured* interview was used to collect all the data of the present study. According to Oppenheim (1992) interview is the most popular and widespread way to collect qualitative data. One of the reasons for the suitability of interview as a method for data collection is that allows an in-depth interpretation of the data as the interviewees get more involved in comparison to other methods of data collection and more willing to share pieces of information. Semi-structured interviews may contain a series of specific and predefined questions, but at the same time they offer a lot more flexibility on the organization of the questions, on possible modifications if necessary or on adding or skipping any questions depending on each different interview. A guide of twenty-five (25) predefined questions was created for the purpose of the present study. All interview questions were based on research questions. Of the 25 questions, 9 required teachers to provide information about personal and family profile and professional background, 10 were closed-ended questions, organized in a five-point Likert-like scale on which Greek teachers-parents were asked a set of questions and had to choose the level of their agreement between 1 (i.e. I don't agree at all) and 5 (I absolutely agree), and 6 questions were open-ended questions. Open-ended questions were asked first in the interview so that interviewees to be spontaneous in their answers about the effects of parenthood on them. Close-ended questions followed right after and aimed to get more detailed answers and information from teachers-parents about parenthood. The combined use of both open- and close-ended questions in a qualitative approach of a study is quite new. Close-ended questions after open-ended ones help researchers contrast the data that come up from both kinds. As a result, they are able to crosscheck before analyzing in depth the collected information (Cohen et al., 2007). The interviews were conducted face to face, and each one of them lasted typically 30 minutes though plenty of time was given to interviewees to freely express their thoughts during intersubjective conversation. Reviewees voluntarily consented to participate in the research without any reward and with the anonymity of their identities protected with the use of aliases in the entire procedure.

All the data that came up after the completion of the interviews were transcribed and then analyzed using *content analysis* (Weber, 1990). According to the procedure, an analysis unit has to be chosen before coding the data. The unit of analysis in the present study was the *theme* (Cohen et al., 2007). It was considered as the most suitable because the present study aimed to investigate the views and opinions as depicted on transcriptions. Next followed the coding of qualitative data. These codes had been pre-decided and are useful for the researcher to find out how many times each one of them come up on transcriptions. Organization of categories came as the next steps. These categories were not designed in advance

but they were formed through the themes that came up after coding. Finally, as regards close-ended questions' quantitative data, elaboration and statistical analysis were performed using Predictive Analytics Software [PASW] Statistics 21.

Results

The reviewees were asked to report whether the experience they accumulated from parenthood made them more experienced as professionals. The majority of them reported interesting changes regarding mainly their ability to empathetically understand and very often to precisely foresee students' cognitive and affective reactions, and different, varied and changeable patterns of behaviour. They also reported that, after becoming parents, they more easily separate pedagogic theory from reality, loosen their demands and reduce excessive academic expectations, homework assignments, criticism and reprimands. Interesting changes have also been reported regarding teaching techniques and teacher attitudes towards their students' learning effort. The majority of the participants reported that, after becoming parents, they tend to be more supportive of low-achievers, to more promptly adapt teaching to the individualized needs of the students, and to provide more extensive and simplified definitions of complicated scientific terms, notions, facts and phenomena. In many cases they noticed that they encouraged more easily students' cooperation, they were more willing to enhance teaching procedures with experiential activities, and they became more careful during the scaffolding and linking of prior knowledge to new information.

On the other hand, a significant percentage of the participants reported a negative impact of experience from parenthood on professional experience and vice versa. These teacher reported that the sensitivity and compassion they developed due to parenthood made them more yielding, compromising and pliant, letting their students take advantage of it, while, in other cases, personal experiences deriving from family children upbringing misled teachers to misunderstand their students' reactions, potentials, needs or expectations. And, vice versa, extreme or negative experiences from the classroom (mainly regarding students' health problems and disabilities, low achievements, and misbehaviour) triggered teachers' feelings of fear and insecurity as regards family children's upraising.

As regards changes in teacher behaviour during the communication and cooperation with their students' parents, the majority of the participants reported an outstanding shift in their understanding of parents' expectations, limitations and, also, affective vulnerability. More specifically, most teachers, after becoming parents, tend to justify more easily parental interventions in school life and, even, teaching procedures, while, in some cases, they are more tolerant of criticism, even in cases where their students' parents make unreasonable demands upon their children's teachers. Moreover, these participants reported a determined effort to provide parents with integrated and accurate, albeit mildly and discreetly expressed information about their children's academic achievements and cognitive performance and, also, about their affective profile and social behaviour, feeling this way that they help parents make appropriate interventions to improve their child's self-confidence and learning effectiveness. In addition, these teachers tend to make more constructive suggestions, to display more easily empathy and, also to reveal to their students' parent their personal relevant experiences, in order to relief parents' inmost though discernible feelings of guilt, remorse or inadequacy.

Regarding at-home planning and preparation of next day's school procedure, notable changes have been reported. For the majority of the participants a daily load of work was transferred from home to school, so that evening tasks focus more on family children's needs and housekeeping without decreasing the quality of professional performance. However, such an effort is reported to significantly reduce leisure time, especially in cases where teachers' children are very young and supportive help for their raising is not provided by spouses, grandparents or professional personnel. The majority of the participants, however, reported that their accumulated teaching experience, before they became parents, or the already-constructed perception of professional self-adequacy counterbalanced to some extent numerous impediments or setbacks in time-managing, work-planning, and life-adapting during parenthood. Conversely, for younger, inexperienced or unsupported teachers, parenthood had a negative impact on their feelings of professional effectiveness despite the effort they made to develop personal 'survival' strategies.

Regardless, however, participants' ability to 'survive' after parenthood, a majority of them report strong feelings of physical fatigue due to the intensification of working demands in modern school settings and given the fact that for a conscientious parent-teacher the duties at school and at home are considered as duties of two 'full-time jobs'. For a smaller, however, percentage of teachers, their active involvement in daily in-class teaching procedures, and the refreshing contact with the vividness and the cheerfulness of students, provides them with a constructive, almost psychotherapeutic, outlet from family concerns and personal difficulties. When teachers were asked more specifically to report whether they feel able to

'disconnect' their personal problems concerning children-raising from their in-class performance and mood during communication with their students, the majority of them reported that they try to leave personal concerns out of the classrooms, although this seems quite difficult especially when serious family problems overwhelm their mind. These teachers also reported that as professionals they feel like actors performing on a stage where the role character dominates over the personality of the actor and sweeps aside all obstacles in the benefit of a good theatrical performance. A noteworthy, however, percentage of the participants described students as highly sensitive perceivers of their teacher's mood and such attempted 'disconnections' as only temporary and strongly dependent on the severity and the duration of the teacher's personal problem, on his/her sensitivity and sentimentality, and on his/her physical and emotional strength, all being factors not easily realized or controlled by the teacher him-/herself.

Concerning the professional ambitions of teachers who became parents, interesting views and attitudes were reported. For the majority of the participants professional aspirations did not change radically, although most of the teachers were obliged to rethink and readapt their plans for professional advancement. Teachers, irrespective of their gender, who before becoming parents were devoted to postgraduate studies or further education, or participated zealously in the carrying-out of school programmes, social and educational activities, or were actively involved in administration procedures displayed little change after they became parents. Moreover, in some cases, they expressed their intimate fear that professional stagnation could make them worse teachers and parents as well, since their students and their family children would bear their teacher's and parent's feelings of disappointment, routine and inertia. It is, also, interesting that for only one single-parent participant, the birth of her child triggered a non-existing to that time will for professional advancement so that her child could have a professionally successful and 'socially recognized mother'. On the other hand, a significant number of teachers reported hard dilemmas concerning professional advancement during the period of their children-raising; They had to give priority to their children and leave personal plans for professional advancement and integration for the future.

Despite, however, the resistance of aspiring teachers, regardless their gender, against family burdens for the benefit of professional advancement, a majority of both men and women tend to believe that a female teacher, compared to a male one, due to social prejudice, stereotypes, consolidated beliefs, and insufficient institutional protection of and concern for motherhood, will have to overcome many more obstacles to get a promotion or to retain successfully her position in school administration. Relevant difficulties are expected to grow further especially in cases where her family children present learning or behaviour difficulties, demanding thus her devotion to her family, or in cases where no help is provided by her spouse or other family members.

Finally, the reviewees were asked to report whether, after becoming parents, they would reconsider their decision to become teachers. Surprisingly, not even one of them would change his/her profession or would retire earlier. The majority of the participants reported that their profession provides them with remarkable benefits that facilitate parenthood such as long vacations coincided with their family children vacations, reasonable working hours, and knowledge about children's upbringing and support. A great also percentage of the respondents would not change teaching profession since, as already mentioned, acquaintance with the youth actually 'transfuses' life, optimism, and positivity to the teachers who 'seem to age in a slower way'. Finally, for the rest of the participants, the teaching profession is directly rewarding and reciprocal when compared to children upbringing, namely students tend to reciprocate their teacher's love and attention in a more direct and spontaneous way than family children do. For these participants the positive influence of the teacher on the affective reactions of the students can be visible in less than a year of student-teacher communication (providing thus immediately the teacher with feelings of satisfaction, fulfillment, and reward), while the impact of the parent on his/her family children is deeper, broader and discernible only in the long-run.

Conclusions and Discussion

The present study, contributing to the limited literature, examined Greek teachers' views about changes that took place after they became parents regarding teaching and learning, communication and cooperation with students and parents, and attitudes towards teacher profession.

The results revealed, first of all, that for the majority of the participants the parental role triggers a series of changes in their professional identities, though not always to a positive direction. Teachers who experienced parenthood report a developing professional interest in the academic attainments of their low-achieving students and a more decisive provision of personalized assistance to students who very often stay marginalized during the teaching/learning process (Saiti & Mitosili, 2005). Their willingness to enhance students' daily learning routine with cooperative, experiential activities that obviously

provide greater numbers of students with stimuli for participatory active learning (Cohen et al., 2004; Cornelius-White, 2007) probably indicates that teachers, after becoming parents, tend more clearly to help their students achieve, through the learning procedure, not only cognitive but also affective and social objectives as well (Arnon & Reichel, 2007; Matsumura & Pascal, 2003; Sharan, 2010). In addition, regarding students' academic performance, teachers seem to try more consciously to reduce academic load and facilitate assimilation of newly-provided knowledge by both low- and high-achievers (Ferreira & Bosworth, 2001; Sharan, 2015). To realize the importance of this shift in the taxonomy of educational objectives of a teacher, one must take into account that the Greek educational system is highly inflexible and conservative and the teaching procedure rarely deviates from teacher-centred frontal lecturing, while very often traditional Greek teachers tend to be sceptical about innovative teaching strategies where the academic achievements are vague or mixed with socio-affective attainments, or are not clearly defined and easily assessed (Alahiotis & Karatzia, 2006; Ifanti & Fotopoulou, 2011; Koutrouba & Christopoulos, 2015). In such an educational framework the changes reported and attributed to parenthood seem to constitute an important positive step.

Similar changes are reported as regards almost all levels of teachers' communication with students' parents. The results of the present study indicate that teachers who became parents tend more easily to put themselves in their students' parents' shoes (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Poulou & Matsagouras, 2007). The participants reported that before parenthood they mainly focused, during communication with students' parents, on students' learning performance, while, after becoming parents, the scope of communication broadened and deepened to incorporate exchange of information about many different aspects of students' personalities (Epstein, 2001). Growing empathy, discretion, tactfulness, and supportiveness can also be seen in teachers' effort to provide parents with advice about their children and, also, in their willingness to share common experiences in order to reduce the phenomenon of parents' negative self-criticism (Mylonakou & Kekes, 2007; Tett, 2001).

However, what sounds positive for many participants, seems to be negative for others. More specifically, some interviewees described themselves as more vulnerable due to parenthood, not only because they feel that they lost the profile of the distant, almost impersonal, authoritative-style educator, but also because they tend to use, in an unsuccessful way, experiences from their family children to interpret, understand and address their students' behaviours, learning traits and demands, and vice versa (Edwards et al., 2002; Tsouloupas et al., 2010). These teachers describe, in fact, a feeling of wavering of their professional self-confidence, determination, and authority, which probably derives from over-developed unbalanced empathy that hinders the constructive elaboration and merging of in-school and at-home experiences (Day et al., 2007).

Considering the positive and negative changes above mentioned, one should keep in mind that parenthood does not happen in a social or financial vacuum (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). On the one hand it seems reasonable for teachers who became parents to understand more easily how parents feel, what they need, how many restrictions they face regarding their expectations, how many failures and disappointments they have experienced, how tired they are, how vulnerable they are as regards their children. At the same time, it is easier for them to 'see' in their students' faces their own children, and thus to loosen their demands, to pass over incidents of misbehaviour, to support students' various weaknesses (Devine et al., 2013; Hargreaves, 2000). The results of the present research also showed that for the majority of the teachers their effort to address effectively the increasing professional demands during parenthood forces them to develop flexible, alternative 'self-survival' strategies (regarding effective management of time, of physical strength, of mental and emotional stimuli and experiences, and of student and family children needs and demands) (Sutton et al., 2009) that in the long-run make them better (though not less tired) professionals and parents as well (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006; Stoel & Thant, 2002). On the other hand, however, in social settings where parenthood is, to a great extent, institutionally and financially unsupported and, at the same time, the teacher remains unassisted as regards professional development education, planning and guiding, the risk of a negative impact of parenthood on teacher professional performance and behaviour seems to be quite big and understandable. The fear of professional failure can be rather easily seen in some reviewees' comments that reveal feelings of disappointment and burning-out symptoms which are further aggravated when the teachers face serious family problems (Bennetts, 2003; Greany & Rodd, 2003). The opportune effective intervention of education and social advisory and supporting services would probably create a safe professional framework wherein teachers would learn to manage effectively and take full advantage of their double roles (Connelly & Ghodsee, 2011; Evans & Grant, 2009). Nonetheless, if a significant help has to be provided to parent teachers who seem to 'lose their way', major changes have to be made regarding the redefinition of the in-family roles of the spouses, the provision of social assistance

to single-parent families, the decent financial rewarding of the teacher profession, the scientific support of the families who have children with disabilities and so on (Parker et al., 2012; Poulou & Norwich, 2000; Weiqi, 2007).

The results of the present study also reveal that for the majority of the participants, parenthood did not hinder substantially their professional aspirations or, at least, did not change the attitude they had towards professional advancement before they became parents (Eren, 2015; Klassen & Chiu, 2010). On the contrary, in some cases, it seems that parenthood strengthened teachers' willingness to face professional challenges, although mild feelings of 'remorse' can be detected in the interviews of parents who felt obliged to explain that they did not set back their professional ambitions after parenthood because such a passive stance would make them unhappy and "a child would not be happy having an unhappy parent". It is also interesting, though not incomprehensible, the fact that both male and female reviewees believe that it is more difficult for women to retain a balance between professional advancement and family duties (Acker, 1992; Casey, 1990; Cinamon & Rich, 2005). It seems, in fact, to be a plain description of Greek social reality, where women seemingly have the same professional rights and opportunities as their male colleagues do, although, in practice, the double role of being a parent and a professional at the same time hinders women more than men (Hewlett, 2002; Mason & Mason-Ekman, 2007) due to the obstructive combination of existing social stereotypes and the lack of institutional support to motherhood (insufficient number of public nursery schools and kindergartens, insufficient children and parent health care, low family allowances, insufficient teacher salary and so on) (Hargreaves, 1994; Johnston et al., 1999).

Despite the abovementioned difficulties, all the Greek teachers who participated in the present study reported that parenthood did not change their will to be teachers. In Greece teachers enjoy long vacations (at least in comparison to other occupations and professions), flexible or manageable working hours, and still, to a great extent, social respect and acceptance by a society that highly estimates education and learning (Ifanti & Fotopoulou, 2011), not only due to the long historical devotion of Greeks to knowledge but, also, because of the contribution of education to the social advancement of the students, and to their professional and financial survival within the highly competitive and demanding job market of the Greek developing economy (Cairns et al., 2001; Koutrouba, 2012; Vouyoukas, 2007). The participants in the study, also, seem, at least in some cases, to turn difficulties into advantages. They report that students' livelihood keeps teachers young, distracting them from daily family concerns. And, vice versa, family concerns make teachers resisting against usual at-school problems (Farkas et al., 2000). Such an optimistic view of parental and professional reality is undoubtedly welcome. It implies, however, that for parent teachers who face hardly manageable family problems or work in less productive or rewarding school environments, social support to the family and professional assistance from the administration of the school remains necessary if we want the teacher to feel professionally satisfied and, at the same time, parentally integrated (Dimakos, 2006).

The present research had some apparent restrictions which are linked to the lack of prior extensive relevant research and literature. Focused completely on teachers who became parents does not reveal whether the changes reported by the interviewees exclusively derive from parenthood and not from other factors such as the professional experience that is accumulated in the course of time (Bransford et al., 2000; Stoel & Thant, 2002), given the fact that family children-raising temporally coincides with the professional experience acquirement at school. A comparative survey on similar changes reported by non-parents could possibly enhance and expand the findings of the present study. In any case, parenthood must not be considered as an exclusive factor that produces the relevant changes, since, something like that would lead us to the misleading, arbitrary and unacceptable conclusion that teachers who are parents are more effective professionals than non-parents. Moreover, the present research records what the participants believe or feel to be a change after they became parents. It does not record if this change is real, actual, and, above all, discernible either by the students or by the family children. A wide-range research on the beliefs of the parent-teacher, the family children, and his/her students and their parents would probably reveal if the teacher really changes as a professional due to parenthood or if s/he simply feels that s/he changes although no measurable, traceable change can be detected by the people who live or work with him/her (Rice, 2003). Finally, the limited number of the participants, their varied personalities with the different values, professional objectives and potentials, their different family and social or financial status, their different working places provide us with findings that can significantly change when the participants change.

Despite, however, these restrictions, the present research could help us examine how parenthood influences teachers' professional lives, and, vice versa, how the teacher profession strengthens or, on the contrary, weakens the traditional parental roles. In any case, it is rather obvious that the parental and professional roles are not contradictory, as long as they remain equalized, balanced, and widely supported by both the family and the school environment of the parent-teacher.

References

- Acker, S. (1992). Special series on girls and women in education. Creating careers: Women teachers at work. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 22(2), 141-163.
- Alahiotis, S., & Karatzia, E. (2006). Effective curriculum policy and cross-curricularity: Analysis of the new curriculum design of the Hellenic Pedagogical Institute. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, 14(2), 119-147.
- Anron, S., & Reichel, N. (2007). Who is the ideal teacher? Am I? Similarity and difference in perception of students of education regarding the qualities of a good teacher and of their own qualities as teachers. *Teachers and Teaching*, 13(5), 441-464.
- Bailey, L. (2000). Bridging home and work in the transition to motherhood: A discursive study. *European Journal of Women's Studies*, 7(1), 53-70.
- Bennetts, C. (2003). The impact of transformational learning on individuals, families and communities. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 22(5), 457-480.
- Bogdan, R.C., & Biklen, S.K. (1992). *Qualitative research methods for education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bransford, J.D., Brown, A.L., & Cocking, R.R. (2000). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.
- Cairns, J., Lawton, D., & Gardner, R. (Eds.) (2001). *Values, culture and education*. London: Kogan Page.
- Casey, K. (1990). Teacher as mother: Curriculum theorizing in the life histories of contemporary women teachers. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 20(3), 301-320.
- Christenson, S.L., & Sheridan, S.M. (2001). *Schools and families: Creating essential connections for learning*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Cinamon, R.G., & Rich, Y. (2002). Gender differences in the importance of work and family roles: Implications for work-family conflict. *Sex Roles*, 11-12(47), 531-541.
- Cinamon, R.G., & Rich, Y. (2005). Work-family conflict among female teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(4), 365-378.
- Cohen, E.G., Brody, C., & Sapon-Shevin, M. (Eds.) (2004). *Teaching cooperative learning: The challenge for teacher education*. Albany, NY: Suny Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Connelly, R., & Ghodsee, K. (2011). *Professor mommy: Finding work-family balance in Academia*. Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- Cornelius-White, J. (2007). Learner-centered teacher-student relationships are effective: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 113-143.
- Cosford, B., & Draper, J. (2002). 'It's almost like a secondment': Parenting as professional development for teachers. *Teacher Development*, 6(3), 347-362.
- Day, C., Sammons, P., Stobart, G., Kington, A., & Gu, Q. (2007). *Teachers matter: Connecting lives, work and effectiveness*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Devine, D., Fahie, D., & McGillicuddy, D. (2013). What is 'good' teaching? Teacher beliefs and practices about their teaching. *Irish Educational Studies*, 32(1), 83-108.
- Dimakos, C.I. (2006). The attitudes of Greek teachers and trainee teachers toward the development of school psychological and counselling services. *School Psychology International*, 27(4), 415-425.
- Drago, R. (2001). Time on the job and time with their kids: Cultures of teaching and parenthood in the US. *Feminist Economics*, 7(3), 1-31.

- Edwards, J.L., Green, K.E., & Lyons, C.A. (2002). Personal empowerment, efficacy, and environmental characteristics. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 40(1), 67-86.
- Epstein, J.L. (2001). *School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Eren, A. (2015). 'Not only satisfied and responsible, but also hopeful': Prospective teachers' career choice satisfaction, hope, and personal responsibility. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 45(2), 149-166.
- Eurydice (2015). *The structure of the European education systems 2014/15: Schematic diagrams*. Eurydice: European Commission, EACEA. Available online: <https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/images/0/05/192EN.pdf> [Accessed: 1-6-2016]
- Evans, E., & Grant, C. (2009). *Mama PhD: Women write about motherhood and academic life*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Farkas, S., Johnson, J., & Foleno, T. (2000). *A sense of calling: Who teaches and why*. New York: Public Agenda.
- Ferreira, M.M., & Bosworth, K. (2001). Defining caring teachers: Adolescents' perspective. *Journal of Classroom Interaction* 36(1), 24-30.
- Frone, M.F. (2003). Work-family balance. In J.C. Quick, & L.E. Tetrick (Eds.). *Handbook of occupational health psychology* (pp. 143-162). Washington: APA.
- Gannerud, E. (2001). A gender perspective on the work and lives of women primary school teachers. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 45(1), 55-70.
- Georgiadis, M.N. (2007). Educational reforms in Greece (1959-1997) and human capital theory. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, 5(2), 342-368.
- Greany, T., & Rodd, J. (2003). *Creating a learning to learn school: Research and practice for raising standards, motivation and morale*. London: Campaign for Learning.
- Hargreaves, A. (1994). *Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers' work and culture in the postmodern age*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Hargreaves, A. (2000). Mixed emotions: Teachers' perceptions of their interactions with students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16(8), 811-826.
- Hewlett, S.A. (2002). *Creating a life: Professional women and the quest for children*. New York: Talk Miramax Books.
- Hudson, D.B., Elek, S.M., & Fleck, M.O. (2001). First-time mothers' and fathers' transition to parenthood: Infant care self-efficacy, parenting satisfaction, and infant sex. *Issues in Comprehensive Pediatric Nursing*, 24(1), 31-43.
- Ifanti, A., & Fotopoulou, V. (2011). Teachers' perceptions of professionalism and professional development: A case study in Greece. *World Journal of Education*, 1(1), 40-51.
- Johnston, J., McKeown, E., & McEwen, A. (1999). Choosing primary teaching as a career: The perspectives of males and females in training. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, 25(1), 55-64.
- Kassotakis, M. (2000). Greece. In C. Brock and W. Tulasiewicz (Eds.), *Education in a single Europe*, (pp. 184-205). 2nd ed. London: Routledge.
- Klassen, R.M., & Chiu, M.M. (2010). Effects on teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction: Teacher gender, years of experience, and job stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102(3), 741-756.
- Knowles, M., Nieuwenhuis, J., & Smit, B. (2009). A narrative analysis of educators' lived experiences of motherhood and teaching. *South African Journal of Education*, 29(3), 333-344.
- Koulaidis, V., Dimopoulos, K., Tsatsaroni, A., & Katsis, A. (2006). Young people relationship to education: The case of Greek youth. *Educational Studies*, 32(4), 343-359.

- Koutrouba, K. (2012). A profile of the effective teacher: Greek secondary education teachers' perceptions. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(3), 359-374.
- Koutrouba, K., & Christopoulos, I. (2015). Cooperative learning effectiveness in the bureaucratic school: Views of Greek secondary education teachers. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 12(2), 64-88.
- Koutsourakis, G. (2007). The new educational policy for the reform of the curriculum and the change of school knowledge in the case of Greek compulsory education. *International Studies of Sociology of Education*, 17(1-2), 131-146.
- Kyriacou, C., & Coulthard, M. (2000). Undergraduates' views of teaching as a career choice. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, 26(2), 117-126.
- MacDonald, J.B. (1994). *Teaching and parenting: Effects of the dual role*. Lanham: University Press of America.
- MacLure, M. (1993). Arguing for your self: Identity as an organising principle in teachers' jobs and lives. *British Educational Research Journal*, 19(4), 311-322.
- Marston, S., Courtney, V., & Brunetti, G. (2006). The voices of experienced elementary teachers: Their insights about the profession. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 33(2), 111-131.
- Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching*. 2nd ed. London: Sage.
- Mason, M.A., & Mason-Ekman, E. (2007). *Mothers on the fast track. How a new generation can balance family and careers*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Matsumura, L.C., & Pascal, J. (2003). *Teachers' assignments and student work: Opening a window on classroom practice*. Los Angeles: National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing, University of California at Los Angeles.
- McFarlin, I. (2007). Do school teacher parents make a difference? *Economics of Education Review*, 26(5), 615-628.
- Mylonakou, I., & Kekes, I. (2007). School-family relations: Greek parents' perceptions of parental involvement. *International Journal about Parents in Education*, 1, 73-82.
- O'Connor, K.E. (2008). "You choose to care": Teachers, emotions and professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(1), 117-126.
- OECD (2015). *Education policy outlook: Making reforms happen*. OECD Publishing. Available online: <http://www.oecd.org/publications/education-policy-outlook-2015-9789264225442-en.htm> [Accessed: 1-6-2016]
- OECD [Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development] (2011). *Education policy advice for Greece. Strong performers and successful reformers in education*. OECD Publishing. Available online: <http://www.oecd.org/greece/48407731.pdf> [Accessed: 1-6-2016]
- Opdenakker, M.C., & Van Damme, J. (2006). Teacher characteristics and teaching styles as effectiveness enhancing factors of classroom practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(1), 1-21.
- Oppenheim, A.N. (1992). *Questionnaire design, interviewing and attitude measurement*. London: Pinter Publishers.
- Parker, P.D., Martin, A.J., Colmar, S., & Liem, G.A. (2012). Teachers' workplace well-being: Exploring a process model of goal orientation, coping behavior, engagement, and burnout. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(4), 503-513.
- Poulou, M., & Matsagouras, E. (2007). School-family relations: Greek parents' perceptions of parental involvement. *International Journal about Parents in Education*, 1, 83-89.
- Poulou, M., & Norwich, B. (2000). Teachers' perceptions of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties: Severity and prevalence. *European Journal of Special Educational Needs Education*, 15(2), 171-187.
- Rice, J.K. (2003). *Teacher quality: Understanding the effectiveness of teacher attributes*. Washington, DC: National Economic Policy Institute.

- Saiti, A., & Mitosili, E. (2005). Parental perception of the education of their adolescent children: Evidence from Greek secondary education. *Journal of Career and Technical Education*, 22(1), 9-30.
- Schaufeli, W.B., & Bakker, A.B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(3), 293-315.
- Sharan, Y. (2010). Cooperative learning for academic and social gains: Valued pedagogy, problematic practice. *European Journal of Education*, 45(2), 300-313.
- Sharan, Y. (2015). Meaningful learning in the cooperative classroom. *Education 3-13: International Journal of Primary, Elementary and Early Years Education*, 43(1), 83-94.
- Sikes, P. (1998). Parent teachers: Reconciling the roles. *Teacher Development*, 2(1), 87-105.
- Sikes, P. (1997). *Parents who teach: Stories from home and from school*. London: Casell.
- Silverman, D. (1998). Qualitative research: meanings or practices? *Information Systems Journal*, 8(1), 3-20.
- Skaalvik, E.M., & Skaalvik, S. (2011). Teacher job satisfaction and motivation to leave the teaching profession: Relations with school context, feeling of belonging, and emotional exhaustion. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(6), 1029-1038.
- Stoeber, J., & Rennert, D. (2008). Perfectionism in school teachers: Relations with stress appraisals, coping styles, and burnout. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping. An International Journal*, 21(1), 37-53.
- Stoel, C.F., & Thant, T.S. (2002). *Teachers' professional lives: A view from nine industrialized countries*. Washington, DC: Milken Family Foundation and the Council for Basic Education.
- Sutton, E.E., Mudrey-Camino, R., & Knight, C.C. (2009). Teachers' emotion regulation and classroom management. *Theory into Practice*, 48(2), 130-137.
- Tett, L. (2001). Parents as problems or parents as people? Parental involvement programmes, schools and adult educators. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 20(3), 188-198.
- Traianou, A. (2009). The uncertain character of recent educational reform in Greece. *Forum*, 51(2), 131-142.
- Tsouloupas, C.N., Carson, R.L., Matthews, R., Grawitch, M.J., & Barber, L.K. (2010). Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehaviour and emotional exhaustion: The importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 30(2), 173-189.
- Vouyoukas, A.C. (2007). An analysis of equality, legislation, attitudes and values in education: The case of Greece. *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies*, 12(2), 115-134.
- Weber, R.P. (1990). *Basic content analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Weiqi, C. (2007). The structure of secondary school teacher job satisfaction and its relationship with attrition and work enthusiasm. *Chinese Education and Society*, 40(5), 17-31.
- Wentzel, K.R. (2002). Are effective teachers like good parents? Teaching styles and student adjustment in early adolescence. *Child Development*, 73(1), 287-301.
- Zembylas, M. (2003). Interrogating 'teacher identity': Emotion, resistance, and self-formation. *Educational Theory*, 53(1), 107-127.

Small Steps, Giant Leaps: Project-based Learning in a Conservative Educational System. Greek Students' Views

Konstantina Koutrouba

PhD, Associate Professor, Harokopio University, Athens, Greece

Lydia-Eleni Alexaki

MSc, High School Teacher, Harokopio University, Athens, Greece

Abstract

The present questionnaire-based study examines 170 Greek upper secondary public and private education students' perceptions about the factors that facilitate or undermine project-based learning within the framework of the highly conservative Greek educational system, about the cognitive, affective and social skills they developed during the carrying-out of project procedures, and about the levels of satisfaction they experienced during their cooperation with their supervising teachers. According to the results, project-based learning is more effectively implemented in private schools due to infrastructure provided, due to effective coordination of well-defined and pre-planned activities, and due to higher levels of teachers' professional commitment and students' learning objectives and expectations. The research also shows that project-based learning, even when embedded in and restricted by traditional educational environments, is considered to produce higher academic attainments for low-achievers, and to facilitate the development of high-ranked cognitive and social skills through students' involvement in real-life situations, and active participation in problem-solving and decision-making procedures. It also indicates that for the majority of the participants the role of the supervising teacher is crucial since s/he defines the rules of communication, the techniques and the stages of the project carrying-out, and the assessment procedures. It finally shows that Greek students, despite apparent satisfaction experienced due to their participation in project procedures, remain skeptical as regards traditional teachers' ability to assess reliably group performance, to provide effectively individualized assistance to low-performing group members, and to encourage high-achievers who have never before worked in unfamiliar learning situations.

Keywords: project-based learning, secondary education, students' views, Greece.

Introduction

Extensive research over the past years has persuasively shown that if education is expected to have a major positive impact on the development of integrated personalities, a huge shift regarding not only the definition and the content of knowledge per se but also the scientific strategies for the dissemination of knowledge in everyday school life should be considered as necessary (Bransford et al., 2000; Cairns et al., 2001; Cornelius-White, 2007; Corner, 2012; Littky & Grabelle, 2004). For decades, traditional education around the world, despite modern theoretical progress, has been focused on the achievement of high-quality academic attainments and, subsequently, on the development of high-ranked cognitive skills by the students who are educated to become, after school, successful professionals in a society where knowledge seems to be the most beneficiary, the utmost social value (Greany & Rodd, 2003; Mayer & Alexander, 2011; OECD, 2015). School life has been heavily constructed and steadily consolidated around this fundamental orientation of traditional education systems in a way that educational policy-makers, teachers, and students as well, all being conveyors of the same traditional educational and social values, seem to feel safer when the content of the transmitted knowledge (not the knowledge as a whole, but only domains and sub-domains of widely appreciated and long accepted or tested knowledge) remains unaltered for long time, when the methods of dissemination are compactly defined and reliably implementable, when students' behaviours, attitudes, skills, and achievements are easily monitored, guided, and assessed (Ryan & Cooper, 2007; Sharan, 2010; Slavin, 2014; Van Ryzin & Newell, 2009).

These restrictions, however, lately have started to get loosen. New trends in educational research have confirmed that even the accomplishment of academic objectives is further facilitated when teachers and students are willing and supported to work more systematically on the development of affective and social skills which are now highly considered to contribute to the formation of a more integrated, balanced, mature personality (Paulson, 2011; Pearce & Doh, 2005; Ravitz, 2010). Scientifically designed cross-thematic approaches of the so-far traditionally disseminated content seem to enrich more and more the daily life of students around the world, while cooperative learning procedures are more often used to promote, inter alia, students' sociability, cooperativeness, and persistence, accountability and willingness, resourcefulness and creativity, empathy and tolerance/understanding, and feelings of self-esteem, adequacy, usefulness, and acceptance (Kaldi et al., 2009; Mergendoller et al., 2007; Nadler et al., 2003; Strobel et al., 2008). In addition, the contemporary principles of experiential learning seem to gradually impel teachers to seek for discernible and usable links between what they up to now theoretically taught and what their students experience, need, are attracted from in their daily real life, reasonably believing that knowledge is more valuable when it is useful, meaningful and justifies its importance by itself (Gillies & Ashman, 2003; Gillies et al., 2008; Hedberg, 2009; Johnson & Johnson, 2003; Kagan & Kagan, 2009).

In educational settings that evolve towards such directions, project-based learning activities (PBLAs) are widely considered to address in a very effective way the demands for innovations in daily school life (Davis, 2013; Dochy et al., 2003; Frame, 2002; Geier et al., 2008). PBLAs cover a wide range of educational activities regarding every school subject and almost all aspects of human activity and communication, e.g., environmental issues, cultural and social life (civilization, arts, human relations, individual or ethnic or other group identities), multidimensional aspects and problems of everyday life (health, science, research, history, technology, communication) and so on (Cohen, et al., 2004; Gillies, 2007; Gray & Larson, 2008; Kaldi et al., 2011). Despite PBLAs' almost borderless scope of interest, all of them are considered to contribute to the display of high-ranked cognitive, meta-cognitive, emotional, and social skills, to capture students' interest, and excite their imagination, initiative, and creativity in a framework where students are co-educated as members of larger groups and receive, at the same time, individualised support and assistance in order to effectively meet personal, group and social requirements (Newell, 2003; Polman, 2000; Railsback, 2002). Therefore, PBLAs seem to constitute very promising alternative choices for teachers who want to experiment with fresh practices, to challenge their own professional limitations in order to expand their students' potential (Roper & Phillips, 2007). However, such challenges seem to be quite risky, especially for teachers who deeply wish to safeguard their professional authority, who prefer well-known teaching routines and measurable (in terms of numerical marks and grades) assessments of students' achievements and performances. PBLAs are based mainly on student-centred inquiry-orientated non-frontal cooperative procedures where teacher's role remains supportive or guiding but not controlling or authoritative. PBLAs require a highly-demanding level of scheduling, preparing, anticipating, and assisting (Hmelo-Silver et al., 2013; Sharan, 2015; Smith et al., 2008). Teachers who implement PBLAs in their classrooms are expected to provide students with multileveled wide information about many different, intriguing subjects (which are supposed to be attractive for students with different interests, skills, potential, needs, and expectation), to acquaint them with research methods, to establish functional rules of cooperation and effective communication, to intervene appeasingly before conflicts break out, to provide individual support to low-achievers or reluctant students, to sooth high-achievers' aspirations, to coordinate the work of members who 'walk' in their own pace, to assess, finally, individual contributions *and* collective outcomes in a fair, valid, balanced way (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Stoeber & Rennert, 2008; Volkema, 2010; Wurdinger & Enloe, 2011).

All these requirements seem to make PBLAs challenging and, at the same time, risky. Traditional, conventional educational systems, like Greece's, seem to be reluctant to incorporate in official Curricula teaching and learning practices that may undermine the controlling role of the teacher and the well-known method of teacher-centred frontal lecturing (Saiti, 2007; Traianou, 2009; Vouyoukas, 2007). The content of knowledge has remained unchanged for decades, the academic orientations of all school procedures dominate over the social and affective objectives of education, while the teachers who would like to experiment, to try new approaches to knowledge in their classrooms are rather discouraged, due to the restrictions of Curricula which define in detail what, when, in what pace, and how a teacher, especially in secondary education, has to teach every day of the school year (Koutrouba et al., 2012; Koutselini, 2008).

Since 2011-2012, however, some significant changes have been made in Greek education, incorporating PBLAs in the weekly Syllabus as a separate, autonomous school subject, which resulted in outcomes not yet fully examined, described or assessed (Matsagouras, 2011; Taratori-Tsakatidou, 2007; Traianou, 2009). To clearly realize how difficult and important is for students who grow and are educated within a strictly traditional and unbending educational system to compare, collect, elaborate, assimilate, assess, and utilise fruitfully experiences deriving from completely unknown learning procedures, as

PBLAs are, one must keep in mind that for PBLAs in Greece only 2 school hours (i.e. 90 minutes) out of a total of 35 hours weekly are provided in the first year and 1 school hour (i.e. 45 minutes) weekly is provided in the second year of the Upper High School, while for the rest of the traditionally accessed (namely, through teacher-centred frontal lecturing) school subjects 33 (i.e. 1485 minutes) and 34 (i.e. 1530 minutes) school hours weekly are provided respectively in the first and the second year of the Upper High School in Greece (Greek Government Gazette, 2013). It should also be added that in the final, third year of the Upper High School such activities are not provided for in the Syllabus and the relevant Curricula. Therefore, it should not be an exaggeration to speak of an educational system where traditionalism and conventionality create a suffocating learning environment where PBLAs seem like 'injections' infusing refreshing, innovative, breath-taking experiences.

The present study aims at examining Greek Upper High School students' experiences from and views about the project-based learning activities they participated in, two years after such activities were officially introduced in the Greek secondary education system, in order to find out whether such activities could be fruitful even when developed within the frame of bureaucratic, conservative educational systems.

Methodology

The present research was conducted during the academic year 2014-2015 and was based on a distribution of 200 questionnaires addressed to a corresponding number of high school students in Athens. The researchers visited 10 Upper High Schools (with students 16-18 years old) and distributed the questionnaires after making personal contact with school principals and teachers with the permission of the Greek Ministry of Education. The researchers were present in the classrooms during the completion of the questionnaires in order to provide the students with all relevant information which was necessary to explain the objectives of the research, and to ensure comprehensibility of the questions and of the completion process. These schools were selected on the basis of criteria regarding teacher and student population in order to ensure that as students as possible had already been involved in PBLA. More specifically, in all the selected schools the ratio of teachers to students and the ratio of teachers to schools exceeded the national ratios of 1:8.5 and 21.1:1 respectively (Eurydice, 2015; OECD, 2011). As a result, a large number of respondents were ascertained to have experience in PBLA and mainly on issues regarding society, environment, culture, and science.

The questionnaire comprised 22 close-ended questions with pre-coded replies: 3 of which required students to provide information about personal and academic profile (gender, school and class, academic performance of the current year), while 19 special questions and their pre-coded replies referred to students' perceptions about and attitudes towards PBLA.

The questionnaire was self-administered because it was not possible to identify an instrument from the literature that allowed researchers to capture all the variables involved in this study. For this reason, the synthesis of the questionnaire was mainly based on the research findings of Cantwell and Andrews (2002), Cohen, Brody, and Sapon-Shevin (2004), Davis (2013), Gillies (2007), Hmelo-Silver, Chinn, Chan, and O'Donnell (2013), Kagan and Kagan (2009), Kaldi, Philippatou, and Onoufriou (2009), and Sharan (2010).

The scoring of the special questions was based on nominal five-point Likert-type scales (1=not at all, 2= slightly, 3=moderately, 4=much, 5=very much), incorporating properties of labelling and classification.

One hundred and seventy (170) questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 85 per cent. A statistical coding of questions and answers followed the collection of the questionnaires. Data elaboration and statistical analysis was performed using Predictive Analytics Software [PASW] Statistics 21. Spearman's *rho* correlations were performed with ranked scores, in order to reveal associations between students' perceptions about PBLAs' usefulness and students' experiences from their active involvement in the carrying-out of PBLAs. In an attempt to assess whether the type of school, the behaviour and the objectives of the teacher, the content of the PBLA and the expectations of the students may be good predictors of students' positive attitudes towards PBLAs, regression analysis was conducted on students' satisfaction from their participation in PBLAs and on views of the importance of PBLAs as the outcome measure, with the explanatory variables assessing students' experiences from their involvement in PBLAs. A broad outline of the more significant results and conclusions of the present research is presented below.

Analysis of results

Participants' profile

Of the 170 students who participated in the research, 55.3 percent were girls, while 44.7 percent were boys. The 33.5 percent of the participants were students in the first class of Upper High School (i.e., aged 16 years old), while the rest 66.5 percent were students in the second class of Upper High School (i.e., aged 17 years old). The 75.3 percent of the respondents were students in public schools, while 24.7 percent were students in private schools. Regarding participants' academic performance, 46.5 percent had an 'excellent academic performance' (i.e. grades ranging from 91 to 100), 40 percent had a 'very good academic performance' (i.e. grades ranging from 76 to 90), 11.2 percent had a 'good academic performance' (i.e. grades ranging from 61 to 75) while the rest 2.3 percent had a 'moderate academic performance' (i.e. grades ranging from 50 to 60).

Special Questions

The participants were asked to provide information about teacher and students' roles, attitudes and behaviours during PBLA which are not usually discernible during the traditional teaching/learning procedures. The majority of the respondents reported that they 'much' to 'very much' participated actively, after extended in-class consideration and student-to-student interaction, in the selection of the PBLA, which was included in a list of activities proposed by the teacher who, in most cases, displayed evident interest in presenting a broad outline of the content of each proposed PBLA. For the majority of the respondents the subjects proposed were 'much' to 'very much' interesting, intriguing or mind-provoking, though 'moderately' to 'much' connected to real-life situations while, in many cases, the accomplishment of the subject proposed seemed to demand interdisciplinary or cross-curricular thematic approaches not easily perceived and understood by the students.

The majority, also, of the participants noted their teacher's effort to present not only the academic and socio-affective objectives of the activity that had to be carried out but also the methods and strategies that were required for the accomplishment of the project. The respondents reported that 'much' to 'very much' the expected academic outcomes and stages and steps of each activity were clearly-defined, while the social and affective objectives, though well-described and explained by the teacher, were 'moderately' to 'much' perceived as regards comprehensibility, unambiguousness and their potential applicability and effectiveness. Finally, the majority of the respondents reported that the precise time for the completion of each stage of the PBLA was 'much' to 'very much' defined by the members of the group who carried out the activity, while the deadline for the completion of the entire work was defined by the teacher.

In addition, the participants reported that their teachers 'much' to 'very much' provided them in advance with detailed information about the rules of teacher-to student and student-to-student communication, behaviour and cooperation and paid great attention to students' conscious commitment to these rules. According to students' reports, most teachers paid great concern so that these rules were clearly defined, coherently hierarchized, and widely accepted, while, for the majority of the respondents, it was obvious that these rules were as important as the content of the PBLA itself. Moreover, the participants reported that their teachers focused 'much' to 'very much' on providing in advance information on how cooperation problems, misunderstandings or conflicts should be addressed and on how communication between the members should be effective, meaningful and fruitful. Finally, ample information was reported to have been provided regarding criteria, methods and practices for the assessment of individualised and group performance and outcomes, especially in cases where students were unfamiliar with such evaluation procedures.

As regards students' display of initiative and personal engagement in PBLA, the majority of the participants reported a 'much' to 'very much' positive experience. Students were prompted to take creative initiatives and responsibilities and to behave maturely during all learning processes of the PBLA. The majority of the students were asked to form the groups without teacher's apparent intervention, although the teachers were reported to play a major role in duties allocation in the group as a whole. The assignment of tasks, however, in each member of the group was made, for the majority of the participants, through interactive student-to-student cooperation and with discreet intervention of the teacher, while a lot of time was spent so that personal interests, potential and expected contributions of each member to the overall outcome would be clearly defined and recorded.

For the majority of the respondents the role of the teacher remained crucial during the entire progress of the PBLA. The teachers 'much' to 'very much' monitored the working process of each group as a whole and of each group member, and provided individualized support. In addition, 'much' to 'very much' s/he intervened more determinatively in cases of group malfunction to promote shared responsibility, to encourage reluctant students, to settle differences or disputes, and to smooth out hindrances, although such interventions were reported to 'slightly' to 'moderately' be effective when problems had to do with interpersonal relationships and 'much' to 'very much' when they had to do with academic, content-related issues.

The participants were also asked to report whether their involvement in project-based learning procedures facilitated the development of cognitive, affective and social skills which are considered to be underdeveloped when the teaching/learning process is carried out through the traditional teacher-centred frontal dissemination of knowledge. For the majority of the respondents, their participation in project-based learning activities (PBLA) provided them with the opportunity to access knowledge in a more integrated and coherent way, and work more responsibly and methodically with the learning material per se, using in a more 'professional' way computers, networks, databases, electronic libraries and sources of information, social media, electronic applications and so on. For a great, also, majority of the respondents PBLA facilitated reflective thinking and encouraged them to develop and express more critical or discerning views towards information sources and data that were vague, insufficient, contradicting, false, or unconvincingly substantiated. In addition, for the majority of the respondents, this process helped them not only express their ideas unambiguously and consistently and correct misperceptions but also improve writing skills and, in many cases, strengthen verbal and non-verbal interaction with their schoolmates. The developing ability to elaborate complicated data in a more seminal way is also reported by the majority of the participants to have further strengthened their feelings of confidence, self-esteem, adequacy and efficiency, regarding similarly low- and high-achievers as well.

Moreover, participants were asked to provide information about the contribution of PBLA to the development of skills of cooperation during interpersonal communication. The majority of them reported that 'much' to 'very much' they strengthened already existing bonds of friendship and cooperativeness with their classmates and, in many cases, they developed friendly emotions for and meaningful relations with more distant classfellows, especially in cases where the members of the groups had been selected randomly. The majority of the respondents also reported that during PBLA process they were encouraged to understand and express intimate feelings which further strengthened bonds of friendship. On the contrary, for almost the one third of the respondents, their participation in PBLA 'slightly' to 'not at all' facilitated the development of communicative skills, while in some cases pre-existing friendly relationships seemed to weaken or deteriorate due to emerging collaboration and communication difficulties during the carrying-out of the project. In addition, the majority of the respondents reported that interpersonal student-to-student (and, in some cases, teacher-to-student) conflicts, loafing, and unequal contributions to the overall effort undermined 'much' to 'very much' the performance of group, having a major negative impact on the quality of the final outcome.

As regards PBLA assessment procedures, the majority of the respondents described them as vague and stressful. Most students reported that 'much' to 'very much' they developed a vague perception of how individualized and group performance will be balanced, described and assessed, of how different contributions to a commonly designed and carried-out learning outcome will fairly, reliably, objectively evaluated. The majority of the participants reported that they 'much' to 'very much' would feel more secure if each student worked and, therefore, was assessed autonomously and the final work was just a compilation of individual contributions. The majority also of the participants reported that during the process of the PBLA the more competent members seemed to control the weaker ones while, in many cases, the low-achievers seemed to take advantage of the high-achievers, especially in cases where the groups had been formed after the intervention of the teacher and not on the basis of students free will and consent. A majority also of the participants described the public presentation of his/her individual contribution to the final product as a 'much' to 'very much' stressful procedure which significantly reduced the positive feelings of pleasure and satisfaction that were supposed to derive from the participation in such an innovative learning process. For these students, the insufficient contribution of the other members had a negative impact on their individual performance, while in many cases the time provided for the accomplishment of each phase of the work or for the completion of the entire work was highly insufficient, especially in cases where the product of each member was highly dependent on the responsibility, reliability and efficiency of other members. For almost the one third of the participants the final overall outcome was 'slightly' to 'not at all' representative of the individual contribution and performance of each member who had to be evaluated and assessed, given the fact that responsibility was 'slightly' to 'not at all' shared, groups were not formed on the basis of members' academic performance

and achievements, but with the criterion of friendly relations which poorly contributed to a product of high academic quality, and commitment, determination, assiduity, diligence, cooperativeness, adaptedness, and flexibility of each member should not have been taken for granted.

Spearman's *rho* correlations performed with ranked scores showed significant positive associations between most variables regarding students' perceptions about PBLAs' usefulness and variables regarding students' experiences from their active involvement in the carrying-out of PBLAs. In addition, regression analysis showed, *inter alia*, that high levels of reported constructive communication with teachers and fellow-students, careful preparation and presentation of the PBLA, linking to real-life experiences, and promotion of the socio-affective objectives of the PBLA contribute significantly to the prediction firstly of positive students' views regarding the importance and usefulness of PBLAs and, secondly, of satisfaction deriving from the participation in such activities. More specifically, the present study revealed significant positive associations between the type of school (public or private) where the survey took place and the degree of students' satisfaction regarding teachers' professional attitudes and behaviours during the PBLA. Private schools' students were more satisfied from the guiding role of their teachers, considering them as well-prepared, experienced and highly supportive. In addition, the more supportive the teachers were, the more active students' participation in all phases of the PBLA was, while students who were provided with clear, comprehensible, explicit instructions about why, what and how they have to do, tended to be much more satisfied and effective than others who received insufficient information about the objectives, the techniques, the rules, and the expected outcomes of the PBLA. Moreover, students who presented remarkable academic improvement during the PBLA tended to believe that the skills they developed (not only the academic, but also the affective and social ones) would be highly necessary and utilizable in real-life situations, while the more ITs were used the more interesting the activity was considered and the more active the students' participation was. Furthermore, PBLAs which drove students to find solutions in real-life problems and make decisions regarding complicated situations were considered as more useful and contributing to the development of high-ranked cognitive, affective and social skills, while, for the majority of the participants, the more pleasant and friendly the atmosphere was during the PBLA, the more fruitful and meaningful the outcome of and the experience from the entire process were.

Conclusions and Discussion

The present study examined Greek Upper High School students' experiences from and views about the project-based learning activities they participated in, two years after such activities were officially introduced in the highly conservative and inflexible Greek secondary education system, in order to find out whether such activities could be fruitful even when developed within the frame of bureaucratic, conservative educational systems.

The results reveal that, for the majority of the respondents, learning through multileveled active participation in well-designed mind-provoking projects which, firstly, require the development and display of high-ranked cognitive and socioemotional skills, secondly, are carried out through cooperative problem-solving and decision-making procedures and, thirdly, are expected to be linked to real-life situations produces strong positive experiences. Greek students are unfamiliar with and significantly disrupts consolidated educational routines, bringing about a noteworthy shift in traditional teaching/learning values, attitudes and behaviours (Cantwell & Andrews, 2002; Cohen et al., 2004; Cornelius-White, 2007).

The present study shows that PBLAs, even in 'small quantities', had a significant impact on students' learning effort. The majority of the respondents participated actively and motivated by personal interest in these procedures, considering them as being challenging, stimulating and thought-provoking (Tan et al., 2006; Taratori-Tsakatidou, 2007; Vitto, 2003). Of course, students may consider many traditional school subjects as being interesting, especially if they attain high academic achievements in these subjects. Given the fact that in the traditional settings of the Greek educational system, all school subjects are accessed and presented in almost the same way, students do not have the opportunity to intervene actively in the learning process (Georgiadis, 2007; Ifanti, 2007). They are not allowed to select the content of the knowledge they are provided with, they are not clearly aware of the objectives of the subject, while they are accustomed to consider the value of a school subject according to the academic knowledge it produces (Koutrouba & Christopoulos, 2015; Koutselini, 2008). The attainment of affective objectives and the development of social skills are not typically expected in the traditional educational reality and, therefore, students are more passive learners than active producers of knowledge. In other words, for students educated in a conventional school system, PBLAs provide opportunities for real learning adventures, where minds are robustly exercised, characters and personalities are energetically developed and refreshing feelings are experienced (Newell, 2003; Railsback, 2002; Sharan, 2015).

The present study also reveals, through the responses of Greek students, Greek teachers' willingness to answer the requirements of PBLAs, although no special training has been provided to them for attainment of such a task (Taratori-Tsalkatidou, 2007). The students who participated in the survey reported that their teachers make apparently conscious efforts to promote and display the usefulness of PBLAs, mainly focusing on the academic and cognitive objectives of such activities, although they do not seem to ignore their importance as regards the socio-affective expectations and outcomes of all these procedures (Gillies & Ashman, 2003; Greany & Rodd, 2003). The obvious obsession of teachers with the academic achievements of their students and their apparent lack of confidence as regards the accomplishment of non-academic objectives is related to the core character of the Greek educational system. In Greece, education as a whole, and even more upper secondary education, has been designed and developed, decades ago, in a way that serves major social objectives; Greek students are expected to develop high-ranked cognitive, academic skills, to assimilate great 'quantities' of knowledge disseminated to them in a rapid pace, to enforce their professional qualifications and become, therefore, well-equipped in a highly competitive and demanding job market, in a country where rich educational provisions are considered to ensure the transition of knowledgeable people from the almost underdeveloped rural economy to the most challenging, middle class or bourgeois (Koulaidis et al., 2006; Koutrouba, 2012). Educational policy-makers, teachers, parents, and students as well, seem to feel socially obliged to satisfy youth's inmost will for social advancement and for the subsequent financial empowerment that derives from it (Wurdinger & Rudolph, 2009). In such a framework, educational activities which are not clearly connected with these utilitarian orientations are naturally expected to be used in a constraint way, to make teachers and students feel somehow inconvenient and produce scepticism (Kaldi et al., 2009; Koutselini, 2008). The answers of the participants in this survey seem to confirm that PBLAs which produce clear-cut, reliably measurable academic achievements, such as the development of language and verbal skills, the proficient use of ITs and the skilful elaboration of information data, the reflective thinking, in other words, the professional qualifications of the students are more likely to gain wide acceptance by teachers and students as well. In addition, as this research has shown, PBLAs which are connected with real-life situations are more widely accepted than activities where the theory dominates over the practice, obviously because such activities do not produce a measurable outcome useful for student's after-school professional life (Frame, 2002; Gillies & Ashman, 2003; Gillies et al., 2008). Teachers should, therefore, select subjects which apparently prepare students for their future life, as long as they convince them that, besides academic attainments, sentimental maturity and integration, and flexible and widely-developed communication and social skills are, in fact, strong valuable qualifications for almost every successful professional (Cairns et al., 2001; Corner, 2012; Wurdinger & Enloe, 2011).

The present research also shows that although high- and low-achievers as well describe PBLAs as interesting and refreshing, they do not really know how to cooperate efficiently with others in order to achieve the desired outcomes, and this probably explains why the majority of the participants prefer individualised assessment to group assessment, in other words, prefer to work autonomously and then just compile individual contributions to produce an overall outcome (Mayer & Alexander, 2011; Tan et al., 2006). Academic achievements (regarding skills and products) and individual work can be more easily and evenly planned, monitored, carried out, and assessed than group cooperation, communication skills, emotional behaviours and so on (Dochy et al., 2003; Geier et al., 2008; Gillies, 2007). This also explains why high-achievers (namely, the most demanding students of the classrooms and, therefore, the most promising future professionals in the job market) feel more insecure when they have to be assessed with criteria they are not acquainted with, during learning procedures where the 'competitive' low-achievers could probably display communicative features that high-achievers do not possess (Cohen et al., 2004; Davis, 2013). Greek teachers, to facilitate smooth, undisturbed cooperation within students groups, tend to let students form the groups by themselves (apparently on the base of pre-existing interpersonal friendly relationships), and at the same time they avoid allocating individualised duties in each member of the group (Gray & Larson, 2008; Greany & Rodd, 2003). Such a strategy, however, does not encourage students to cooperate with different characters, undermining that way the substantial social objectives of almost every PBLA (Hansen, 2006; Hmelo-Silver et al., 2013; Strobel et al., 2008). In fact, teachers and students should be encouraged to cooperate within various diversified mixed-ability groups where different performances, learning styles, and behaviours co-exist just like they co-exist in real-life after-school situations (Gillies & Ashman, 2003). It is also rather obvious that students' familiarization with diversity and flexible cooperation must not commence for the first time during their Upper High School education, when characters, beliefs and values have already been long consolidated (Kagan & Kagan, 2009; Koulaidis et al., 2006; Savery, 2006). If a huge shift in teachers' and students' attitudes towards communication and cooperation has to be achieved, such interventions must be planned and introduced by policy-makers in the first years of children's school life (Mergendoller et al., 2007; Newell, 2003).

The present study also shows that in private schools, probably due to higher degree of professionalization and infrastructure provided, teachers and students are more efficiently experimenting with innovative learning strategies and activities, as long as these activities do not disrupt, but, on the contrary, strengthen and serve the abovementioned social objectives and expectations (King, 2002; Kutnick et al., 2005). Students who participated in the present research paid great interest in the rules of cooperation and communication within their groups during the PBLAs probably because harmonious cooperation is a prerequisite for the attainment of high marks, given the fact that their assessment is based not only on individual contribution but also on the final collective outcome (Johnson & Johnson, 2003; Kagan & Kagan, 2009). On the other hand, it is obvious that the majority of the respondents experienced positive feelings of pleasure and satisfaction, especially in cases where the teachers were able to push forward the importance of cooperation and communication skills for the development of students' personalities, and for their social advancement as well (Kaldi et al., 2011; Mayer & Alexander, 2011). It is rather apparent that where teachers insufficiently link such skills to students' social expectations, scepticism regarding the effectiveness of such innovative practices significantly and understandably grows.

This study shows that innovative practices, such as PBLAs, can have a major positive impact even when they are introduced in extremely conservative educational systems and even when they are implemented in a limited, restrain way. Teachers and students seem to enjoy and make full advantage of rich, refreshing experimentations, as long as they are convinced that they do not pointlessly 'waste their time' within their over-demanding educational reality (Johnson & Johnson, 2003; Matsumura & Pascal, 2003). PBLAs which are intriguing, meaningful and obviously useful are more likely to gain students' respect and promote their active participation in every learning procedure (Hansen, 2006; Hedberg, 2009; Johnson & Johnson, 2013). Teachers must receive specialized training during post-graduate studies and through further education programmes to feel confident to implement diversified teaching strategies within their classrooms and to be given a free hand to experiment, individualize, guide, monitor, support, and assess learning procedures which internationally are expected to produce valuable educational outcomes (Dochy et al., 2003; Frame, 2002; Gillies et al., 2008). Policy-makers, teachers, and parents who want their children to be educated in an integrated way (namely in order to be academically and emotionally and socially successful) seem to have strong incentives to promote PBLAs in the modern school in order to create more knowledgeable and happier students and more successful future professionals as well.

References

- Bransford, J.D., Brown, A.L., & Cocking, R.R. (2000). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.
- Cairns, J., Lawton, D., & Gardner, R. (Eds.) (2001). *Values, culture and education*. London: Kogan Page.
- Cantwell, R., & Andrews, B. (2002). Cognitive and psychological factors underlying secondary school students' feelings towards group work. *Educational Psychology, 22*(1), 75-91.
- Cohen, E.G., Brody, C., & Sapon-Shevin, M. (Eds.) (2004). *Teaching cooperative learning: The challenge for teacher education*. Albany, NY: Suny Press.
- Cornelius-White, J. (2007). Learner-centered teacher-student relationships are effective: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(1), 113-143.
- Corner, C. (2012). Into another world: From creativity to creative learning. *Improving Schools, 15*(2), 116-129.
- Davis, J.M. (2013). Supporting creativity, inclusion and collaborative multi-professional learning. *Improving Schools, 16*(1), 5-20.
- Dochy, R., Segers, M., Van Den Bossche, P., & Gijbels, D. (2003). Effects of problem-based learning: A metanalysis. *Learning and Instruction, 13*(5), 533-568.
- Eurydice (2015). *The structure of the European education systems 2014/15: Schematic diagrams*. Eurydice: European Commission, EACEA. Available online: <https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/images/0/05/192EN.pdf> [Accessed: 1-7-2016].
- Frame, J.D. (2002). *The new project management: Tools for an age of rapid change, complexity and other business realities*. 2nd edn. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Geier, R., Blumenfeld, P.C., Marx, R.W., Krajcik, J.S., Fishman, B., Soloway, E., & Clay-Chambers, J. (2008). Standardized test outcomes for students engaged in inquiry-based science curricula in the context of urban reform. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 45(8), 922-939.
- Georgiadis, M.N. (2007). Educational reforms in Greece (1959-1997) and human capital theory. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, 5(2), 342-368.
- Gillies, R. (2007). *Cooperative learning: Integrating theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gillies, R., & Ashman, A. (Eds.) (2003). *Cooperative learning: The social and intellectual outcomes of learning in groups*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Gillies, R., Ashman, A., & Terwel, J. (Eds.) (2008). *The teachers' role in implementing cooperative learning in the classroom*. New York: Springer.
- Gray, C.F., & Larson, E.W. (2008). *Project management: The managerial process*. 4th edn. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Greany, T., & Rodd, J. (2003). *Creating a learning to learn school: Research and practice for raising standards, motivation and morale*. London: Campaign for Learning.
- Greek Government Gazette (2013). I. Ministerial Decision 30972/C1/5-3-2013 (614/B/15-3-2013): *Evaluation of school units' educational work and self-evaluation process*. II. Law 4142/2013 (83/A/9-4-2013): *Authority for quality assurance in primary and secondary education*. III. Law 4186/2013 (193/A/17-9-2013): *Restructuring of secondary education and other provisions*. IV. Presidential Decree 152/1-11-2013 (240/A/5-11-2013): *Evaluation of teachers of primary and secondary education*. Athens: National Printing House. Available online: https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfs/mwikis/eurydice/index.php/Greece:Legislation#anchor6_4186 [Accessed: 1-7-2016] [in Greek].
- Hansen, R.S. (2006). Benefits and problems with student teams: Suggestions for improving team projects. *Journal of Education for Business*, 82(1), 11-19.
- Hedberg, P.R. (2009). Learning through reflective classroom practice: Applications to educate the reflective manager. *Journal of Management Education*, 33(1), 10-36.
- Hmelo-Silver, C., Chinn, C., Chan, C., & O'Donnell, A. (Eds.) (2013). *The international handbook of collaborative learning*. New York: Routledge.
- Ifanti, A. (2007). Policy and curriculum development in Greece. The case of secondary school curriculum. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, 15(1), 71-81.
- Johnson, D., & Johnson, F. (2013). *Joining together: Group theory and group skills*. 11th edn. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Johnson, D., & Johnson, R. (2003). Student motivation in cooperative groups: Social interdependence theory. In R. Gillies & A. Ashman (Eds.), *Cooperative learning: The social and intellectual outcomes of learning in groups*, (pp. 136-176). London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Kagan, S., & Kagan, M. (2009). *Cooperative Learning*. San Clemente, CA: Kagan.
- Kaldi, S., Filippatou, D., & Govaris, C. (2011). Project-based learning in primary schools: effects on pupils' learning and attitudes. *Education 3-13: International Journal of Primary, Elementary and Early Years Education*, 39(1), 35-47.
- Kaldi, S., Philippatou, D., & Onoufriou, M. (2009). Co-operative group teaching and learning in the Greek and Cypriot primary education. *The International Journal of Learning*, 16(11), 407-422.
- King, A. (2002). Structuring peer interaction to promote high-level cognitive processing. *Theory into Practice*, 41(1), 33-40.
- Koulaidis, V., Dimopoulos, K., Tsatsaroni, A., & Katsis, A. (2006). Young people's relationship to education: The case of Greek youth. *Educational Studies*, 32(4), 343-59.
- Koutrouba, K. (2012). A profile of the effective teacher: Greek secondary education teachers' perceptions. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(3), 359-374.

- Koutrouba, K., & Christopoulos, I. (2015). Cooperative learning effectiveness in the bureaucratic school: Views of Greek secondary education teachers. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 12(2), 64-88.
- Koutrouba, K., Kariotaki, M., & Christopoulos, I. (2012). Secondary education students' preferences regarding their participation in group work: The case of Greece. *Improving Schools*, 15(3), 245-259.
- Koutselini, M. (2008). Teacher misconceptions and understanding of cooperative learning: An intervention study. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 43(2), 34-44.
- Kutnick, P., Blatchford, P., Clark, H., MacIntyre, H., & Baines, E. (2005). Teachers' understandings of the relationship between within-class (pupil) grouping and learning in secondary schools. *Educational Research*, 47(1), 1-24.
- Litty, D., & Grabelle, S. (2004). *The big picture: Education is everyone's business*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Matsagouras, E. (Ed.) (2011). *The innovation of project in Upper High-school: A guide for teachers' educators. Teachers' book. Students' book*. Athens: Ministry of Education – Institute for Educational Policy [in Greek].
- Matsumura, L.C., & Pascal, J. (2003). *Teachers' assignments and student work: Opening a window on classroom practice*. Los Angeles: National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing, University of California at Los Angeles.
- Mayer, R., & Alexander, P. (Eds.) (2011). *Handbook of research on learning and instruction. Educational Psychology Handbook Series*. New York: Routledge.
- Mergendoller, J.R., Maxwell, N., & Bellisimo, Y. (2007). The effectiveness of problem based instruction: A comparative study of instructional methods and student characteristics. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 1(2), 49-69.
- Nadler, J., Thompson, L., & van Boven, L. (2003). Learning negotiation skills: Four models of knowledge creation and transfer. *Management Science*, 49(4), 529-540.
- Newell, R. (2003). *Passion for learning: How project based learning meets the needs of 21st-century students*. Lanham, MD: The Scarecrow Press.
- OECD [Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development] (2011). *Education policy advice for Greece. Strong performers and successful reformers in education*. OECD Publishing. Available online: <http://www.oecd.org/greece/48407731.pdf> [Accessed: 1-7-2016].
- OECD (2015). *Education policy outlook: Making reforms happen*. OECD Publishing. Available online: <http://www.oecd.org/publications/education-policy-outlook-2015-9789264225442-en.htm> [Accessed: 1-7-2016].
- Paulson, E. (2011). Group communication and critical thinking competence development. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 74(4), 399-411.
- Pearce, J.A., & Doh, J.P. (2005). The high impact of collaborative social initiatives. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 46(3), 30-39.
- Polman, J.L. (2000). *Designing project-based science: Creating learning through guided inquiry*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Railsback, J. (2002). *Project-based instruction: Creating excitement for learning*. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.
- Ravitz, J. (2010). Beyond changing culture in small high schools: Reform models and changing instruction with project-based learning. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 85(3), 290-312. .
- Roper, K.O., & Phillips, D.R. (2007). Integrating self-managed work teams into project management. *Journal of Facilities Management*, 5(1), 22-36.
- Ryan, K., & Cooper, J.M. (2007). *Those who can, teach*. 11th edn. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

- Saiti, A. (2007). School leadership and educational equality: Analysis of Greek secondary school data. *School Leadership and Management*, 27(1), 65-78.
- Savery, J. (2006). Overview of problem-based learning: Definitions and distinctions. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 1(1), 9-20.
- Schaufeli, W.B., & Bakker, A.B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(3), 293-315.
- Sharan, Y. (2010). Cooperative learning for academic and social gains: Valued pedagogy, problematic practice. *European Journal of Education*, 45(2), 300-313.
- Sharan, Y. (2015). Meaningful learning in the cooperative classroom. *Education 3-13: International Journal of Primary, Elementary and Early Years Education*, 43(1), 83-94.
- Slavin, R.E. (2014). *Educational psychology. Theory and practice*. 11th edn. Boston: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.
- Smith, H.III, Smarkusky, D., & Corrigan, E. (2008). Defining projects to integrate evolving team fundamentals and project management skills. *Journal of Information Systems Education*, 19(1), 99-110.
- Stoeber, J., & Rennert, D. (2008). Perfectionism in school teachers: Relations with stress appraisals, coping styles, and burnout. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping. An International Journal*, 21(1), 37-53.
- Strobel, J., & van Barneveld, A. (2008). When is PBL more effective? A meta-synthesis of meta-analyses comparing PBL to conventional classrooms. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-based Learning*, 3(1), 44-58.
- Tan, I., Sharan, S., & Lee, C. (2006). *Group investigation and student learning*. Singapore: Marshall Cavendish.
- Taratori-Tsalkatidou, E. (2007). *The project method in theory and practice*. 2nd edn. Thessaloniki: Kyriakidis [in Greek].
- Traianou, A. (2009). The uncertain character of recent educational reform in Greece. *Forum*, 51(2), 131-142.
- Van Ryzin, M., & Newell, R. (2009). *Assessing what really matters in schools: Building hope for the future*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Vitto, J.M. (2003). *Relationship-driven classroom management: Strategies that promote student motivation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Volkema, R.J. (2010). Designing effective projects: Decision options for maximizing learning and project success. *Journal of Management Education*, 34(4), 527-550.
- Vouyoukas, A.C. (2007). An analysis of equality, legislation, attitudes and values in education: The case of Greece. *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies*, 12(2), 115-134.
- Wurdinger, S., & Enloe, W. (2011). Cultivating life skills at a project-based charter school. *Improving Schools*, 14(1), 84-96.
- Wurdinger, S., & Rudolph, J. (2009). A different type of success: teaching important life skills through project based learning. *Improving Schools*, 12(2), 115-129.

The Effect of Emigration on Macedonian Labour Market

Merita Zulfiu Alili

Faculty of Public Administration and Political Sciences

South East European University

Abstract

Migration is considered one of the key components of population change in Europe influenced by economic, political and social factors either in a migrant's country of origin or in the country of destination. The transition process has affected the Macedonian labour market and labour migration in several ways. Historically, labour market problems have initiated labour emigration as a result of high unemployment rates starting in the middle of 1960s. High unemployment rates remained one of the main determinants of emigration and its transformation from temporary migration into permanent one. Around 20% of all citizens of Macedonia lived outside of their country of origin in 2015.

Keywords: labour market, labour migration, Macedonia

1. Introduction

Macedonia is a country in South-Eastern Europe with a surface area of 25,713 km² which shares borders with Albania, Kosovo, Serbia, Bulgaria and Greece. The population at the end of the year 2014 was 2,069,172 from which 1,036,518 were males. Its population is slowly increasing, from 2001 to 2014 population increased by around 1%. Data from the State Statistical Office indicate that there have been significant recent changes in the age structure. The proportion of the young population (age group 0-14) in the total population decreased from 21.5% to 17.2% between 2001 and 2011, while the proportion of the old population (age group 65 and over) increased from 10.5% to 11.8%. Analysing the territorial distribution of the population in Macedonia we can observe that 57.8% of the total population live in Macedonia's 34 cities, with the biggest concentration in Skopje (20.5%) (State Statistical Office, 2012).

Macedonia became independent in 1991. The transition from a centrally planned to a market economy involves structural and technological changes and institutional reforms. It is an upper middle-income country with a gross domestic product \$11.32 billion (current US\$) in 2014 and a GDP annual average growth rate between 2000 and 2014 of 2.9% (WDI, 2016). Macedonia was among the strongest performing SEE economies in 2011 with a GDP growth rate of 2.9% (EBRD, 2013).

The transition process has affected the Macedonian labour market and labour migration in several ways. Unemployment has sharply increased, while employment in the public sector declined and the private sector increased, particularly the informal sector. Historically, labour market problems have initiated labour emigration as a result of high unemployment rates starting in the middle of 1960s. High unemployment rates remained one of the main determinants of emigration and its transformation from temporary migration into permanent one (Janeska, 2012). The next section examines these labour market developments in Macedonia.

2. Labour Market Developments in Macedonia

This section explores developments in the Macedonian labour market. It outlines labour force participation trends and unemployment rates in Macedonia by age, gender, level of education and region.

2.1 Labour force participation

According to the 2014 LFS (State Statistical Office, 2014) Macedonia is characterised by low labour force participation rates, measured as the total of employed and unemployed persons as a percentage of the working age population. Labour force participation rates increased from 52.2% in 2004 to 57.3% in 2014. Labour force participation is higher among males than among females (69.3 % vs. 45.3 % in 2014), whilst from 1996 to 2005 this gender participation gap narrowed (from 24.1% to 21.7%), it increased to 24.1% by 2011. Analysing these participation rates by age groups we can observe that persons (both males and females) between the ages 25 to 49 have the highest participation rates in the labour force, with the overall rise in participation largely driven by the older age group.

The data for activity rates of the population shows significant variations by level of education. Participation rates increase with the level of education in Macedonia, with the highest participation rate amongst the group with university level of education (for both men and women). Surprisingly amongst this group female participation rates (86.7% in 2010 decreasing to 83.3% in 2014) are slightly higher than those of males (84.6% in 2010 decreasing to 82.5 in 2014). For other levels of education, a large gender gap is evident.

Analysing participation rates by region (LFS, 2014), the data indicate that the Southeast region has the highest participation rate in the period from 2009 to 2014, whereas the lowest participation rates were observed in Polog region. Analysing participation rates by location further, male participation rates are significantly higher than female participation rates in both rural and urban areas. Unlike for males, female participation rates were significantly higher in urban areas (56%) than in rural areas (39%) in 2006, and in municipalities that have a large primary sector, such as Bitola and Strumica (World Bank, 2008). Female participation rates have slightly increased in rural areas from 35% in 2004 to 37% in 2011. In contrast, male participation rates in rural areas have remained stable during this period (71% in 2011). In urban areas, in 2011, male participation rates were 67.3%, whereas female participation rates decreased to 50.4%.

Hence, labour force participation rates have slightly increased between 2004 and 2014 and female participation rates are lower than male participation rates among the working age population. Estimates indicate that the lower female participation rates are due to particularly low rates amongst young and older female age groups, rural and less educated women.

2.2 Unemployment

Despite recent economic growth, the Macedonian labour market is characterised by high and persistent unemployment that suggests chronic structural problems. The average unemployment rate¹ for the period from 2004 to 2014 was 33.0%. The overall unemployment rate in Macedonia, according to the LFS (2011; 2014), fell between 1997 and 2001, increased again to 2005 and decreased from 37.3 % in 2005 to 27.9% in 2014. The unemployment data from the LFS show that the younger population from 15 to 24 years of age display the highest unemployment rate but also the highest decrease in unemployment rates in the total labour force (Table 1). Over this period, the two oldest age groups to experience rising unemployment rates whilst the female unemployment rate was higher than that of males until 2011.

Table 1. Unemployment rate by age groups

Age/Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Total	37.2	37.3	36	34.9	33.8	32.2	32	31.4	31	29	28
15-19	72.8	63.5	64	62.6	56.8	57.1	59.3	58.6	58.7	62.3	63.5
20-24	62.5	62.4	58.4	56.1	56.2	54.6	52.3	54.4	53	49.7	51
25-29	49.4	47	44.9	42.5	40.3	37.7	39.4	40.6	41.5	40.5	39.3
30-34	40	39.9	36.5	36.2	35	33.1	31.4	30.1	29.6	29.5	28.9
35-39	33.7	33.6	32.4	30.8	29.6	27.4	28.9	26.1	29.4	25.8	21.2
40-44	28.7	31	29.4	28.7	26.7	27.4	27.7	26	24.5	22.3	21

¹ The unemployment rate is defined as the percentage of the number of unemployed in the total labour force (ILO definition).

45-49	25.2	28	27.1	25.6	25.6	25.1	25	23.6	23	19	20.7
50-54	24.1	26.9	28.3	28.9	27.5	25.5	24.1	24	23.6	22.1	22.1
55-59	30.1	30.8	28.4	28.2	28.2	25.7	27	27.3	25.8	23.9	21.3
60-64	20.3	25	28.5	27.7	29.1	27.7	29.7	30.4	23.7	24.4	26
65 and over	4.9	2.6	3.2	3.2	8.8	12.3	6.3	6.8	9.4	7.4	6.8

State Statistical Office (2014).

Table 2 below gives information of unemployment rates by level of education and gender in Macedonia. The unemployment rate is lowest in the group with a level of completed education above secondary school and highest in the group with only up to primary level of education. Differences of unemployment rates among levels of education are similar for males and females; however females display slightly higher rates. The very low level of demand for labour in Macedonia may suggest that employers cherry-pick workers with the highest level of education.

Table 2. Unemployment rates by level of education and gender in Macedonia

Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Level of education								
Total	37.2	37.3	36.0	34.9	33.8	32.2	32.0	31.4
Without education	50.1	53.4	62	46.1	53.2	46.3	45.0	52.7
Incomplete primary and lower secondary ed.	40.2	30.2	33.3	37.1	35.1	28.6	29.7	31.3
Primary and lower secondary ed.	47.1	45.8	42.6	43.4	41.8	40.0	40.1	38.1
3 years of secondary ed.	43.3	45.6	44.4	40.4	35.6	36.1	34.5	32.9
4 years of secondary ed.	35.9	36.6	34.5	33.4	32.3	31.2	31.4	31.2
Higher education	17.4	20.5	20.7	20.4	20.2	17.3	17.3	20.1
University level ed.	18.6	20.5	21.3	20.5	21.7	22.1	22.7	23.4
Men								
Total	36.7	36.5	35.3	34.5	33.5	31.8	31.9	31.8
Without education	41.3	53.0	58.3	39.1	51.0	44.3	49.5	54.7
Incomplete primary and lower secondary ed.	39.7	32.4	34.4	38.1	33.8	29.5	33.6	36.7
Primary and lower secondary ed.	45.0	44.1	40.7	42.9	41.9	38.6	40.6	39.5
3 years of secondary ed.	42.0	42.9	41.9	40.5	35.0	34.8	33.5	31.4
4 years of secondary ed.	34.9	35.1	33.7	32.1	31.5	31.2	30.5	31.5
Higher education	20.5	20.8	21.0	17.5	19.4	18.0	15.8	18.7
University level ed.	17.3	18.6	19.0	17.9	19.2	17.7	19.6	19.7
Women								
Total	37.8	38.4	37.2	35.5	34.2	32.8	32.2	30.8
Without education	62.6	53.7	66.3	53.0	55.2	49.4	40.3	50.6
Incomplete primary and lower secondary ed.	41.0	27.1	31.9	35.7	36.5	27.5	25.1	23.9
Primary and lower secondary ed.	51.4	49.1	46.5	44.3	41.5	42.8	39.1	35.1
3 years of secondary ed.	46.1	51.6	49.9	40.1	36.9	38.9	36.9	36.3
4 years of secondary ed.	37.2	38.6	35.6	35.3	33.4	31.2	32.7	30.8
Higher education	13.8	20.0	20.3	23.8	21.2	16.5	19.1	21.5
University level ed.	20.1	22.4	23.7	23.1	24.3	26.3	25.9	26.9

State Statistical Office (2012).

Unemployment is the biggest challenge for Macedonia and for many other transition countries since it has a negative effect on the stock of human capital, especially when it is accompanied by long spells of unemployment that discourage workers (Novkovska 2008). Data from LFS (2011) indicate that long-term unemployment share¹ is high in Macedonia and there is little difference between men and women in the duration of unemployment (Table 3).

Table 3. Long-term unemployment as a % of total unemployment

Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	85.4	86.7	86.3	84.9	84.9	81.9	83.3	82.6
Men	85.5	86.8	86.4	84.7	86.0	82.5	83.7	83.6
Women	85.4	86.6	86.2	85.1	83.3	80.8	82.7	81.0

State Statistical Office (2012).

However, the long term unemployment may be overstated due to unregistered employment in an extensive informal sector, which was estimated to be the equivalent of 15% of GDP in 2009 (UNCTAD, 2012). Long-term unemployment is higher among youths, the rural population, ethnic minorities and less educated people (UNCTAD, 2012).

3. Labour Emigration Trends in Macedonia

Labour emigration in Macedonia is a long-term phenomenon starting from 1960s when former Yugoslavia opens their borders and encouraged its citizens to work in Western Europe. This long history of emigration (mainly as a result of high unemployment rates) which in some families continued for several generations and transformed the temporary emigration into permanent one, has contributed to an absence of reliable data for 'old' migrants and their descendants and returnees (Bornarova and Janeska, 2012).

Labour emigration was intensified in the last two decades and according to IOM, in 2015 around 20% of all citizens of Macedonia lived outside of their country of origin. Whereas, according to State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia around 9170 citizens legally emigrated from Macedonia in the period between 2005 and 2014. In these 9 years, only 0.5 percent of the country's population has left Macedonia to live abroad. However, State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia lists only people who have officially announced their move abroad; hence these data do not reflect the real situation. In addition, the real number of emigrated citizens is probably much higher considering the illegal emigration and those who are leaving the country on Bulgarian passports.

Migration in Macedonia was influenced by unfavourable labour market changes and the overall economic, political and social situation of the country since its independence. Macedonian emigration can be classified into three groups: permanent family emigration starting from early 1990s to present followed by 'brain-drain', temporary economic emigration and Macedonian citizens who are leaving the country illegally and seeking asylum. In the period from 1970's to 1990's the share of family members in the total number of emigrants increased from 3.6% to 49.5%, indicating that temporary migrations are evolving into the permanent ones, whereas the number of Macedonians seeking refuge and protection in EU countries after the 2010 visa-liberalization has increased more than 600% (Stamenkovic, 2015).

Analysing Macedonian emigrants by destination and education attainment the data indicate (Table 4) that most of Macedonian emigrants found their new home in Europe. The World Bank data on the stock of emigrants indicate that the top five destination of Macedonian Diaspora in the year 2000 was Germany (90967 persons), Serbia and Montenegro (60328 persons), Australia (39737 persons), Turkey (25178 persons) and Italy (15455 persons). Whereas in 2013 the top five countries of destination were Germany (86626 persons), Italy (68714), Serbia (61315), Switzerland (57907) and Australia (53 225), indicating a 41.5% increase in the migrant stock compared to 2000.

The data (Table 4) show that most of Macedonian emigrants have low education except of those immigrating to America. However, the emigration rate of tertiary educated (% of total tertiary educated population) in Macedonia in 2000 was about

¹ The share of long-term unemployment is the percentage of persons who have been unemployed for one year or more in the total number of unemployed persons.

29.4%¹ which could be treated as "brain drain". According to Bornarova and Janeska (2012) the emigration of skilled workers is significant in Macedonia and is increasing since 1990, though the tertiary educated Macedonian migrants are not employed adequately to their qualifications indicating a brain waste. In addition, from 2005 the intellectual emigration has continued to increase as a result of the increased youth unemployment with tertiary level of education (Janeska, 2012).

Table 4. Stock of Macedonian emigrants by destination and by educational attainment, 2000 (persons)

Destination	Low	Medium	High	Total
America	8,300	12,342	9,902	30,544
Europe (including EU15)	88,335	46,630	29,352	164,317
EU15	76,276	24,231	27,929	128,436
Asia and Oceania	39,544	14,343	11,924	65,811

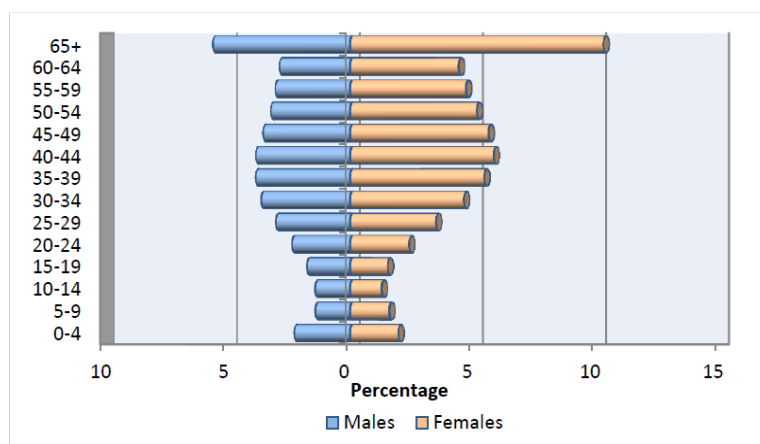
Note: Low-primary or 0-8 years of education; Medium-secondary or 9-12 years of education; High-tertiary or 13 years or more of education. This data is for migrants of age 25+ in most cases.

World Bank (2012).

The Macedonian emigrants consist of emigrated ethnic Macedonians who emigrate mostly in United States, Australia, Italy, Germany, Switzerland and Canada. The number of emigrating ethnic Albanians of Polog and Southwestern Macedonia is constantly rising for years, while the Romani population is increasing amongst those seeking asylum (Stamenkovic, 2015).

World Bank (2012) report data indicate that most of Macedonians emigrants were between 20 to 34 years old in 2005 and 2009. Traditionally, males in the migrating workforce were predominant, however due to increased demand for female workers in the labour markets of Western Europe the share of women emigrating abroad is also increasing (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Migrant stock by age and sex, 2013



UNICEF (2016).

The share of immigrants employment in the total employment in EU15 during the period 2000-2005 increased by over 40%, whereas the average employment rates of immigrants from countries outside EU27 (across all skill levels) in 2005 was 4.3 percentage points lower than that of natives (Münz, 2008). Analysing occupational structure and industry structure Münz (2008) indicates that migrant workers from Balkans and Eastern Europe in 2005 were underrepresented in medium-skilled

¹ Source: <http://www.tradingeconomics.com/macedonia/emigration-rate-of-tertiary-educated-percent-of-total-tertiary-educated-population-wb-data.html>.

and non-manual positions (skilled manual: 37%, unskilled manual: 23%). In addition, immigrants from non-Western and non-EU countries are not only concentrated in a few sectors, but within them, in the lower skilled segments (Münz, 2008).

The number of returnees since 1990 is decreasing (from 20.800 in 1981 to 14.000 persons in 1994), however there is no evidence for the impact of economic and financial crisis on emigration and re-migration trends (Janeska, 2012). World Bank data indicate that the migration stock of Macedonian citizens is increasing since 2008 and no return migration increase.

4. Conclusion

The transition process, characterized by political turbulence and economic restructuring, presented a significant challenge for transition countries. South-East Europe had to work hard to achieve sustainable growth to stimulate demand for labour and raise employment, as well as address chronic unemployment, gender inequalities and the social exclusion of vulnerable groups (ILO, 2007; ILO, 2008). Indicators suggest that conditions in the Macedonian labour market are among the worst in Europe. Macedonia is characterised by high unemployment rates compared to most of the transition countries, low participation rates and has achieved only a modest increase in employment during the last decade.

Most migrant workers move abroad for better opportunities. However, most of them maintain connections to their home country and some of them return to the home country. Whether emigrants are temporary or permanent, backward linkages to their source country can boost productivity through technology and knowledge transfer (Lowell and Findlay, 2001). When a citizen is living in another country and acquires a good education they can contribute to the home country by using their acquired skills or support family members financially.

Policy implication for Macedonia would be to motivate highly skilled emigrant workers to invest home. We can observe in Macedonia some of returnees have successful businesses and in some cases they establish foreign-owned companies in cooperation with foreign partners, so they contribute to the home country through new technology and skill transfer.

According to Lowell and Findlay (2001) emigrants sometimes organise networks that stimulate return flows of knowledge and lead to collaborative ventures with home-country researchers in which cases they facilitate linkages that can help economic development. In addition, policies that strengthen educational institutions will have a beneficial long-term impact. Cooperation between home and host countries of high skilled migrant workers in academic and research settings improves the conditions for economic growth in home economies.

References

- Bomarova, S. and Janeska, V. (2012). Social Impact of Emigration and Rural-Urban Migration in Central and Eastern Europe. *Final Country Report. The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia*. European Commission.
- EBRD (2013). *FYR Macedonia*. Factsheet, March 2013.
- ILO (2007). *Employment Policy Review "The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia"*. International Labour Organisation (ILO) and Council of Europe, Geneva.
- ILO (2008). *Global Employment Trends*. International Labour Organisation (ILO), Geneva.
- IOM (2015). *Global Migration Flows* (<http://www.iom.int/countries/former-yugoslav-republic-macedonia>)
- Janeska, V. (2012). Labor Market and Labor Migration in the Republic of Macedonia – changes and current situation. *University "Ss. Cyril and Methodius". Institute of Economics, Skopje. Republic of Macedonia*.
- LFS (2011). *Labour Force Survey*. State Statistical Office, Republic of Macedonia.
- LFS (2014). *Labour Force Survey*. State Statistical Office, Republic of Macedonia.
- Lowell, L. and Findlay, A. (2001). Migration of Highly Skilled Persons from Developing Countries: Impact and Policy Responses. *International Migration Papers*, no. 44. International Migration Branch. International Labour Office, Geneva.
- Münz, R. (2008). Migration, Labor Markets, and Integration of Migrants: An Overview for Europe. *SP Discussion Paper*, no. 0807.

Novkovska, B. (2008). Measuring Non-standard and Informal Employment in the Republic of Macedonia. *State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia, Working Paper*.

Stamenkovic, S. (2015). Key Migration Trends in Macedonia. *Jefferson Institute, PatchWork Balkan*.

State Statistical Office (2012). *Macedonia in Figures 2012*. Skopje.

State Statistical Office (2014). *Macedonia in Figures 2014*. Skopje.

UNCTAD (2012). *Investment Policy Review. The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia*. United Nations.

UNICEF (2016). *The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. Migration Profiles*.

WDI (2016). World Development Indicators database, World Bank (<https://knoema.com/WBWDIGDF2016Jul/world-development-indicators-wdi-july-2016?country=1000740-macedonia>)

World Bank (2008). *FYR Macedonia Labour Market Profile 2004-2007: A Policy Note*. World Bank Publication, Washington D.C.

World Bank (2012). *Profile of migration and remittances: Macedonia*. World Bank Group, Washington, D.C.

An Overview of the Constructivist Theories and Their Possible Implications in the Design of the ESP Digital Learning Environment

Sladana Živković, PhD

College of Applied Technical Sciences & Faculty of Civil Engineering and Architecture,
University of Niš, Serbia

Abstract

This paper provides a brief overview of the constructivist learning theories and explains their significance in the design of the ESP digital learning environment. Constructivism provides a unique and challenging learning environment, and coupled with modern technology shows the potential for great advancement in learning practices. Together they provide the opportunity for new possibilities in the learning process. In other words, they allow ESP students to learn to their fullest potential. Complete understanding of ESP needs an increasing research input, including social interaction and intercultural communication competence. The purpose of ESP is to prepare a student (future specialist) to communicate effectively in the professional field and real-life situations. The ultimate goal is to become operational in any learning situation.

Keywords: constructivist theories, ESP, digital learning environment

Introduction

Due to the world being interconnected and English being associated with globalization, it is necessary to transform the traditional paradigm of teaching and learning, and to improve the quality and effectiveness of education. Addressing these challenges, we encounter constructivism as a new approach in order to provide innovative way of education, both theoretical and practical.

In order to define constructivism, Fosnot (1989) proposes four principles: learning, in an important way, depends on what we already know; new ideas occur as we adapt and change our old ideas; learning involves inventing ideas rather than mechanically accumulating facts; meaningful learning occurs through rethinking old ideas and coming to new conclusions about new ideas which conflict with our old ideas. It means that constructivism focuses on activities such as problem solving, decision making, creative and critical thinking, active and reflective application of knowledge (Driscoll, 2000). Moreover, constructivist learning encourages critical thinking and creates active and motivated learners. It involves inventing and constructing new ideas (Gray, 2007).

What is more, technologies within the constructivist ESP course facilitate the process of teaching and learning, they stimulate students to be active and cooperative which contributes to increasing learning outcomes.

Constructivist theories

To begin with, constructivist learning theory argues that knowledge is considered to be individually (Piaget, 1968) and socially (Vygotsky, 1962) constructed. Much research has been done by Piaget, who underlines the active role of the individual in the learning process. Piaget's constructivist classroom provides a variety of activities which increase students' readiness to learn. It is of great significance to produce a technology-mediated learning environment that encourages knowledge construction. Technology support (videodisks, CD-ROMs, DVD) in the effective ESP learning environment (Živković, 2016a) encourages innovative teaching and learning approach based on interaction and collaboration (Vygotsky's social constructivism).

It is worth mentioning that the constructivist approach acknowledges learning in context (Duffy and Jonassen, 1991). For effective ESP learning Duffy & Jonassen (1991) state that construction of knowledge happens in a social context, such as classrooms and language laboratories, "where students join in manipulating materials and, thus, create a community of learners who built their knowledge together" (Dewey, 1966).

Much research has been done by Vygotsky who stresses the importance of collaborative learning. As for technology-supported learning environment, students are encouraged to share their knowledge and ideas with their classmates.

According to Bruner (1986) language learning is supported by dialogue (Socratic method of learning) as the most effective way of communication. Students are engaged to answer questions in a way that forces them to regard how they think and respond about related topics. "Individuals make meaning in dialogues and activities about shared problems or tasks" (Helland, 2004).

Regarding Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991), knowledge, learning and cognition are socially constructed. As Brown et al. (1989) point out, knowledge, learning and cognition are fundamentally situated in activity, context, culture and situations. In the constructivist learning environment students learn by actively participating in their learning by connecting previous knowledge with to new contexts.

Considering contemporary constructivist theories, Jonassen (2000) uses Activity Theory which "provides an alternative lens for analyzing learning processes and outcomes that capture more of the complexity and intergratedness with the context and community that surround and support it".

To sum up, in order to take a specific method or approach, the main aspect to consider is its practicality (Richards & Rogers, 2001). The pedagogic significance of an ESP perspective is that it shifts "the focus of attention to the learner and the learning process" (Seidhofer, 2011).

Educational technology

With the beginning of new millennium, the use of technologies in the ESP learning environment presents a great challenge to consider current issues in education, such as students' motivation, autonomy, creativity, collaboration, and thinking skills. As Perkins (1991) claims, the central thing in the learning process is to activate students and to support the construction of new knowledge on the basis of the existing one.

The fact is that new technology is an example of digital mediating technology (O'Neill, 2008) whose role is perceived as an instructional tool for providing a richer and more exciting learning environment (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996).

Furthermore, at an educational level the Internet concretely, is a good source of information, offering authentic materials that can be used in the classroom related to responding to students' needs. "Internet-generated materials can be flexibly arrayed to engage students with topics and cognitive tasks relevant to students' professional futures" (Kimball, 1998). Technologies engage students in meaningful and authentic activities with open-ended software and the Internet (Jonassen, 2000).

In view of this, 'Mindtools' (Jonassen, 1994; Jonassen & Reeves, 1996) "Mindtools" engage students in constructivist activities that support critical thinking and problem solving instead of teaching for memorization. Mindtools allow the student "to think harder about the subject matter domain being studied while generating thoughts that would be impossible without the tool" (Jonassen et al, 2003).

As we have seen, there are many advantages of modern technologies. For instance, computer programs stimulate independent learning, increase interactivity, and force student-centered learning.

In view of what has so far been discussed, it is clear that the integration of constructivist principles and technology shows the potential for great progress in the learning process. "They provide the opportunity to make and remake the concept of ESP learning, and have brought new possibilities for learning. In other words, they can allow ESP students to learn to their fullest potential " (Živković, 2016b).

A rising trend in ESP learning

Constructivism as a new paradigm in teaching and learning has brought transformation within the classroom. A rising trend in ESP education is to create such a learning environment where students' knowledge is facilitated (Živković, 2013; Živković, 2014). Such an environment is a place where students are not frustrated, and in which they are focused on intentional learning (Jonassen, 1994).

Wilson (1995) suggests a definition of a constructivist learning environment as "a place where learners may work together and support each other as they use a variety of tools and information resources in their pursuit of learning goals and problem-solving activities". It is the environment that forces student-centredness in order to develop creative and critical thinking skills. In the learning environment "students join in manipulating materials and, thus, create a community of learners who built their knowledge together" (Dewey, 1966).

Contemporary conception of the ESP constructivist learning environment is that it is technology-supported in which student can concentrate in meaningful learning. The constructivist environment creates content-relevant experiences by utilizing technologies and resources to support unique learning goals and knowledge construction (Young, 2003). Further, the construction of technology-supported learning environments is based on the need to embed learning into authentic and meaningful contexts (Brown et al., 1989). In this context, the use of technology contributes to the realization of meaningful, authentic, active, interactive and problem-based learning (Živković, 2011).

It is with this in mind that "the richness of the technology permits us to provide a richer and more exciting learning environment...our concern is the new understandings and new capabilities that are possible through the use of technology" (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996).

A constructivist teacher

In this new era of information and communication teaching is facing challenges from traditional ways of learning towards more innovative ones. Along with all mentioned, the role of teachers has to be reconsidered. Teaching students implies exposing them to construct their own knowledge and understanding, and to acquire relevant practical experience for their career development.

In the constructivist technology-supported classroom becoming an effective teacher adds great demands and carries great transformation. It is worth mentioning that the teacher is no longer regarded as the dispenser of knowledge and decision maker. Instead, the teacher has become a facilitator and a guide who helps students become active in the learning process and "make meaningful connections between prior knowledge, new knowledge, and the processes involved in learning" (Copley, 1992) that results in achieving outcomes.

Implementing pedagogy-technology integration in the ESP constructivist learning environment is one of the most demanding tasks. So, the main challenge facing ESP teachers is to acquire a new approach, and to efficiently incorporate computer and the Internet technology into the educational process.

To be prepared for this globalized and interconnected world, the teacher can be able to recognize and maximize the potential of the technology by using it effectively for practical work. It is needed to design courses and to meet specific needs and interests of the students (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

In this new globalized and interconnected world, the teacher should encourage the development of creative and critical thinking skills. The final goal is to enhance the quality of teaching and learning, and produce a positive, an authentic, fostering and productive learning environment that allows students the construction of new knowledge based on the previous one.

Considering this issue, it means that constructivism requires a teacher "whose main function is to help students become active participants in their learning and make meaningful connections between prior knowledge, new knowledge, and the processes involved in learning" (Copley, 1992).

The student-centeredness

As English has become "the primary means of communication at workplaces both within and across boundaries" (Purpura & King, 2003), there is an increasing demand for learning English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The purpose of ESP is to

prepare students to effectively communicate in real-life situations and collaborate with business colleagues in professional areas. More specifically, the focus is on the practical experience and direct activity of students. Student-centered learning requires students to set their own goals for learning, and determine resources and activities that will help them meet those goals (Jonassen, 2000).

As stated by Jonassen (1994) learners must be given opportunities to be active in ways that will promote self-direction, creativity and the critical analysis of problems requiring a solution. In this sense, "Learning becomes a continuous, life-long process which results from acting in situations" (Brown et al., 1989).

As far as technologies are concerned, will "engage the learners more and result in more meaningful and transferable knowledge...Learners function as designers using the technology as tools for analyzing the world, accessing information, interpreting and organizing their personal knowledge, and representing what they know to others" (Jonassen, 1994).

It is clear that technologies have transformed the learning process in that they foster meaningful learning experiences (Jonassen, 1994), in fact, they are regarded as an integral part of cognitive activity (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996) which enhance learning and help the student examine the problem and make decision. Powerful capabilities of computers make it possible to access, represent, process and communicate information in new ways (Kozma, 1991). In this sense, modern technologies provide students with information that support knowledge creation, communication and collaboration.

When considering an ESP perspective, it can be noted that it is founded on the idea that students learn language in collaborative learning settings. In this sense, through collaboration with their classmates, students are engaged in learning that is challenging and effective.

Taking all this into account, in the constructivist ESP digital environment the high-speed expansion of technology motivate constructivist innovations and provide the realization of active learning that challenges students to 'learn how to learn'.

With regard to the role of the student, computers and the Internet support cognitive processes which expand the learning process, and by helping students to explore, collaborate, and solve a problem.

Conclusion

This paper has strived to describe both a theoretical and empirically based study of the ESP education within technology-supported context. As it has been observed, it considers the constructivist theories and explains their significance in the design of the ESP digital learning environment that is "learner-centered, knowledge-centered, community centered and assessment-centered" (Bransford et al., 2000).

The constructivist learning environment together with modern technologies stimulates students' communication, and foster their activity. Moreover, technology in the education process requires the use of meaningful and authentic activities, to give the learning situation a purpose (Reeves et al., 2002). "Learning to think critically and to analyze and synthesize information in order to solve technical, social, economic, political and scientific problems are crucial for successful and fulfilling participation" (Dunlap & Grabinger, 1996).

To sum up, with the beginning of new millennium the emphasis is on the interdisciplinary nature of the classroom which needs students to access knowledge resources, develop the skills they will need in the workplace, collaborate with classmates, communicate effectively. The goal of the 21st century classroom is to prepare students to become productive members of the workplace. In such classroom students become designers of knowledge, efficient communicators, successful teammates, competent thinkers, problem solvers and career experts.

References

- Bransford, D. J., Brown, L. A., & Cocking, R. R, eds. 2000. "How People Lear Brain, Mind, Experience, and School". *Committee on Developments in the Science of Learning Research and Educational Practice*, Commission on Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education, National Research Council. Washington, D.C., 2000.

- Brown, J. S., & Collins, A., D. P. 1989. "Situated cognition and the culture of learning". *Educational Researcher*, 18 (1), 32-41.
- Bruner, J. *Actual Minds, Possible Worlds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1986.
- Copley, J. 1992. "The integration of teacher education and technology: a constructivist model". In D. Carey, R. C. D. Willis, & J. Willis (Eds.), *Technology and Teacher Education*, Charlottesville, VA: AACE.
- Dewey, J. 1966. *Democracy and Education*. New York: Free Press.
- Driscoll, M. P. 2000. *Psychology of Learning for Instruction*. (2nd ed.). Needham Heights, Ma: Allyn & Bacon.
- Duffy, T. M., & Jonassen, D. H. 1991. "Constructivism: New implications for instructional technology?" *Educational Technology*, 31(5), 7-11.
- Duffy, T. M., & Cunningham, Donald. J. 1996. "Constructivism: Implications for the design and delivery of instruction". D. H. Jonassen (Ed.), *Educational communications and technology*, New York: Simon & Schuster Macmillan, 170-199.
- Dunlap, J. C. & Grabinger, S. 1996. "Rich Environments for Active Learning in Higher Education". *Constructivist Learning Models in Higher Education*. B.G. Wilson (ED.) Englewood Cliffs NJ, Educational Technology Publications.
- Fosnot, T. C. 1989. *Enquiring teachers, enquiring learners: A constructivist approach for teaching*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gray, A. 2007. *The Road to Knowledge is Always under Construction: A Life History Journey to Constructivist Teaching*. SSCA research centre. University of Saskatchewan.
- Helland, B. 2004. "The Constructivist Learning Environment Scorecard: A Tool to Characterize Online Learning".
- Huchinson, T., & Waters, A. 1987. *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-centered Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jonassen, D. H. 1994. "Thinking technology: Towards a Constructivist Design Model". *Educational Technology*, 34-37.
- Jonassen, D. H., & Reeves, Thomas. C. 1996. "Learning with technology: Using computers as cognitive tools". In D. H. Jonassen (Ed.), *Handbook of research for educational communications and technology*, 1st edition. New York: Macmillan, 693-719.
- Jonassen, D. H. 2000. "Revisiting activity theory as a framework for designing student-centered learning environments". In Jonassen, D. H., & Land, S. M. (Eds.), *Theoretical foundations of learning environments*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 89-121.
- Jonassen, D. H., Howland, J., Moore, J. & Marra, R. M. 2003. *Learning to solve problems with technology : a constructivist perspective(2nded.)*.NJ: Merrill.
- Kimball, J. 1998. "Task-based medical English: elements for Internet-assisted language learning." *Call Journal*, vol. 11, no. 4, pp. 411-418.
- Kozma, R. 1987. "The implications of cognitive psychology for computer-based learning tools". *Educational Technology*, 27, 20-25
- Lave, J. & Wenger, E. 1991. *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge UK: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Neill B 2008. Cognition and mobility rehabilitation following lower limb amputation. In: Gallagher, Desmond & MacLachlan (Eds) *Psychoprosthetics: State of the Knowledge*. London: Springer.
- Perkins, D. 1991. "Technology meets constructivism: Do they make a marriage?" *Educational Technology*, 31(5), 18-23.
- Piaget, J. *Structuralism*. 1968. New York: Harper and Row.
- Purpura, J. & Graziano-King, J. 2003. "Investigating the Foreign Language Needs of Professional School Students in International Affairs". *Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 4 (1). pp: 1-33.
- Reeves, T. C., J. & Herrington, R. O. 2002. "Authentic activities and online learning". In A. Goody, J. Herrington & M. Northcote (Eds.), *Quality conversations: Research and Development in Higher Education*, Volume 25, 562-567.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. 2001. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Second Edition. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Seidhofer, B. 2011. *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. 1962. *Thought and Language*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Wilson B. G. (Ed.), 1995. "Constructivist learning environments: Case Studies in Instructional Design". Englewood Cliffs, NJ: *Educational Technology Publications*.

Young L. D. 2003. "Bridging Theory and Practice: Developing Guidelines to Facilitate the Design of Computer-based Learning Environments". *Canadian Journal of Learning and Technology*, 29(3).

Živković, S. 2011. *Modernization of English as Foreign Language Studies in University Education*. Second International Scientific Conference: University Education in Transition, Transition in University Education – Modern and Universal. Belgrade. Higher Education Institution for Applied Studies for Entrepreneurialship.

Živković, S. 2013. To Modernize or not to Modernize - There is no Question. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*. MCSER Publishing: Rome-Italy.

Živković, S. 2014. *Constructivism – An Emerging Trend in ESP Teaching and Learning*. Language, Literature and Culture in Education. Nitra, Slovakia.

Živković, S. 2016(a). "The ESP Technology-Supported Learning Environment". *European Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies*. Education and research. Vol.6, No.1. Sofia, Bulgaria.

Živković, S. 2016(b). An ESP constructivist learning in engineering. 9th International Conference on Social Sciences, Dubrovnik.

Communication Strategies Used by Middle Eastern Postgraduate Students at Service Encounters in Universty Malaya

Suo Yanju

Islamic Science University of Malaysia (USIM)

Suo Yanmei

Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris Malaysia

Abstract

Communication strategies are important in helping L2 learners to communicate successfully when they are faced with a problem in speech production. This study looked at one of the components in Communication Competence, i.e strategy competence or the use of Communication Strategies (CS) in oral interactions among Middle Eastern students and counter staff in institute of postgraduate studies (IPS) at University of Malay. Data collected from video-tape and interviews were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. It was found that the most frequently used communication strategy was the use of "modification devices". The other strategies used frequency were "interaction strategies", "compensatory strategies" "avoidance strategies" and "L2-based strategies". The results showed that students used different communication strategies to overcome their communication difficulties. The main aim of using the communication strategies is to avoid communication breakdown. Consequently, Second language learners should be encouraged to use communication strategies to develop their oral skills and help them more effective in oral communication with their limited English language proficiency. The implications and suggestions from this study towards development the teaching and learning of ESL were also presented.

Keywords: Communication Strategies Used by Middle Eastern Postgraduate Students at Service Encounters in Universty Malaya

Introduction

Communication strategies are strategies that learners employ when their communicative competence in the language being learned (L2) is insufficient. This includes understanding in theL2 and having others help them understand L2. Learners use communication strategies to offset any inadequacies they may have in the grammar of the language and, also in vocabulary. Communication strategies aid learners in participating in and maintaining conversations and improving the quality of communication. This, in turn, enables them to improve their exposure to and opportunities to use the L2, leading to more opportunities to test their assumptions about the L2 and to receive feedback. Research in communication strategies began in the early 1970s. In the early 1980s, the real study of communication strategies has become the concern of many researchers. Canale and Swain (1983) as cited in Dornyei and Scott (1997) included communication strategies in their model of communication competence as part of strategies competency, which is the learner's ability to use communication strategies and cope with various communication problems they may encounter.

International students in University of Malaya face several problems when trying to communicate in English. In the process of communication, these students have often found themselves in a position, whereby they have to improvise in order to get their messages across and overcome any momentary inadequacies. Usually the obstacle in communication is the lack of vocabulary items, which either has not been learnt, or cannot be recalled at that point in time.

Another problem faced by International students is the inadequate knowledge or competence in the grammar of the English language. Problems arise among international students who have to communicate in English. This research describes the communicative strategies used by international postgraduate students at the University of Malaya when communicating with the front desk officers of the Institute of Postgraduate Studies (IPS).

The objective of this study is to study the problems faced by international students of Middle Eastern origin when communicating in English. The study will describe strategies used by international students from Saudi Arabia, Syria, Oman, Iran, Iraq, and Yemen when communicating with officers of the Institute of Postgraduate Studies (IPS) in the University of Malaya. The language is strategic when it is used for a purpose. In this study, I consider CSs to be used by Middle Eastern non-native English speakers to overcome communicative lexical problems. In this case, the analysis has been restricted to lexical problems which may be occasioned by the lack of knowledge of L2 terms the speaker wishes to communicate, by retrieving problems or by insecurity as to lexical item selected to express a meaning.

Research questions

In order to fulfill the objectives of the study as stated above, the study aims to answer the following research questions:

RQ 1: What are the strategies used by postgraduate Middle Eastern students in the University of Malaya to overcome communication problems with staff (in service encounters in the Institute of Postgraduate Studies)?

RQ 2: Which are the types of communicative strategies most frequently used by them?

Research Methodology

The participants were enrolled with the Institute of Postgraduate Studies division of the University of Malaya. The participants (student) were from 6 different Middle-East countries, namely: Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Syria and Yemen. Out of 90 participants, 28(31%) participants were from Iran, 24(27%) participants were from Iraq, 15(17%) from Saudi Arabia and 8 (9%) were from Oman, 8 (9%) were from Syria and 7(7%) from Yemen. students being chosen randomly to participate in this research. These participants were doing their Master's degree or Doctoral degrees at the University of Malaya. All of them had to take an English placement Test set by the university. Permission was granted by both the counter staff and students to conduct video-recording at the service counters at IPS.

A SONY Video camera has been used in this study because of its high quality and ability to record clear and good quality images and sound. Mini Video tapes were used to record the conversations. A Personal Computer with Power DVD program was also used. This made it easy for the writer to view the data that has been collected. Data for this study was collected in two different ways. In order to obtain information about the language learners and their background, interviews were conducted with the participants to gather information pertaining to their nationalities, the Universities where they did their first degree, the medium of instruction in their previous university/institute/college, their first language, the number of years they had been learning English and their own evaluation about their English proficiency. In order to get a clear picture of verbal as well as nonverbal communication strategies, the conversations between postgraduate students and counter staff at the IPS were video recorded.

A qualitative analysis was carried out Simple frequency counts were made according to the types of communication strategies used. The finding was presented using tables. The frequency counts were converted into percentages for ranking. In addition relevant extracts from the transcriptions were used to help explain the findings. The data were analysed as soon as they were collected. This was done in order to avoid lapse of time, which might affect remembering details from the interview conducted. The analysis is descriptive in nature.

The tabulation of the data in figures and percentage was done in order to count the number of times the participants used a particular strategy. The tabulation is presented. Table also represents the percentage of the frequency distribution of communication strategies employed by the participants. Throughout the study, the types of strategies used by the participants to solve their communication problems were also observed. This study was concerned only with communication strategies used when participants lacked lexical items. It can be described as:

"The common factor to all communication strategies is that the inter language learner has to deal with not knowing a word in the target language. It is vocabulary lack that is crucial. The strategies exit the plug gaps in the learners" vocabulary by allowing them to refer to a things orwhich they don't know the target language."(Cook, 1991:69)

Data analysis and finding

The study examined the interactions between International postgraduate Middle-Eastern students with IPS counter staff in the University of Malaya. The study was based on data that video recoded natural conversation which took place while the participants were acquiring information. The use of triangulation method of data collection supported the finding that emerged from the study. The data were collected through the use of video recordings, an informal interview, and transcriptions. The study shows that language learners were able to maintain the flow of their conversation by using different types of communication strategies.

The study answered the following research questions:

How do postgraduate Middle Eastern students at University Malaya overcome communication problems with staff at service encounters in the Institute of Postgraduate Studies (IPS)?

Generally, the researcher found that the language learners employed different types of communications strategies to avoid conversation breakdown. The strategies used by the participants were determined by the knowledge of the language they possessed. The learners fell back on strategies as a result of the imbalance between communicative needs and their actual ability to use the target language.

It also appears that in solving their communication problems, the learners drew on other knowledge sources such as, non-verbal communication strategies to compensate for their deficiencies in the target language. The use of non-verbal communication strategies enable learners to convey messages which their linguistic resources do not permit them to express successfully.

The study shows that although the learners faced communication problems, this did not prevent them from attempting to solve these problems. The learners were able to use different communicative strategies to improve their chances of being understood.

What are the types of communicative strategies used by postgraduate Middle Eastern students at University Malaya in oral communication with staff at service encounters at the

Institute of Postgraduate Studies (IPS)?

In order to answer this question, qualitative analyses were carried out. The data used in the analysis were taken from the recordings of strategies used by 90 Middle Eastern post graduate students at service counters in IPS.

The Overall Frequency Distribution of Communication Strategies employed by Participants shows as following table:

Communication Strategies	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Ranking
Modification Devices	236	49	1
Interactional Strategies	87	18	2
Compensatory Strategies	85	17.5	3
Avoidance Strategies	59	12	4
L2-based strategies	17	3.5	5
Total	483	100	5

The Overall Frequency Distribution of Communication Strategies employed by Participants

Based on the transcriptions, the researcher identified the frequency use of communication strategies used by the participants. Modification strategies were most frequently used by participants, followed by interactional strategies, compensatory strategies, and avoidance strategies and non-verbal communication strategies.

Clennel (1994) study indicates that compensatory strategies are the most commonly used by the L2 learners, while Kebir (1994), Chen (1990) and Whilliam et al.(1997) report that interactional strategies are the most popular among L2 learners.

The finding on the use of compensatory strategies among the participants revealed that when communication problems occurred, the students preferred to get their ideas across by themselves rather than ask for some help from their

interlocutors or abandon the conversation. They usually tried to fill the conversation gaps by making an effort to convey the intended message meaningfully, so they took risks to explain, create or guess the problematic word(s).

The finding supports Wenden's (1991:41) statement that "the good language learner is willing to take risks". These students are willing to take risks in order to communicate, using any meaning at their disposal to convey meaning. This often involves the use of circumlocution, paraphrases, gestures, and may sometimes involve the creation of new words by analogy with familiar forms.

In order to avoid interruption in the conversation and to achieve mutual understanding, interactional strategies were used by the participants to ensure that their interlocutors understood the intended messages completely. In conversations, communication problems might occur but the use of interactional strategies help the speakers expand their conversation through smooth turn-takings.

After compensatory strategies, avoidance strategies were the next most frequently used. When the participants could not transmit their intended message, they avoid those problematic messages. In order to avoid making mistakes and increase fluency in conversation, the participants occasionally used avoidance strategies, namely message avoidance. Topic avoidance was not found in this study.

Faerch & Kasper (1983) as cited in David (1999) explain the reason for using avoidance strategies:

In order to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances by using sufficiently automatised or hypothetical rules/items, learners may decide to communicate by means of a reduced system focusing on stable rules and items which have become reasonably well-automatised.

David (2003) proposes that elimination of certain formal elements of the target language do not always interfere with the transmission of meaning if the learners use them appropriately. In fact, the learners benefit from the use of avoidance strategies because they do not need to stop the conversation immediately, but try to remove the problematic word(s) or sentence(s) with a new one.

Non-verbal strategies were also used in the study to compensate the participants' lexical gap of the TL. Most of the use of these strategies aimed to replace their messages to make them clearer and more understandable

Recommendation

The findings have implications in the field of second language teaching. These include teaching of CSs, syllabus design and material design

1). Teaching CSs

There are many studies show that strategies of communication in the teaching learning context can help learners improve their skills in real life language use. Savignon (1990), Taron (1984), Tarone and Yule (1989) believed that it is possible and desirable as strategic competence is part of the learner's communication competence. It involves the transferring of L1 skills, bridging the gap between classroom and real life communication and contributing to the students' sense of security, self-confidence and motivation to communicate. The teaching of CSs may also involve raising learners' awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs and encourage students to be willing to take risks and use CSs (Dornyei 1995, p.80). This study showed that the participants are able to employ some of the CSs. Unfortunately, they are not able to use all the types of CSs and thus they are unable to use them effectively and spontaneously. Hence, if EFL teachers can make learners more aware of the range of communication strategies, learners can utilize a wide range of CSs creatively and effectively.

2). Curriculum and Course Design

In situations where language curriculum and course contents are to be designed for the non-native speaking background learners, strategies of communication can be taught for effective use in real life. This will improve learners' confidence in selecting and implementing appropriate strategies in communication (Dornyei and Thurrell, 1994); Dornyei, 1995; Corder,

1983; Bialystok, 1981). Since strategic competence is one of the important components of communicative competence, it should be included in the goals of teaching English language course.

David (1999) argued the possibility of consciousness-raising of communication strategies as a tool to improve language proficiency of L2 learners. Therefore, a course should be designed to create situations which will promote the development of learners' strategic competence, and the ability to use communication strategies to deal with different communication problems they might encounter.

3). Material design and teaching

Williams (2006) suggested that teachers should make students aware of communication strategies and teach students to use communication strategies in the classroom. Teaching material should be chosen and developed to provide learners opportunities to identify potential communication breakdown and ways to overcome them. Teachers can devise exercises and activities whenever possible for learners to practise and use the CSs. The use of video recordings will be useful in helping learners become more aware of their communication performance. Playback will allow learners an avenue for analyzing, discussing and getting feedback regarding their oral communication. Playback is also important for learners to understand the non-verbal signals such as gestures, eye contact, and body movement also play a role in oral communication.

Conclusion

Communication strategies play an important role in oral communication. It is also an important aspect for English language learners to learn towards achieving successful communication and competence. It encourages language learners to find ways of avoiding communication breakdown with their interlocutors to achieve their communication goals.

This study shows that ESL learners are able to overcome their communication problems by using communication strategies during their interaction with the counter staff. There are limitations in this study. However, the information and knowledge can contribute to the EFL learners particularly UM international students on how to communicate even when they lack lexical items.

References

- Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing. *Applied Linguistics* (P.1-47).
- Clennel, C. (1994) Investigating the Use of Communication Strategies by Adult Second Language Learners: A Case for Trusting Your Own Judgment in Classroom Research. *Tesol Journal*. (P.28-31)
- Cook, V. (1991) *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Edward Arnold Ltd.
- Corder, S, P. (1983). Strategies of Communication. In Faerch&Kasper (Eds), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*. London: Longman. (P.15-19)
- Chen, S-Q. (1990). A Study of Communication Strategies in Interlanguage production by Chinese EFL learner. *Language Journal*, **40**(2), (p.155-187).
- David, M. K (1999). The Teaching of Communicative Strategies and Intercultural awareness core Components for Effective Communication. *The English Teacher* Vol.XXVIII
- Domyei and Thurell (1995). Strategies Competence and How to teach it". *ELT Journal*, 45(1). (P.16-23)
- Faech, C. and Kasper, G (1983). On Identifying Communication Strategies in Interlanguage Production in Faech, C. & Kasper, G(Eds), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*. London: Longman. (P.210-238)
- Kambal, M. (1980). An Analysis of Khartoum University Students' Composition Errors with Implications for Remedial English in the Context of Arabicization, in Rabab"ah, G. *Communication problems facing Arab Learners of English*. *Journal of Language and Learning*. **3**(1) (p.180-197).
- Tarone, E. (1984). Communication Strategies: Foreigner Talk and Repair in Intercommunication. *TESOL Quarterly*. (9). (p.417 - 431)
- Williams, J. (2006) Combining Communication Strategies and Vocabulary Development. *The Internet TESL Journal*. XII (2). retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/> [2016, July 28]

The Arabic Teacher's Training and the Effect of Their Work Success: a Case Study of Sultan Idris Education University (UPSI)

Dr. Suo Yan Mei

Senior lecturer, Sultan Idris education university Malaysia.

Ust. Zarima Mohd Zakaria

Lecturer , Sultan Idris education university Malaysia

Dr. Zaliqa Adam

Lecturer, International Islamic university Malaysia

Suo Yan Ju

Lecturer, Islamic Science University of Malaysia (USIM)

Abstract

This research investigates the Arabic Teachers' training and the effect of their work success, a case study of Sultan Idris Education University Malaysia (UPSI). The study will use mixed methods between quantitative which use questioners that will distribute among students at UPSI those who studying and was studied Arabic language as their medium.. This study found that the teachers' training was highly impacted on their work success in the field according to the data collection of the study. Overall, The contents, materials, facilities and curriculum which are offered by the Arabic unit of UPSI was suitable for the teacher's training, as well as , the students were giving full intentions to all language skills and another sub educational skills during their training and practical training. Clarity, it seems that majority of students were familiar with the teaching methods used in teaching and learning process based on the high percentage

Keywords: Arabic Teacher's Training, The Effect, work success

Introduction:

The language is a way of human expression, through this way, human being can assume the community and cultural centers which has great importance in the community, and this importance linked to the importance of language at the stage of universal, society, human being and life level. Therefore. The teacher is a symbol of the nation, it is through hard work emerged generations of learners, and occupied nowadays oversaw business and noblest, and holds the most difficult tasks. The generation who graduated from the hands of the teacher, is now prime minister, educator and administrator sooner in order to leading of the affair of this nation. The good product of the teachers have excellent saturation values and science and knowledge , and are expected cares and takes care of the creative ability and then converts it to facts and truth delight friend and fascinates the enemy. All this has encouraged us to choose the teacher and the head of his training material in our research.

Research Problem

The problem of this study is to clarify the problem of teaching Arabic among students, especially when their practicing of teaching for Arabic Language. This study deals with the issue of the Arabic Teacher's Training and The effect of their Work Success: A Case Study of Sultan Idris Education University (UPSI). This program aims to develop the capacity of teachers and raise their level in the teaching profession and also practice students as teachers in their work place. As well as positively impact on the reflex of pupils in the course of application of their teaching and practicing at the schools in Malaysia.

Significant of Research

This research is gaining importance of the nature of the modern scientific study that relies on the application of the principles of the perfect theory in the study of teaching skills. The Study of skills can let students to earn a good and clear way, which is unequivocal and unambiguous, therefore make the trainees to perform in better way to reflect their experiences that gained from the training, accordingly, their performance is affected by a positive impact in the collection of students and scientific output. This is sufficient in the future to be distinguished in the fields of teaching and all matters which is relevant with teaching and learning. This study will produce good Arabic teachers from UPSI and as a role model in their work place.

Literature Review :

The previous studies addressed the issue of multiple teachers' training. This research is composed of books , research and a variety of articles published in professional journals, web sites and other information that opens our horizons in this area . Although many of these studies, however, it did not address this area adequately, especially in the four skills that will be discussed later.

The research of Ahmed Hassan Semsah titled "**Educational programs for the Arabic language: methods and methods of teaching (teacher training)**, 2002 . presented author in this book the definition of educational programs offered to train teachers of the Arabic language to non-native speakers, and the statement of goals, and most importantly to contribute to the preparation of specialists in the teaching of Arabic speakers to other, and production methods , and hearing aids , and the specific visual , and put dictionaries progressive and bi- level entrances to the Arabic language, and written language related to Islamic view. This research has been limited to teaching methods, did not provide a detailed training program, especially since the researchers may live this experience learning in Malaysia , theoretical part has dominated the search, which has made the researchers benefit from it in the corner and make them take advantage of this absence of applied field study.

The research named "**A Teacher Training Experience Based on Work with Communities in California**" (Rodríguez-Valls, F., Antonio Montes ,A (2011) described the results of a teacher training model that involves contact with California communities and action-research practices. The research covered students enrolled in the education program at a university in southern California during the 2007-2008 school year. The researchers interviewed those students and analyzed the global culture of students and parents from various ethnic groups as subsequent input for classroom work and, ultimately, the design of lessons and the development of educational plans pursuant to the requirements of the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC). The study found that transforming teachers acquire a variety of useful skills for their work as educators in the global village by learning about the community from the inside out. This research is benefited to develop the capacity of teachers and raise their level in the teaching profession and also practice students as teachers in their work place.

Here, a research by (SALGÜR, 2014) related to the work Success effected by the training. The topic is "**Important of mentoring in teacher training**". This research indicated that work success involves learning and cultivating relationships, building the capacity of teachers, figuring out better pathways to success, and providing the support teachers need to come together as communities of practice. He explained that Enhancing a teacher's professional identity is a potential solution to the drift and disconnection experienced by many teachers during their career. Researcher suggested that attending together at a conference is one way to increase their professional identity for Mid-career teacher leadership. As well as , he mentioned that it can enhanced sense of professional identity through self-awareness of their mastery experiences, collaborative skills and teacher leadership is that it may impact a mid-career teacher's connection to the profession, resulting in a renewal of commitment to teaching. Besides that, he supported the Revolution is to re-discover the power of teaching.

Finding and Discussion

Discuss for Data Analysis, Frequency Table and result

Demography of Participant (Year of Graduation)

No.	Year of Graduation	Frequency	Percentage		Cumulative Percentage
1-	-	1	2.4		2.4
2-	2012	11	26.2		28.6
3-	2013	16	38.1		66.7
4-	2014	14	33.3		100
	Total	42	100		100

Table (3)

Demography of Participant (Days Teaching Per Week)

No.	Days Teaching Per Week	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
1-	-	7	16.7	16.7
2-	4 Days	7	16.7	33.4
3-	5 Days	24	57.1	90.5
4-	7 Days	4	9.5	100
	Total	42	100	100

Table (4)

Demography of Participant (Years of Teaching Experiences)

No.	Years of Teaching Experiences	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
1-	-	7	16.7	16.7
2-	10 years	1	2.4	19.1
3-	1 year	16	38.1	57.2
4-	1 year 3 months	1	2.4	59.6
5-	1 year 6 months	2	4.8	64.4
6-	1 year 7 months	1	2.4	66.8
7-	1 year 8 months	1	2.4	69.2
8-	2 years	6	14.3	83.3
9-	3 years	1	2.4	85.7
10-	4 months	4	9.5	95.2
11-	6 months	2	4.8	100.0
	Total	42	100	100.0

Tables (1, 2, 3,) show distribution of the study sample according to the independent variables which are year of graduation, the number of teaching days per week, and the number of years of teaching experience.

Teaching Methods Used

Table (7)

Teaching methods used

The methods I use in teaching Arabic language	Frequency and Percentage					Total
	5	4	3	2	1	
1- Grammar-Translation Method	(%19.0) 8	(%50.0) 21	(%31.0) 13	-	-	(%100.0) 42
2- Audio-Visual Method	(%4.8) 2	(%31.0) 13	(%57.1) 24	(%7.1) 3	-	(%100.0) 42
3- Direct Method	(%11.9) 5	(%57.1) 24	(%23.8) 10	(%4.8) 2	(%2.4) 1	(%100.0) 42

4- Audio-Lingual Method	(%4.8) 2	(%45.2) 19	(%45.2) 19	(%4.8) 2	-	(%100.0) 42
5- I don't have any idea about all these methods	-	-	(%4.8) 2	(%11.9) 5	(%83.3) 35	(%100.0) 42

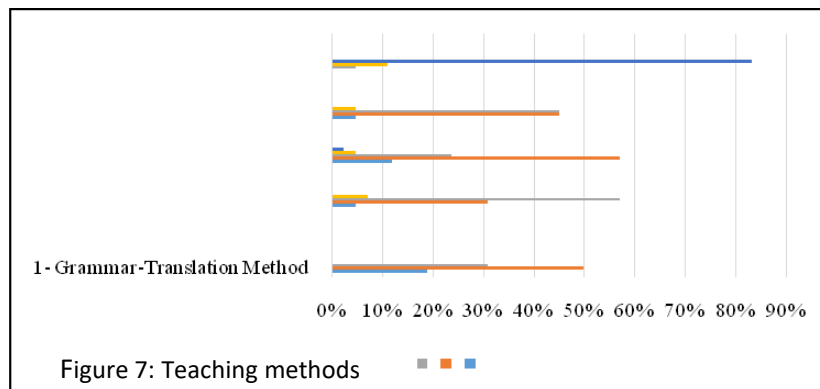


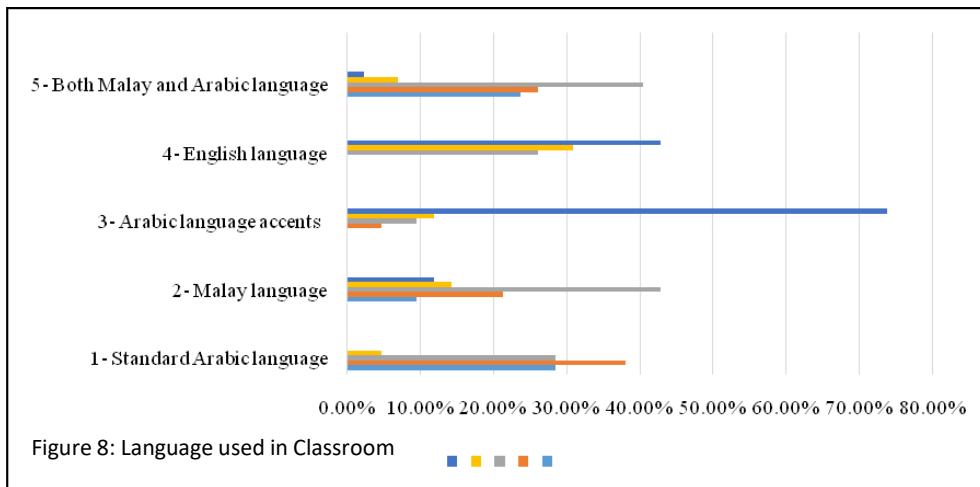
Table 7 shows that the grammar translation method and direct method has obtained the highest percentage (69%), which is approve that both of the methods has been applied frequently in the practical period. On the other hand, Audio-Lingual Method also becomes the method widely chosen by students for reaching (50%) in the frequency of using those methods. Besides that, the method of audiovisual got the lowest scale (35.8%). It seems that all these students are familiar with the teaching methods used in teaching and learning process based on the high percentage (95.2%) of their perception towards all these methods.

Language Used in Teaching Process

Table (8)

Language used in Classroom

The Language I used in explaining the lessons in Arabic language classroom	Frequency and Percentage					Total
	5	4	3	2	1	
1- Standard Arabic language	(%28.6) 12	(%38.1) 16	(%28.6) 12	(%4.8) 2	-	(%100.0) 42
2- Malay language	(%9.5) 4	(%21.4) 9	(%42.9) 18	(%14.3) 6	(%11.9) 5	(%100.0) 42
3- Arabic language accents	-	(%4.8) 2	(%9.5) 4	(%11.9) 5	(%73.8) 31	(%100.0) 42
4- English language	-	-	(%26.2) 11	(%31.0) 13	(%42.9) 18	(%100.0) 42
5- Both Malay and Arabic language	(%23.8) 10	(%26.2) 11	(%40.5) 17	(%7.1) 3	(%2.4) 1	(%100.0) 42



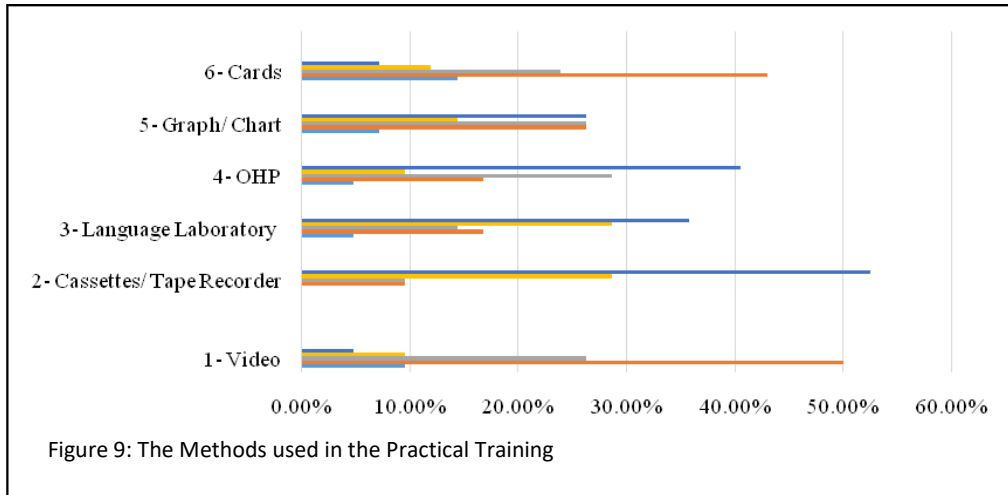
Based on the results shown in table 8, most of the students use standard Arabic language during the teaching process and their number reached up to 28 people (66.7 %), meanwhile second place goes to students who are mixing Arabic and Malay in their conversation. while the lower percentage is recorded for the use of Arabic accents (4.8%) and English language (0%) due to the lack of practices inside the classroom.

The Methods Used in Practical Training

Table (9)

The Methods Used in Practical Training

Methods used	Frequency and Percentage					Total
	5	4	3	2	1	
1- Video	(%9.5) 4	(%50.0) 21	(%26.2) 11	(%9.5) 4	(%4.8) 2	(%100.0) 42
2- Cassettes/ Tape Recorder	-	(%9.5) 4	(%9.5) 4	(%28.6) 12	(%52.4) 22	(%100.0) 42
3- Language Laboratory	(%4.8) 2	(%16.7) 7	(%14.3) 6	(%28.6) 12	(%35.7) 15	(%100.0) 42
4- OHP	(%4.8) 2	(%16.7) 7	(%28.6) 12	(%9.5) 4	(%40.5) 17	(%100.0) 42
5- Graph/ Chart	(%7.1) 3	(%26.2) 11	(%26.2) 11	(%14.3) 6	(%26.2) 11	(%100.0) 42
6- Cards	(%14.3) 6	(%42.9) 18	(%23.8) 10	(%11.9) 5	(%7.1) 3	(%100.0) 42



It is clearly explained in Table 5 that most of the students inclined towards using teaching assisted materials in practical training. It is recorded that most of them choose video (59.5%) and cards (57.2%), and then followed by graph/ chart (14 or 33.3%). From the results above, it seems that majority of the students gave less interest on using the other methods such as: tape recorder, language lab, and OHP as it only reached (between 9.5% and 21.5%) which is the lowest percentage out of all methods introduced.

From experience participant in the practical training, there are suggestions for the development of training programs in which it will contribute effectively to the teaching of Arabic in this university, as mention in the table at bellows:

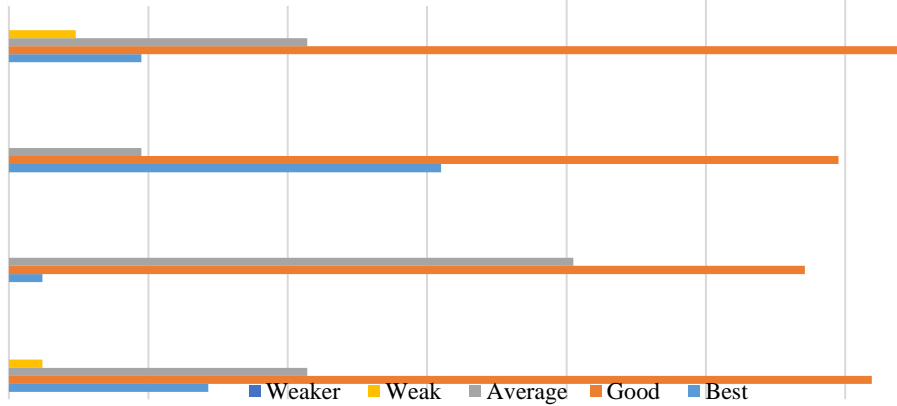
Practical Training

Table (10)

Skills used in Methods

Skills used in Methods	Frequency and Percentage					Total
	Best	Good	Average	Weak	Weaker	
1- Listening	(%14.3) 6	(%61.9) 26	(%21.4) 9	(%2.4) 1	-	(%100.0) 42
2- Speaking	(%2.4) 1	(%57.1) 24	(%40.5) 17	-	-	(%100.0) 42
3- Reading	(%31.0) 13	(%59.5) 25	(%9.5) 4	-	-	(%100.0) 42
4- Writing	(%9.5) 4	(%64.3) 27	(%21.4) 9	(%4.8) 2	-	(%100.0) 42

Figure 10: Skills used in Methods



Based on the results shown in Table 10 level of students' abilities in the four language skills during their practical training was recorded as it can be observed that they are proficient in all skills except for a few of them are still in the medium level. Reading skill got the highest rating (90.5% represents 38 students), followed by listening (76.2% represents 32 students) and then writing skill, which is recorded up to (73.8% represents 31 students). Meanwhile, conversation skill got the lease rating (59.5% represents 25 students). To sum up, it is possible to say that the most difficult skill to be mastered on is speaking skill.

Arabic Language Skills that Have Successfully Achieved at University Level

Table (11)

Skills used in successfully

Skills used in successfully	Frequency and Percentage					Total
	5	4	3	2	1	
1- Listening	(%50.0) 21	(%40.5) 17	(%9.5) 4	-	-	(%100.0) 42
2- Speaking	(%54.8) 23	(%33.3) 14	(%11.9) 5	-	-	(%100.0) 42
3- Reading	(%50.0) 21	(%40.5) 17	(%9.5) 4	-	-	(%100.0) 42
4- Writing	(%47.6) 20	(%38.1) 16	(%11.9) 5	(%2.4) 1	-	(%100.0) 42

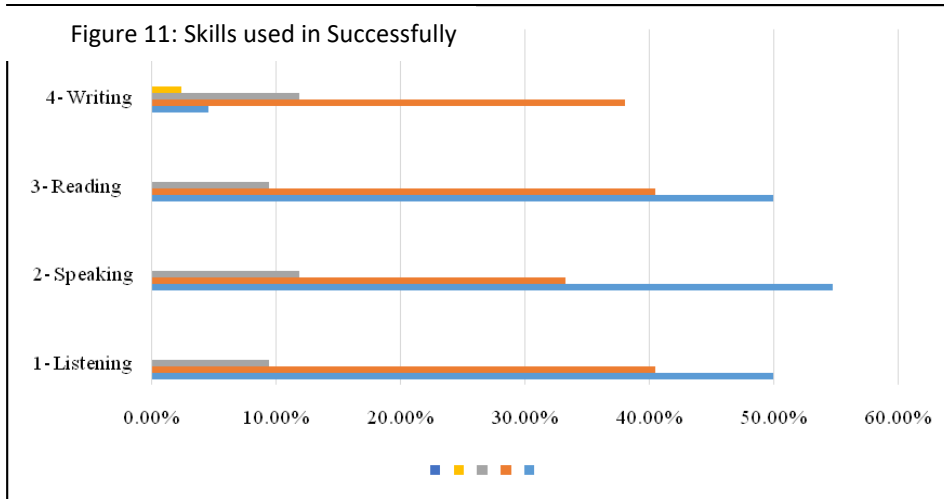


Table 11 shows that students' perceptions towards

Arabic language skills and their proficiency at the university level. It is identified that most of the students agreed on the important of listening and reading skills (90.5%) in realizing the success at the university. They also take into account as well as about the role of conversation skill (88.1%) and writing skill (85.7%) in rising up level of Arabic language.

Conclusion

Based on the result of this study, it recommended as a following:

As a ministry of Education must provide the opportunities to train the teachers before them starting work. And prepare t teachers training programs and workshops focused on in-service teachers in teaching skills, with relevant subjects.

As a lecturer and trainers teach them not only knowledge but skill as well and remind them the importance of knowledge and skill.

The Impact of Remittances on Socio-Economic Development - The Case of Kosova

Qëndresë Cuci

MSc Cand., Faculty of Economics, University of Prishtina 'Hasan Prishtina' Republic of Kosova

Abstract

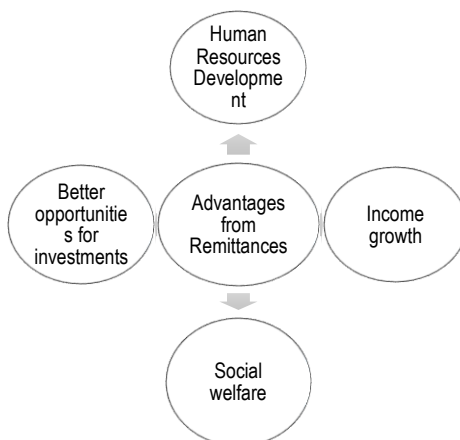
Another important indicator of a country's economic development is the inflation and the unemployment rate, and according to the latest report of Kosova Agency of Statistics, the percentage of unemployment in Kosova is around 30.9% and this is an indicator that the unemployment rate has been reduced compared to the previous years, on the other hand, the number of families receiving remittances is decreased for 2.6% compared to 2011 according to a ASK report.¹ Also the number of startups in 2012 has increased to 7,8792 which created new jobs. So, remittances re very important especially for developing countries such as Kosova. Taking into consideration the fact that Kosova is in the development phase, and the standard of living is very low, the number of population seeking to migrate is increasing continuously. According to statistics, the number of male migrants is higher compared with female igrants and rural settlements have shown an increase in migration compared to urban settlements. Our community is convinced that diaspora is an indicator in the economic development of our country, such as skills development for knowledge that they would benefit from, education, for consumption and commercial investments, all these for a higher standard of living.

Keywords: remittances, migration, income growth, efficiency, sustainable development, economic growth, social welfare.

Introduction

The economic growth in 2008 in Kosova was generated by the private consumptions increase and public investments, that to a certain extent were financed by remittances and foreign assistance.

Thus, migration has important social, economic, and political impact at home and abroad, and the international migration is increasing more than ever before in Kosova.



According to the authors of the influential book *The Age of Migration* (2003), Stephen Castles and Mark Miller, there can be few people in either industrialized or less developed countries today who do not have personal experience of migration (p. 5).

Study objectives

1. To reviews the effect of remittances on economic development as measured by GDP in Kosova during the period 2004-2013.
2. To review the Macroeconomic Impact of Remittances, an aggregate measure of economic growth;
3. To show the relationship of Remittances with other economic development key indicators such as incomes, consumption and investment;
4. To discuss the main features of labour migration and to generate an overall picture of current characteristics and trends;
5. To suggest regulatory frameworks, strategies and policies to improve economic growth.

Methodological approach

The methodological approach of this study follows using Pearson Correlation technique to evaluate the gathered quantitative data, to analyze the Impact of Remittances on GDP growth, respectively the Impact of Remittances on Economic Growth of Kosova.

The used model for this study consists of two variables: Remittances (in EUR) and GDP with current prices (in EUR).

Quantitative data were gathered from World Bank, Central Bank of the Republic of Kosova, Statistical Agency of the Republic of Kosova and United Nations Development Programme.

Description of Matrix Correlation

N - This is the number of valid (i.e., non-missing) observations used in calculating the t-test.

Mean - This is the mean of the variable.

Std. Deviation - This is the standard deviation of the variable.

When Pearson's r is close to 1

This means that there is a strong relationship between your two variables. This means that changes in one variable are strongly correlated with changes in the second variable.

When Pearson's r is close to 0

This means that there is a weak relationship between your two variables. This means that changes in one variable are not correlated with changes in the second variable.

When Pearson's r is positive (+)

This means that as one variable increases in value, the second variable also increase in value. Similarly, as one variable decreases in value, the second variable also decreases in value. This is called a positive correlation.

When Pearson's r is negative (-)

This means that as one variable increases in value, the second variable decreases in value. This is called a negative correlation.

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
GDP Current Prices	4916400.000	.	1
Remittances	457000.0000	.	1

Correlations

The matrix shows that Remittances have a positive influence in GDP growth.

Hence, this study presents Remittances as a factor that lead to economic growth, and has a positive Impact on Economic growth in Kosova.

		Remittances	GDP Current Prices
Pearson Correlation	GDP Current Prices	1.000	.
	Remittances	.	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	GDP Current Prices	.	.
	Remittances	.	.
N	GDP Current Prices	1	1
	Remittances	1	1

Remittances, Economic Development & Social Welfare

1. How important are Remittances for our country? Positive & negative effects

Kosova as a developing country is very dependant on remittances, it is as one of the country's largest financial inflows and are used in different means, as consumption, clothes, education services and investments. A great number of Kosovars have migrated abroad before the war of 1999, and they still continue to do so mostly for political and economical reasons, but most of them or expressed in percentage around 86% migrated for economical reasons. An important fact which we should pay attention is the fact that those remittances have a low usage in education services and investments, and the creation of monetary and fiscal policies for promotion of investments should be a top priority of government authorities and agencies. Remittances are a great contribution in the overall GDP in Kosova which count for 9.3% of overall GDP according to a survey on remittances of family economies in 2013 of Kosova Agency of Statistics in cooperation with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

Although remittances are very important for developing countries, however except for positive effects, remittances are considered to have negative effects also, such as the discouragement of population for employment, as their remittances are slightly higher than the income from employment, but still for Kosova's case the negative effects are not a problem, because more than half of the population is between 15-24 years old or 55% of population able to work. Another negative factor is the loss of human resources capital from migration to other countries.

Alternatively, remittances can boost economic growth by increasing incomes, consumption and investment.

Political and economical factors are the main factors of migration in foreign countries, since that major social indicators are the poverty and low incomes in the country. The average salary in Kosova in 2012, was 272.00 Euro, and the main source of income in Kosova are salaries, whereas prices of consumption are very high compared with the standard of living, price of consumption as yearly average is calculated in 7.3% .

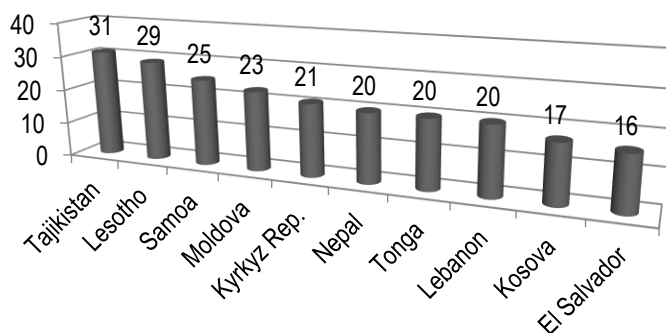
Table 1. Remittances received in Kosova during the years

Year	Average of remittances in cash, goods and services	Average spending of emigrants in Euro	Total of annual remittances in cash, goods and services	Total of annual spending of emigrants	Total of annual received remittances
2010	€ 3.331	€ 2.757	€ 174.3 million	€ 272.4 million	€ 446.7 million
2011	€ 2.136	€ 2.352	€ 157.5 million	€ 214.1 million	€ 371.6 million
2012	€ 2.829	€ 2.715	€ 186.9 million	€ 270.1 million	€ 457 million

Source: Survey on remittances of family economies 2013' Kosova Agency of Statistics and UNDP

Kosova is in the list of 139 developing countries, and below are presented the flow of remittances and their influence in economic growth in developing countries for period of 2012-2014, where it is evident that remittances play an important economic role, and remittances are the main indicators of their development. In 2010, there was an increase in remittances from 8% from 2010. Economic crisis and the high unemployment rate are the main factors that influence migration and remittances according to the expert for migration, remittances and economic development from Group for Economic Development of World Bank. As seen in the below chart, Kosova remittances count for 17% of GDP in 2010.

Fig. 1 Remittances in % of GDP 2010



Source: Outlook for migration and remittances 2012-14, Dilip Ratha, World Bank

2. Remittances, other economic indicators and GDP growth

Remittances are considered as economic growth generators and GDP growth which is calculated in the income of a country and are an indicator of economic growth or standoff of a country. According to Kosova Agency of Statistics, economic growth in Kosova in 2012 has been positive and reached 2,721 Euro per capita, which has been generated from increase of private consumption and public investments which are made possible thanks to the remittances, and other bank loans, government spending for political and economical reasons.

Economical indicators

Real growth for GDP 2.5 % (2012)

GDP per capita (in Euro) 2,721 (2012)

Consumer price index (annual average) 7.3%

Export of goods (in thousands euro) 276,100 (2012)

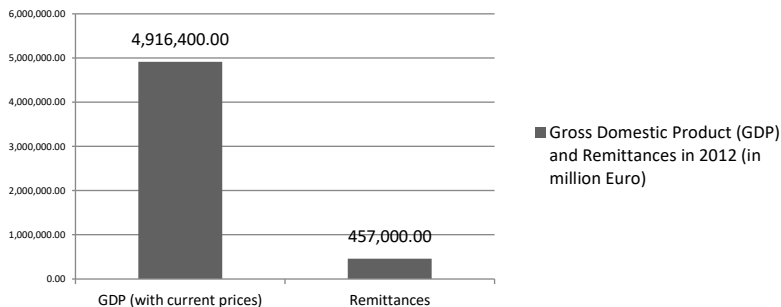
Import of goods (in thousands euro) 2,507,609 (2012)

Number of new enterprises established 7,879

Source: *Economical statistics 2011-2012*

According to statistical data of Kosova Agency of Statistics, remittances in Kosova marked an increase of 23.1% compared with the previous year, which was 457 million Euro, or 9.3% of Gross Domestic Product, a fact that tells the remittances have an important meaning and are a big contributor in sustainable economic development and improvement of social welfare for population of Kosova, but an important issue is the allocation of this income, the way people spend them, whether consumption, education or investment!

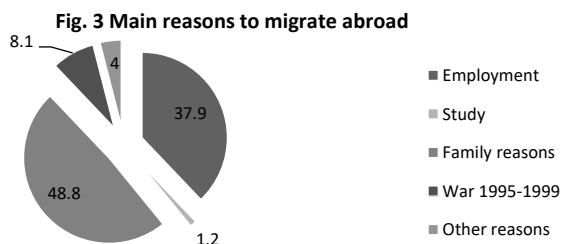
Fig. 2 Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Remittances in 2012 (in million Euro)



Source: KAS 'Report of Gross Domestic Product in access of spending 2004-2012

3. Migration, main reasons for migration

An advantage of Kosova population in rapport with migration is the knowledge of foreign languages. Statistics have shown that at least 44.5% of the population speak at least one foreign language, which facilitates the adoption in the country of migration. A concerning aspect for Kosova government is the illegal migration, an aspect that government authorities are working to prevent, and promote legal migration in compliance with European standards and Kosova law for migration. Effective management of migration would encourage mobility in the region, this could be done through different trainings of international organisations in collaboration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for raising awareness of citizens for consequences that come as a result of illegal migration. According to a report of Central Bank of Kosova around 60% of diaspora population have permanent residency status, 34% have temporary residency, and only 1.2% are on study permits. The following analysis tell that te main reason for migration is the economic purpose with a percentage of 48.8% an only 1.2% migrate for study purposes, because economic conditions are a barrier to study abroad.



Source: Population census 2011

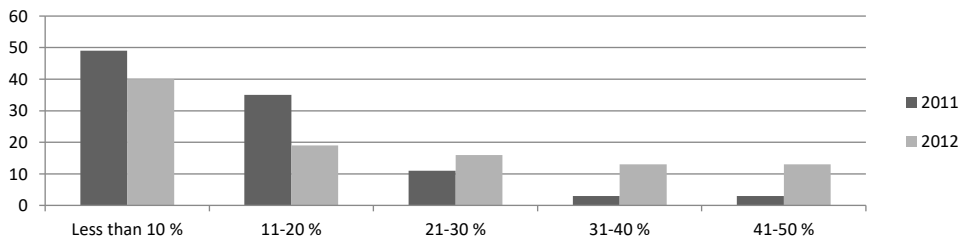
a. Countries where most of Kosovars migrate 2012/2013

The largest number of immigrants is after 1999 with 52.1% of migrants, and most of them have migrated to Germany and Switzerland. Rural settlements are those that migrate the most. Average age of migrants is around 41 years. Countries where most of Kosovars migrate are host countries such as, Germany, Switzerland, France, Slovenia, Austria, but some of them also live in the USA, Canada, Australia etc. A factor that has impact on remittances is the amendment of policies for immigration in migrant countries.

b. Allocation of Remittances in Kosova and their effective treatment

A factor which influences the identification of information is that the most of income sent in form of a remittance is sent as cash, and this is due to the high bank interest rates and commissions from money transfer institutions. Creation of a favorable environment to send remittances would be an advantage for correct statistical data. From Figure no. 4 we can see that 40% of immigrants' income is sent in Kosova in form of remittances, but their usage is still a challenge for Kosova's economy.

Fig. 4 Percentages of income from immigrants sent in Kosova

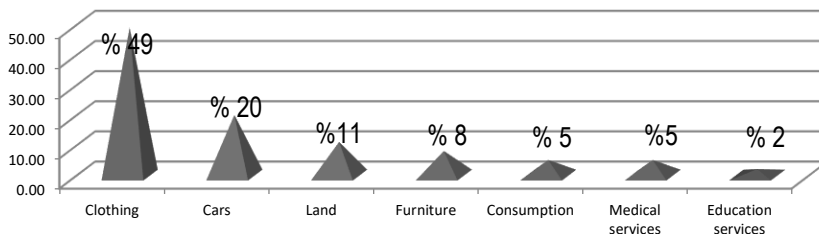


Source: Survey on remittances of family economies 2013'Kosova Agency of Statistics and UNDP

The best way of contribution from immigrants in sustainable economic development of the country would be for them to open new individual businesses, this way they could contribute in the increase of income for consumption, better social welfare for family economies, and at the same time contribute to a higher standard of living and economic development. Most of the businesses in Kosova are established through personal income, and least from different donations.

Total annual of remittances in cash sent from emigrants is considered to be 186.9 million Euro, whereas total annual spending of emigrants is 270.1 million Euro that count annual income from remittances in Kosova is 457 million Euro. A good way of promoting diasporas' investments would be through creation of consortiums with local businesses in Kosova, which has proven to be very successful in developed countries. Promoting of such projects and initiatives for effective treatment of remittances would have a great impact in Kosova's economy. Below we can see a distribution of remittances in goods and services, where we can notice a standoff in using the income for educational services and investments. Creation of a system for direct investments from remittances would help in better allocation of remittances.

Fig. 5 Distribution of remittances in goods and services



Source: Survey on remittances of family economies 2013'Kosova Agency of Statistics and UNDP

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions:

- Kosova is very dependant on Remittances;
- High commissions and interest rates for remittances;
- Income from remittances are used the least for education services and investment;
- Income from remittances generate employment opportunities;
- Remittances impact on GDP growth & reduction of unemployment rate;
- Difficulty in gathering correct data, due to the fact that most remittances are sent in cash;
- Risks from economic crisis in Western Europe, and amendments of immigration laws may affect remittances.
- How government uses its mechanisms to improve economic growth, creation of a favourable environment for investment, employment opportunities, and social welfare is of a huge importance.

Recommendations:

- Investment of income from remittances in educational services and establishment of entrepreneurship companies that generate new employment opportunities;
- Engaging Diaspora in Economic Development through investment;
- Initiation of Diaspora Investments in creating entrepreneurship opportunities;
- Government authorities to facilitate doing business in Kosova, by reducing or removing taxes, loan interest rates for start-up businesses;
- Promoting Projects/Initiatives/Investments with remittances as components;
- Since Kosova has a non sufficient budget for investments, it is considered that only direct investments can help Kosova to have a sustainable economy, so, the creation of favourable environment for investments is a must;
- Creation of effective fiscal policies to promote investments from diaspora;
- Organising of an International Conference for promotion of investments in Kosova by using different modalities and good practices from abroad;
- Introduction of a system for specific allocation of remittances in education;
- Introduction of a 'National Migration Information System', by offering correct and up to date statistics regarding migration;
- The promotion of Internal control over the migration of citizens.

References

- Kosova Agency of Statistics, Department of Statistics (2004-2012). Gross Domesitc Product on Expenditure Approach
- Kosova Agency of Statistics, Department of Statistics (2011-2012). *Economic Statistics*
- Kosova Agency of Statistics, Department of Statistics (2012). Labour Force Survey in Kosova
- UNDP, USAID (2010). Kosova Remittance Study
- Dilip Ratha, World Bank (2012-2014). Outlook for Migration and Remittances
- Kosova Agency of Statistics dhe UNDP Kosova (2013). Housholds Surveys on Remmittances
- Kosova Agency of Statistics, Department of Statistics (2011). Estimation of Kosova Population
- World Bank (2011). Migration and Remittances, Factbook
- World Bank, Dilip Ratha (2012-14). Outlook for migration and remittances
- Central Bank of the Republic of Kosova (2008). Central Bank Annual Report
- Koser K. (2007). International Migration: a very short introduction
- Stephen Castles and Mark Miller p.5 (2003). The Age of Migration

Professional Development in Greek Military Services. Searching a Dominant Leadership Style

Elissavet Karageorgou

MSc, MEd, PhD Cand. Harokopio University, Athens, Greece,

Georgios Deligeorgiou

MSc, PhD Cand. Harokopio University, Athens, Greece

Lazaros Rizopoulos

BA, MSc, PhD Cand. Peloponnese University, Tripoli, Greece

Theodoros Stefou

MSc, PhD Cand. Harokopio University, Athens, Greece

Abstract

Leadership is a focal concept to the functioning of all modern organizations. The leader of an organization is the architect required to create vision and strategy. Management and leadership, the third ranking of administration, is a motivating and guiding Human Resource (HR) in order to contribute effectively to achieving the objectives of an organization. A military service is a complex living mixture of body collections, roles, rules and culture. In terms of numbers, the Greek Army has hundreds of hierarchical structures and about 70,000 active personnel. There is a clear gradation of hierarchy and a code of ethics. At the same time, there is individual leadership, where a military leader commands his/her unit with a distinct and personal style. This research aims at seeking a leadership style based on a personal level to be exercised within the framework of strict structures of HR, that, when effectively exercised, helps younger military leaders improve themselves and also to be used as a proper model in a common basis for thinking and learning about leadership. Fifty officers provided relevant information by filling-in a corresponding number of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) with forty five close-ended questions, which count the extent of leadership styles as Full Range Leadership: Transformational, Transactional and Avoidant. The MLQ also examines Leadership Outcomes: Extra Effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction. Data elaboration and statistical analysis were performed. The dominant leadership style and potential vision resulting from this style are indentified.

Keywords: Leadership, Greek Military Force

Introduction

Leadership is known to be a set of procedures needed by organisations not only for their existance but also for improving their ability of adapting to conditions when they are changed. Leadership determines the future of the organisation orients personnel according to the operational vision and inspires them to accomplish goals, despite any obstacles that should arise.

The concept of leadership is examined not only as the administrative post of the superior, but also as the style he uses as he manages. In a rapidly changing world, where constant growth of agencies and organizations is a prerequisite, maintaining competitiveness and comparative advantage on offering their services, in order to fulfill their function, depends primarily on the Management - Leadership style running through them.

Literature Review

Trying to find the interpretation of the term Management in literature, it can be defined as the process of efficient use of organizational resources to pursue the primary objectives of the organization. Resources are existing factors that are

owned or controlled by the organization and they are distinguished as human (management, skills, knowledge), as organizational (planning and organizing systems, coordination and control methods) and as physical (technology, equipment, hardware, software). The ability of a resource to become a source of a sustainable competitive advantage depends on four (4) basic characteristics (Niveroglou, 2008):

- (1) To be usable in the sense of the possibility of exploitation of environmental opportunities.
- (2) To be rare among existing and potential competitors.
- (3) To be difficult to a complete replication.
- (4) There are no substitutes that could be used by competitors.

From the term Management derives the term Manager, indicating the person who performs work by using people and other material resources. The exact meaning of the term Manager is limited to that person who exercises its managerial functions to achieve results through other people. This means that a Manager is responsible for other people's results and at the same time he has the right to exercise power over them. In Greek, the concept of manager is best expressed in the concept of Head - Director regardless of hierarchical level he is.

According to the Hellenic Armed Forces (AF), there is a clear separation between the terms "Commander" and "Leader" and between the terms "Management" and "decision-making procedure". According to the Field Manual 181-1 "Management and Leadership":

"... Command in the AF is the legally exercised power by a person to his subordinates, which stems from his rank and the duties entrusted to him or by his hierarchical level. This power comes with the Commander's responsibility to his superiors and subordinates to carry out the mission entrusted to him. Management in the Army is founded legally according to the Military and Joint Criminal Code.

Management is the operation of planning, organizing, coordinating, directing and controlling of personnel, tools, materials time and money that are available, for the successful implementation of a specific mission.

Leadership is defined as the art by which a leader influences and directs others in such a way as to gain their trust, obedience, respect, cooperation between individuals and their faithful dedication to achieve a common purpose ..." (Hellenic Army General Staff, 1988).

Military administration - and as such it will be understood hereinafter the command of troops from their natural leaders - presents some peculiarities in comparison with other forms of administration, such as public administration, church administration etc., due to the following major reasons:

- (1) Military administration's target is to prepare troops for war
- (2) For the above reason, a military commander is imposing a high degree of discipline
- (3) Military administration is sometimes exercised in very dangerous and difficult circumstances, such as war or crucial situations
- (4) Good or bad military administration could directly affect the lives of troops and in wartime is directly related to homeland security

The main differences between a military commander and a manager are (Hellenic Army General Staff, 1989):

- (1) The commander does not select and then hire his staff. Soldiers are placed to units according to their rank and their specialty. If he has not enough personnel or the troops' skills are not the appropriate, then he should do his best with it.
- (2) The staff turnover is much frequent than in a business. A manager has no problems of frequent staff rotations, unlike the military leader.

(3) Soldiers are much younger than most personnel in any business. The majority of them have not worked again. Many had never even been away from their home. All of them need to learn and adapt to a completely new lifestyle when they join the army.

(4) The Commander has more power to personnel than any manager. Soldiers may be punished or penalised for acts that in a job in civilian life would go unnoticed.

(5) The Commander has a great responsibility for his soldiers. He is responsible for their actions not only during their service but also on their free time outside the unit, which is not usually the case in companies.

(6) When the Commander considers necessary that the personnel have to work overtime to carry out their mission, soldiers are not getting additional payment for overtime.

(7) However, the most important of all is that the Commander expects his troops to accept the possibility of dying on the battlefield in order to carry out their mission.

In the AF it is also possible to control effectively and to determine the person responsible for the best execution of each mission (Saiti, 2008; Saitis, 2008) and the Service must make sure that in critical positions there are officers who possess the decision-making skill, or, in other words, who have the conditions to be qualified as "leaders" (Saitis, 2014).

Methodology

In order to conduct this research, 50 officers provided relevant information by answering a set of 45 close-ended questions specifically designed for the survey, with a response rate of 100%. Data elaboration and statistical analysis were performed. All results of descriptive statistics among the variables are presented and a comment analysis of key results has been made, with some additional proposals.

Analysis of Results

A. Participants' profile

The male officers' percentage (86%) was significantly higher than that of females (14%). 36% of them hold the rank of Major, 28% the rank of Captain, 26% the rank of Lieutenant Colonel and the rest of them serve as Second Lieutenants, Colonels. It is worth mentioning that most of the respondents serve to Attiki region (46%), almost one in five (18%) serves in border region and specifically in Thrace, 16% serves in Macedonia region and the rest of them serve in Sterea Region, Epirus and Islands. The biggest sample (42%) has an experience of 21 to 30 years of service in the Army and a 38% has a similar experience of 11 to 20 years. The respondents' field of duty is in Administration at the largest percentage (38%) whereas the 22% attends higher Army Academies. As far as education level is concerned, 44% stated that they have a University degree, 30% reported that besides their basic Army School graduation they have no other educational diploma, 18% holds a master degree and only a 2% holds a PhD Diploma. 84% of the officers' sample are married, 14% are single and 2% or divorced.

As far as their educational training-besides all basic Army Schools- 80% stated that they have been trained and most of them (62%) have been trained interservice. The rest of them are split to several training courses from Municipalities, from Private Sector, from Universities etc. Almost all of them (94%) are familiar with one foreign language. Half of them speak fluently the English language.

B. Special questions. Some interesting results came up when data elaboration was performed. 54% of the sample stated that their immediate supervisor officer very often/always provides assistance, in return of their efforts. Almost half of the respondents (46%) said that their supervisor never/rarely avoids to interfere to a problem, until it becomes serious. 80% of them also stated that their supervisor never/rarely avoids getting involved when important issues arise. He also never/rarely (at a percentage of 92%) is absent when there is a need. 74% of the officers said that their supervisor often/very often makes them feel proud of him. 78% believes that the supervisor often/very often states clearly who is responsible for achieving specific objectives. He never/rarely waits until something goes wrong to intervene, as 76% said, and speaks often/very often in an enthusiastic way about the needs to be fulfilled (74%). 82% said that he never/rarely seems to be stable in the point of view: if something is broken, don't fix it" and 84% states that he never/rarely avoids making decisions.

Additionally he very often/always (at a percentage of 72% of the respondents) determines the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. However, only half of them (56%) believe that their supervisor often/very often set the teams' good above personal interest, but when it comes to teaching and guiding, 62% feel that he can often/very often manage that in a successful way. 66% of the sample has the opinion that his supervisor works in a way that earns officers' respect, although 68% thinks that the supervisor monitors every mistake they make.

It is worth mentioning that the supervisor refers to his own values and beliefs at a range of 28% rarely, 30% often and 22% very often, and speaks with optimism about the future in a same way ie rarely 20%, 30% often and 32% very often. He also seems to focus his attention to errors, exceptions and irregularities from standards at a percentage of 22% rarely, 30% often and 38% very often. Into the same average result to the question of the frequency of treating the officer as an individual rather than a simple member of a group, since the outcome is: rarely at the percentage of 24%, often at 20% and very often at 24%. The officers highly believe (70%) think that he often/very often helps them develop their own potential and that he urges to see problems spherically. He also is thought to often/very often emphasize on the importance of a collective sense of mission (62%). Generally, supervisors are thought to often/very often respond to officers' job needs (66%). They also use often/very often (74%) satisfactory leadership methods and work very often/always with satisfaction with the officers, so they often/very often manage to increase desire for success and respond effectively to Services' requirements. In that way, supervisors at a high level (68%) often/very often increase officers' willingness to do more and manage very often/always (70%) to lead their team effectively.

Discussion

Through observation and all data analysis, literature seems to be confirmed as far as the main factors that effectively influence the motivation for efficient work in the army. In more detail, it is clear that the majority of army personnel want to be satisfied by their own personal efforts and have a highly developed sense of their duty. They also have a well developed desire for stability and security in their unit and believe that their Supervisor's actions will make them proud for serving in the specific unit. As long as inspiration and motivation are concerned, the majority believes that their Supervisor explains the necessity of each task to be performed and that their efforts are recognized, in the form of moral compensations. Moreover, it seems that the Supervisor inspires faith, trust, respect, internal discipline and morale to his personnel.

On the other hand, there are not clear conclusions on the Supervisors behavior, regarding his optimistic approach about the future, about his focusing on errors and deviations from the standard and about referring to his personal beliefs and values. There is also not a clear aspect whether the Supervisor has the ability to represent his personnel's needs and suggestions to higher ranking levels and about his effectiveness to treats his subordinates as individuals or as members of a group (unit).

It is obvious from the MLQ results that the style of Avoidant Full Range leadership is not observed in the Hellenic AF. The tendency is to accept the Transactional style as dominant, but more elaboration is needed in order to conclude safely. Also data elaboration and statistical analysis show that Leadership Outcomes - Extra Effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction - have a result that also is tending to accept Effectiveness as a potential vision.

Proposals

Through this first attempt in monitoring and seeking a leadership style based on a personal level to be exercised within the framework of strict structures of HR, it is clear that certain tensions exist in the Hellenic AF, which should be further studied and analysed in order to establish concrete conclusions. Additionally, there are certain factors that need to be studied so to form a more clear opinion of the personnel questioned.

It is derived from the existing data that there is a need for motivating Supervisors to avoid focusing their attention to monitoring and confronting mistakes, failures and complaints. It is also clear that subordinates think their Supervisor is using satisfactory leadership methods, so there is no need to dramatically change any leader's training course.

In this specific study, the effects of the economic crisis in Greece were not taken into account in MLQ, so there cannot be any conclusion regarding the Supervisor's approach to the financial problems of his staff that affect their work production.

References

- Dawson, T., (1993), *Principles of Practice of Modern Management*, Tudor Business Publishing Ltd
- Hellenic Army General Staff, (1988), *Field Manual 181-1 (FM 181-1, Command and Leadership)*, Athens
- Hellenic Army General Staff, (1989), *Field Manual 181-3 (FM 181-3, Management)*, Athens
- Karageorgou, E. & Stefou, T., (2014), *The teacher as a leader in educational project management in Second Chance Schools. Perceptions of Greek Adult Students*, in: International Conference on Advances in Management, Economics and Social Science MES 2014, Italy: Rome
- Niveroglou, G., (2008), *Leadership opposed to Administrative Management in the Armed Forces*, Master Thesis. Thessaloniki: Supreme Joint War College
- Saiti, A., (2008), Educational evaluation, *Pedagogical Training of OAED Education*, School of Pedagogical and Technological Education (ASPATE), University of Athens (UOA), Recovery from <http://hdl.handle.net/10795/1099>
- Saitis, C., (2008), *Organization and Management of Education*, Athens: Self edition
- Saitis, C., (2014), *Initiation of teachers in the secrets of school leadership*, Athens: Self edition

TABLE 1

My immediate supervisor (Degree of acceptance of the following sentences by the respondents (%))	Never	Rarely	Often	Very Often	Always
1. Provides assistance, in return for my efforts	0	20	26	40	14
2. Reviews critical elements that are taken for granted and wonders if they are suitable	0	18	40	28	14
3. Does not interfere until the problem become serious	12	34	32	14	8
4. Focuses his attention to irregularities, errors, exceptions and deviations from standards.	8	22	30	38	2
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	36	44	16	2	2
6. Refers to his own important values and beliefs	10	28	30	22	10
7. Is absent when is need.	56	36	6	2	0
8. Looks for different perspectives in addressing problems	4	20	40	28	8
9. Speaks with optimism about the future	2	20	30	32	16
10. Makes me feel proud for cooperating with him	2	8	28	46	16
11. States clearly who is responsible for achieving specific objectives	2	4	34	44	16
12. Waits for something to go wrong to intervene	28	48	10	12	2
13. Speaks enthusiastically about the needs to be met	4	10	38	36	12
14. Determines the importance, having a strong sense of purpose	2	0	26	48	24
15. Devotes time to teaching and guiding	2	16	38	24	20
16. Makes clear of what result should anyone wait to get when the objectives are achieved	4	10	32	42	12
17. Seems to be stable in the view: "If something is broken, do not fix it."	54	28	10	2	6
18. Puts the good of the team above personal interest	4	22	30	26	18

19. Treats me more like a separate individual rather than simply as a member of the group	10	24	30	24	12
20. Follows the tactics that problems must exist for long before take an action.	58	18	14	6	4
21. Works in a way that earns my respect	2	8	24	42	24
22. Focuses his attention solely to monitoring and confronting mistakes, complaints and failures	12	28	46	10	4
23. Thinks the ethical consequences of decisions	2	14	42	26	16
24. Monitors every mistake made	0	14	44	24	18
25. Demonstrates a sense of strength and confidence	0	6	26	42	26
26. Displays an exciting vision for the future	6	30	32	26	6
27. Draws my attention when I do not meet the standards.	4	20	44	26	6
28. Avoids making decisions	44	40	10	4	2
29. Faces me, compared with others, as an individual with different needs, abilities and aspirations	18	28	30	14	10
30. Urges me to see problems from many different angles	4	12	36	34	14
31. Helps me develop my potential	4	12	26	44	14
32. Proposes new ways to complete a project	2	14	28	38	18
33. Delays to provide a solution to urgent issues	40	44	10	0	6
34. Emphasizes how important it is to have a collective sense of mission	2	10	40	32	16
35. Welcomes my response to his expectations	2	10	24	44	20
36. Expresses his confidence that the objectives will be achieved	2	6	30	44	18
37. Responds effectively to my job needs	2	12	24	42	20
38. Uses satisfactory leadership methods	4	10	20	54	12
39. Manages to make me do more than I would expect	4	24	32	32	8
40. Represents me effectively at senior levels	6	16	24	32	22
41. Works with me satisfactorily	2	4	20	42	32
42. Increases desire for success	4	6	28	46	16
43. Responds effectively to the requirements of the Service	0	4	22	40	34
44. Increases my willingness to try more	2	12	24	44	18
45. Leads a team that is effective	2	14	14	52	18

Implementing Project-Based Experiential Learning in Post-Graduate Studies in Greece: a Case Study

Karageorgou Elissavet, PhD Cand.

Koutrouba Konstantina, Assoc. Prof.

Harokopion University, Athens, Greece

Abstract

The present questionnaire-based study examines the outcomes of project-based learning procedures in Greek University postgraduate classes, where the project entitled "Traffic Signs" takes place. Master in Education students at Harokopio University provided relevant information by answering a set of close-ended questions specifically designed for the research. Data elaboration and statistical analysis were performed. The results of the study showed that, according to MEd students, the teachers' role during the carrying-out of the project remains crucial, since s/he establishes the rules of communication, defines the objectives, simplifies the learning material and intervenes in a supportive way to strengthen students' cognitive background and self-confidence, to overcome setbacks and facilitate constructive cooperation. The research also showed that as long as projects' implementation during postgraduate studies are well-designed, attractive and demanding regarding high-ranked cognitive and socio-affective abilities, they meet satisfactorily students' academic needs and expectations and refresh, deepen and expand the positive outcomes of the learning procedure even in scientific domains where very often University teachers tend to avoid the use of more innovative teaching methods.

Keywords: project-based learning, post-graduate studies, 'Traffic Signs', Greece

Introduction

It is commonly accepted that the majority of higher education institutions' curricula at both undergraduate and postgraduate level are often criticized in recent years. The majority of them are based on teaching methods which intend only to transmit information to students, turning them into passive receivers. They are mainly overloaded mainly with theoretical content, which often students fail to digest and put into practice (Karageorgou, 2011). New and innovative teaching methods are proposed in order to promote consistency between theory and practice. One of these is learning-based Research Project (Project Based Learning, PBL), which is a popular and powerful teaching tool, suitable for teaching into several practical courses (Janeck & Bleek, 2002). It can be applied at both undergraduate and postgraduate courses, as it is clearly focused to students as units (Barrows & Tamblyn, 1980).

Literature Review

Literature defines the trainers' role in work plans and a university teacher is a trainer and a facilitator during the project. An academic teacher-student relationship has to be collaborative, such as the relationship between colleagues. It is important to trust all students in achieving the objectives of the course, as they can suggest possible sources of information after examining their suitability. Through PBL projects, students deal with issues-problems of the real world, so all necessary knowledge is built on the subject and talents and skills can cultivate through group cooperation. As in all work plans, students lead themselves to the development of the final project, constitute the final outcome of the design work and eventually assimilate to actual working conditions (Vlamos, 2013).

Students are "free" to determine their own objectives of how to analyze the problem, seek relevant and useful information to efficiently manage the available time at their disposal for the completion of the project, to design, develop and monitor the progress of each option plan to complete the work (Kilroy, 2011).

Project is the main alternative educational strategy for adults, along with case study and role-play (Blumenfeld, 1991). It is considered to be highly appropriate due to the fact that learners take initiatives; it involves discovery learning, group work, individualized instruction, extension of work beyond one lesson, final presentation and the reversal of teacher roles, from instructor to coordinator and a facilitator of the process. Project is based on two very important principles: that of social interaction and collaboration and that of interdisciplinarity. It highly contributes to students' assessment because trainers have to evaluate participation and willingness of trainees to promote their work (Karageorgou, 2011).

Indicative areas of Project Based Learning courses' implementation are- besides Education -the Research Methodology, Technology, Economy & Innovation and Modeling. Examples Interim Project- based Courses are marginalization of gifted students, use Webcast in the educational process, improving activities of extracurricular activities, the historical development of nationalism, map pollutants in urban areas, improving turbine efficiency, stem cell modeling, seismic identity of buildings etc (Vlamos, 2013).

Project implementation has several results in students such as cultivation of transferable skills, which can be applied to areas other than those acquired and include communication skills, ability to work in a team, critical thinking and self-assessment and link between theory and practice (Karageorgou & Koutrouba, 2014). Students discuss various alternatives during their meetings, argue and develop tolerance of ambiguities, appreciate the knowledge from various sources, develop analytical thinking skills and cultivate self-directed learning skills (Barrows & Tamblyn, 1980).

Stages of Implementation of Action Plans in Higher Education and Steps Followed

The steps in preparing a work plan at undergraduate and postgraduate level follow the same rules as steps of each project. Initially, students set the scope management (scope of the work), the mission statement (general purpose) and the goals of the project (specific objectives) of each work, they create working groups, define the project manager (leader of each group) and the time management (schedule of work). Each team determines the activities required for the development of their work and makes division operations; in that way, they are able to find the optimal path (critical path) of work. A necessary condition for the proper course and group operation is the quality management (quality management) and communication management (communication management) (Vlamos, 2013). Important is the role of the leader in each group, and the flexibility of the leader to enrolle with students, so that possible discrepancies that had been received from the predetermined schedule, to change (Karageorgou & Stefou, 2014). Additionally, the team coordinator is the link for communication between students and academic teachers-mentors and finally has the role to present the work results in people who may vary from classmates to academics (Blumenfeld, 1991).

The steps of the educational process are essentially the same as defined above, ie initial clarification of terms and concepts which have not been understood, following the definition of the problem and the analysis that leads to the formulation of ideas and assumptions, gather all explanations and formulate the objectives of learning, add more information, synthesis and testing of new knowledge gained. The problem chosen to 'trigger' learning usually arises from the objectives of the specific session ((Spector et al, 2008). It must be based on actual data, reflect accurately the situations facing the students in the workplace and it is prudent to have an appropriate level of complexity, in order to motivate students and to provoke interest in learning and not find it simplistic or boring, but at the same time not be too complex in order not to discourage. The theme of the project needs special care, no limitation to reference and theoretical knowledge-important to fit into the semester in which students are and their level of knowledge - cognitive maturation (Vlamos, 2013).

The project methodology splits in skeptical and empirical basis, ie the theoretical substance of the matter and the practical reality. Students should keep in mind that the more empirical data they collect, the more strengthened their theory is and easier the next steps will be to make description, correlation, prediction and causality through variable control Schmidt et al, 2006). The project objective is to find reliable solutions to practical problems through systematic and planned collection, analysis and interpretation of data, especially when the research is applied, that is performed in order to acquire new knowledge, but directed primarily towards a specific practical aim or objective and finally transform ideas into functional form. Such a project may contribute to technological development is being held with systematic work which draws from the knowledge gained from research and practical experience, and is directed to produce new materials, products or devices, to installing new processes, systems and services, or to improving substantially those already produced or installed (Spector et al, 2008).

The purpose of this research is to investigate both the theoretical and research role of academic teachers as leaders' during project management, according to the perceptions of learners. The survey is carried out on postgraduate students due to the fact that there is no extensive research on the use of alternative teaching methods in postgraduate studies.

Traffic Signs

The project that was carried out involved Mathematics, Home Economics, IT, Physics, Greek Language, Social and Political Education and Art lessons. It was applied as an example of alternative teaching technique due to the fact that it is short in duration (three-hour implementation) and mixes basic geometrical terms such as 2-dimension shapes, symmetry rules and traffic education coming out of the lesson of Home Economics, the basic lesson that undergraduate alumni from the Department of "Home Economics and Ecology" in Harokopion University are allowed to teach in Gymnasiums and of the lesson Social and political Education. Those were the basic lessons involved which had a lot of cognitive subjects to be learned. In Mathematics-Geometry in particular- all cognitive goals to be achieved were clearly set and into the curricula, in Home Economics and Social and Political Education however, the cognitive goals were not so strictly specified by curricula and they included personal opinions from driving/walking into the streets, driving abilities and personal experience in driving behavior. The rest lessons came in to fill-in equally the cognitive side of the project, so all these lessons could conclude to the final result successfully. Before project began, all students were informed about projects' theme. They were also informed that it would be helpful to bring with them all project theory, so in every step they could be in trainers' "shoes", so at the beginning, the first step was omitted. All students were split to teams of 5 persons each. At that point, all implementation tools ie cartons, post-it papers, glue, straws, colorful markers, scissors, and pieces of A4 paper were put on desk. They had also all IT technology at their allowance ie laptops, wifi access, projectors etc. The class was enthusiastic as they were face to face with something not familiar to them (Pic1, 6). Although Mathematics tends to scare them, the fact that they had all their notes with them, by teachers' guidance, they felt better on the way. After that stage, they were free to cut in circle or in any other shape all traffic signs they remembered and draw them with the markers (Pic4, 5), so they were able to "play" and feel children again, and discover their talent in creativity. (Pic3). The final product which included also a pp presentation was completed and presented to other students (Pic2) and the MEd Director as well.

Methodology

In order to conduct this research, as it was described above , the "Traffic Signs" project was completed by 50 students of a two-year postgraduate program "Education and Culture" in Harokopio University -and specifically students that attended the division "Educational Psychology and teaching practice". The present research was conducted during the academic year 2014-15. The methodological approach that was used was the observation by the author, all photographic archive that was taken during the implementation and a questionnaire completion of a sample of the 50 students that attended (response rate of 100%). All results of descriptive statistics among the variables are presented and a comment analysis of key results has been made, with some additional proposals.

Analysis of Results

A. Participants' profile

The male postgraduate students' percentage (54%) was higher than that of females (46%). It is worth mentioning that most of the respondents belong to the age group (21-30) and were single with none previous experience in project implementation.

B. Special questions

Postgraduate students report (Table 1) that their leader was very often/always aware of all project procedures (78%). 66% of the respondents state that s/he always made clear from the beginning all basic steps and stages to be followed and most of them (84%) also mark that they chose their coordinator by themselves and act freely when they are separated in teams, statement by almost all of the sample (94%). The project leader-at a very high percentage (88%)-does not control but coordinates and guides the process and constantly gives feedback to all team members whenever it is necessary (80%).

According to the data, the majority (94%) very often/always uses photos, slides, comics, graphics etc during their implementation. However, just half of them (52%) enjoy the process of collecting data. Furthermore, the research revealed that most of the respondents (78%) reported that their previous knowledge is very often/always recovered through project

implementation. The same sample (78%) also stated that through project implementation they manage to mix harmonically knowledge with society, technology and environment. In addition to that, 89% of them managed to gain personal involvement in all learning activities. However, approximately a bit more than half of them (62%) stated that they become familiarized with information technologies, although 84% reported that they managed a successful usage of all cognitive lessons included in their project. More than half of them (64%) also reported that they can very often be objectively evaluated by their trainer. All communicative skills seemed very often/always (96%) to have been grown and 80% of students said that familiarizing themselves with different ideas is useful but they rarely/often do want to lead the team, as 48% stated. In conclusion, project implementation seems very often/always to help students strengthen their pedagogical background as 80% of them reported, grow their communicative skills (88%) and bring to practice all theoretical framework that has been taught (94%). In that way, project seems to achieve its basic goal which is guidance to proper thought construction, according to 86% of the participants in the survey.

Discussion

Through observation and all data analysis, literature seems to be confirmed as far as project being strongly a useful tool to academic teachers. By addressing the above technique to graduate students they seem to learn how to learn (Karageorgou & Koutrouba, 2011) and acquire skills that will lead them to discover knowledge (Karageorgou & Koutrouba, 2014). Dewey is also confirmed, since project method knowledge is transferred through interactive processes to students by their peers, their teachers and the environment in which all the above coexist, while traditional teaching knowledge is transferred through books to students only by their teachers. Regarding to the subject of mathematics, teaching mathematics is undoubtedly a complex activity. It has two sides, first to teach students how to connect the observation of reality with representations such as images, shapes, tables and also to teach students to connect these representations with some mathematical activity and concepts (Chevalier, 2000). Projects lead students to understand better the instrumental nature of mathematics.

Through implementation, teachers' involvement in working plans takes a complex role. S/he coordinates every step of the trainees during their atomic work and their overall work within groups (Biggs, 1999). S/he necessary has to encourage the efforts of all learners especially those who have difficulty or are marginalized by lack of knowledge, skill or courage. Project promotes a variety of ways to be self-motivated and cooperative, it provides opportunities for initiative so that each learner becomes competent, productive and efficient and creates and maintains a democratic and participatory climate. Teacher acts as moderator, as a partner, providing all possible assistance without prejudging the decisions and actions of learners. The key to successful implementation is an active participation of students in each step of the process. To successfully implement the group work, an academic teacher is required to have no tendency to anticipate and coordinate everything, need to have no eagerness for faster moves, trust the capabilities of all learners and allow them to take initiatives and have the skills to meet the requirements for the effective functioning of groups (Blumenfeld, 1991).

Proposals

All adult trainers, including academic teachers, in order to make their class attendance more attractive, need to attend continuous training programs to update cognitive backgrounds and skills against the traditional methods of teaching. The academic teacher must be a professional (Karageorgou, 2014). Of course, an important element for all this to be efficient is the existence of material and technical facilities. In Greece, the professionalism of adult educators is still developing. The continuous combination with teaching, alternative teaching methods, knowledge of each subject and motivation are important factors for the development of professional competencies of adult educators (Karageorgou & Koutrouba, 2013). Given the fact that laboratory personnel comes from formal education - and therefore tends to carry every stereotyped and conventional teaching trends in university classes, the need of the training support for teachers, young and old gets bigger.

Undergraduate and postgraduate teachers should be encouraged by their Administration to join/participate in pedagogical nature facilities and incentives in conferences so they are informed for all alternative forms of education and integrate them into teaching. Finally, pedagogical courses should be held, with emphasis in the field of alternative teaching as it is now undeniable that they contribute to a better school performance for learners and especially adults.

References

Barrows H, & Tamblyn R., (1980), *Problem-based learning: an approach to medical education*. New York: Springer

- Biggs, J., (1999), Teaching for quality learning at university: what the student does Higher education, 40 (3), 374-376
- Blumenfeld, K., (1991), Managing the Product Life Cycle, Management Review, 80
- Chevalier, M., (2000), Alternative teaching Methods in Mathematics, in: Issues of Math Didactics V: Interdisciplinary Approach of Mathematics and its Teaching, University of Aegean: Gutenberg, p225-240
- Janeck, M. & Bleek, W.G., (2002), Project-Based Learning with CommSy, in: Conference on Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL 2002), USA: University of Colorado, Boulder, CO
- Karageorgou, E., (2011), Project implementation as a teaching method and as a measure of cognitive and psychological outcomes of Greece's Second Chance Schools, from the perspective of learners, Dissertation, Athens: Harokopio University [in Greek]
- Karageorgou, E., (2014), Project Implementation in Didactics of Maths, Dissertation, Patrai: Hellenic Open University [in Greek]
- Karageorgou, E. & Koutrouba, K., (2011), The views of Second Chance Schools' students about the role of their educators during project method procedures: The case of Greece, in: International conference on Excellence in Education, ICIE 2011, Turkey: Istanbul
- Karageorgou, E. & Koutrouba, K., (2014), Project management in Education-the case of Greece: Project implementation in Second Chance Schools in: International Conference on Advances in Management, Economics and Social Science MES 2014, Italy: Rome
- Karageorgou, E. & Stefou, T., (2014), The teacher as a leader in educational project management in Second Chance Schools. Perceptions of Greek Adult Students, in: International Conference on Advances in Management, Economics and Social Science MES 2014, Italy: Rome
- Kilroy, D., (2011), Problem based learning, Emerg Med J, 21:411–413
- Koutrouba, K. & Karageorgou, E., (2013), Cognitive and socio-affective outcomes of project-based learning: Perceptions of Greek Second Chance School students, Improving Schools, 16(3), 244–260
- Schmidt, H.G., Vermeulen, L. & Van der Molen, H.T., (2006), Long-term effects of problem-based learning: a comparison of competencies acquired by graduates of a problem-based and a conventional medical school, Med. Education, 40(6), 562–567
- Spector, M., Merrill, D., Merriënboer, J.V. & Driscoll, M., (2008), Handbook of Research on Educational Communications and Technology, 3rd Ed, NY: Taylor and Francis
- Vlamos, P., (2013), Project based Semester Lessons (Seminar 'Methodology and Applyance of Projects in Education'), Athens: Harokopio University

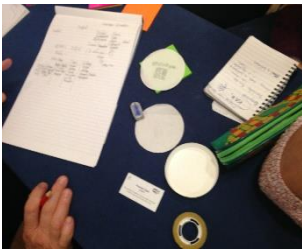
Table 1

Degree of acceptance of the following sentences by the students, through project implementation (%)		Often	Very often	Always
A1	Recovery of previous knowleghe	30.0	50	28
A2	Mix of knowleghe with society, technology and enviroment	10.0	50.0	28
A3	Familiarize with IT	24	42	20
A4	Objective assessment by trainer	32	58	6
A5	Personal involvment in learning activities	12	34	55
B1	Development of communicative skills	2	52	44
B2	Familiarization with different ideas	20	38	42
B3	Leading ambitions	48	18	10
B4	Preference to timeline	20	36	30
C1	Knowleghe of steps/planning from the beginning	16	28	50
C2	Coordinator chosen by team	14	38	46
C3	Foster self-motivation and initiatives	26	36	24
C4	Collection of data	24	36	16
C5	Use of photos,slides etc	4	56	38
C6	Use of all cognitive lessons	14	32	52

D1	Guides to proper thought construction	12	44	42
D2	Free choice of team members without leading intervation	6	28	66
D3	Coordinates and does not control	12	22	66
D4	Constant feedback to team members	14	14	66
E1	Strengthen of paidagogical backround	18	54	26
E2	Grow communicative skills	10	46	42
E3	Cooperation with trainer	14	38	44
E4	Practise all theoritical framework	4	46	46

FIGURES-PICTURES

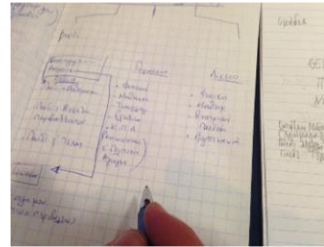
Picture1



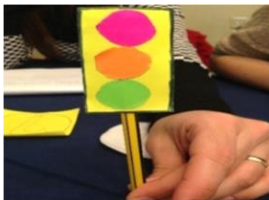
Picture2



Picture3



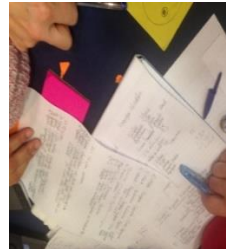
Picture4



Picture5



Picture6



PMI (Public Media Institution Radio Television of Vojvodina the New Media Organization

MsC Sonja Kokotović

The coordinator in the cabinet General Director of the PMI RTV;

PhD student at the Faculty of Technical Sciences in Novi Sad

PhD Miodrag Koprivica

General Director of the PMI RTV;

Professor at the Faculty of Law and Business Studies, Dr Lazar Vrkić in Novi Sad

Abstract

The basis of the effective functioning of the media along with the changes in the environment is in a constant development of management within the media, and therefore the corporate communication as a basic tool of development. Management JMU RTV broadcasting in the new (multi) media environment should establish a system of effective management of the technical, organizational, as well as innovation in the design and distribution of media content, aiming to find a balance between the needs of the market and the insatiable appetite of the media to the public, changes in technology, media legislation and general social trends. If the organization said that "the organism", then the communication is "bloodstream" of the organism. Corporate communication is a newer discipline which is used in all business segments worldwide. Top management creates, defines and improves corporate reputation through corporate communications and image management that created it. The image of a good and successful organization begins within. The level of satisfaction and motivation of our employees is a measurable and constant process that can be influenced, eg. how often and in which way to communicate with employees, how they transmit important messages and direct them towards achieving business goals. Corporate communication includes all communication and information activities among the members of the organization, it is targeted and oriented according to the success. Because the image of the organization can be understood as the reflection of its identity created corporate communication between different public - internal and external.

Keywords: corporate communications, reputation, corporate identity, image, management, organisational learning, public service, changes

1. Introduction

The success of an organization nowadays depends to a great extent on itself, but it is in direct conjunction with innovation, creativity and flexibility. The prerequisite for this is a good corporate communication, because it is the only way possible to understand the different wishes, requirements and needs of viewers / listeners / users of the portal and to adequately react in terms of programming, production and technology in order to meet their needs.

One of the helpful advantages and basic competences of successful people is to be able to communicate effectively and efficiently. Modern business world sets high standards which managers have to meet in order for the communication to be effective within and outside the organization. One of the manager's tasks is to accomplish organizational goals by communication and coordination of the employees' tasks (Jovanović, M., Živković, M. i Cvetkovski, T., 2003, 65-118). Understanding of theory and practice will be useful for creating better working environment as a precondition of good communication.

Aim of this paper is to show the importance of the role of corporate communication in modern and successful organizations such as Public Media Institution Radio-Television of Vojvodina, also how substantially corporate communication affects the creation of this organization's new image which can also be the source of competitive advantage of the organization

regardless that this is Public service. This paper thoroughly deals with the area of corporate communication as an important tool which is at disposal for the management of PMI RTV¹ and it serves for effective image managing and competitiveness of the organization.

The review and detailed analysis of the literature, hypotheses and research have been carried out in order to prove them, i.e. that the intensity of corporate communication has a positive effect on the PMI RTV's image, respectively, that a positive image directly affects the increase of competitiveness of PMI RTV, and thus greater viewership, listenership and citations.

Relations with the environment (internal and external) should be an important part of business policy of every organization and a resource for top management in organizations. Confidence and interest are very important for corporate communication because they represent a base for new, permanent relations between business partners or service users (viewers/listeners/portal users in this case).

2. Corporate Communication – Term And Benefits heoretical Framework

Understanding the role of communications for the market success of the organization, led to higher positioning of this business function in the organizational structure, thus influencing strategic decisions. At the same time, scientists are beginning to study the strategic importance of corporate communications and their role in building competitive advantages (Forman J. & Argenti P.A., 2005.), and define them as planned obtaining of information from the environment and their exchange within the organization, as well as exchanges between the organization and various segments of the environment in which it operates. Communication is very important so that the organization could more effectively achieve its intended goals. The more functional it is, the more likely the achievement of the objective is, which is why the number of portable communication places is reduced to a minimum. Managers, by hiring quality staff, developing knowledge, innovation, create an adequate strategy of corporate communications and solutions in order to create a sustainable competitive advantage in the market.

Understanding of the role of communication for market success of the organization led to high positioning of this business function in organizational structure which therefore affects strategic decisions. At the same time, scientists, especially those who are studying public relations, are starting to study the strategic importance of corporate communication and its role in building competitive advantage (Forman, J. i Argenti, P.A., 2005, 245-264). In general, the role of corporate communication reflects, first of all, in the area of building corporate identity, corporate brand and company's reputation (Hawabhay, B.B. Abratt, R. i Peters, M., 2009, 3-20; Forman, J. i Argenti, P.A., 2005, 245-264; Flatt, S.J. i Kowalczyk, S.J., 2008,13-30). The first two concepts are directly connected to the marketing theory, and the concept of reputation develops in the area of the management theory and public relations (Dowling, G., 2004, 196-205).

Corporate communications can be defined as planned obtaining of information and its exchange within an organization, as well as the exchange of information between the organization and different parts of the environment in which it operates. In the modern world, no organization can survive if it is not in constant communication with external environment which they inform about and which is being informed.

Organizations are formed and they survive with the consent and support of the public. Arthur Page's famous statement, who is a pioneer in the area of public relations, also testifies about this and says that in a democratic society every business starts with the permit of the public and it exists with its permission (Capozzi,L., 2005, 209-293). The public is consisted of individuals and institutions to which the organization is directed, and they can be divided in separate groups such as: financial public, media public, government and its institutions, civil sector, local community, employees, competition, business partners and suppliers, business buyers, consumers and service users. In modern management theory, these specific groups of public are called stakeholders². The success of a company also depends on how it is seen by its stakeholders. Focus on development of different stakeholders' positive perception means active usage of corporate communication in order to effectively communicate the key values of the organization to the stakeholders. This approach received affirmation from numerous organizations and relevant literature as reputation management. That means that

¹ PMI RTV – abbreviation for Public Media Institution Radio-Television of Vojvodina

² Stakeholders – term for those individuals, institutions, groups, which have a certain type of stake (not necessarily financial) and benefits related to the existence of the company in the market (Freeman i McVea, 2001).

management of an organization has to adjust its activities to the needs and interests of numerous interested parties, and in that process corporate communication becomes very important as a business function.

Financial operations ceased to be solely a measure of success, but in addition to financial indicators that reflected competitive advantage, today there are also so-called soft factors, where the reputation of an organization has a particularly important place (Flatt, S.J. i Kowalczyk, S.J., 2008, 13-30). Good reputation is a result of successful activities in corporate communications (Burke, T., 1998., 5-10). Creation or improvement of business reputation means changes in the way of thinking and working of the organization in all of its forms on the market. The key role in that process has communication with internal and external stakeholders. By employing quality personnel, improvement of knowledge, innovations, quality and affirmation of social responsibility, an organization comes into a position to create an adequate strategy of corporate communications and solutions that will ensure the transition of corporate identity and internal determinants of corporate reputation in the desired image in order to create a sustainable competitive advantage in the market and values for stakeholders.

3. Image – Definition

During the mid 50s of the last century, image becomes an important factor for organizations. At the time, the campaigns dedicated to the image had a task to familiarize consumers with a particular brand/organization, and tie them to them, with the aim of creating competitive advantage. As a result of not engaging employees in the process of building identity and reputation, even the best image campaigns failed. That is why it is said that the image of a good and successful organization starts within itself. Many modern authors (Kotler, P., 1997, 292; Grey, E. i Smeltzer, L., 1985, 73-78 i Barich, H. i Kotler, P., 1991, 94) define image in corporate sense as a manifestation of all mental images that people have about the organization. Described concept of image is based on external, because it all comes down to how a certain image is perceived by the target audience. Based on this, we can come to a conclusion that the image of an organization is directly related to its success in the market, affecting its competitiveness, achieved results and the general level of quality of its operations.

Image can be defined as a cognitive image of an organization, product, person, process or situation that an individual shapes based on previous experience, attitudes, opinions and performance that are more or less in line with the actual characteristics, while the role of communication, especially public relations, publicity and advertising is particularly significant in the formation of the image (Cornelissen, P., 2003, 217-234). Some authors state that the image of a company is in fact a network design which emerged from the interaction of many experiences, beliefs and knowledge that people have about certain company (Worchester, R., 1997, 146).

Image of an organization can easily be transformed, but if it does not invest continuous effort in maintaining the good image, a positive one can easily turn into negative. Precisely because of that, corporate communications must be constantly focused on image of the organization, which is its reflection in the eyes of internal and external public. The image should be consistent, homogeneous and identical to the internal and external public.

Marketing communication is directly focused on the attempt to create a desired image and to attempt to provide a precise answer to the question about the extent to which the image is really useful for an individual or organization, where it can be applied best and which communication tools and methods can achieve positive and quality image. The way of communication of the desired image must be adapted to the target group by selecting appropriate communication channels, as well as the structure of the communication message. A good image of an organization means that its communication activities are intensive and that they are set properly and that it benefits from them (it increases competitiveness) (Balmer, J.M.T. i van Riel, C.B.M., 1997, 340-355). At the same time it is associated with numerous organization attributes such as the name, structure, diversity of products and services, tradition, ideology, and the overall quality impression communicated by each employee in the organization towards its clients/customers or target communication groups (van Riel, C.B.M., 1995).

The process of image management of an organization is a systematic approach of solving problems at the level of organization that begins with analyzing the current situation and setting goals, and ends with the process of checking and comparing the actual and the desired image, and the implementation of necessary corrections. Questions: "Does the organization properly and adequately use all the possibilities offered by the application of corporate communication?" and "How compliant is the internal image of the organization with the external image?", are always open. The image of the

organization is the main factor that distinguishes it from the competition and its comprehensiveness and integrity is based on the uniform corporate communication activities.

The key element in creating the image of an organization is its employees. If they do not understand the objectives of creating certain image and if they do not apply them in public, there will be lack of desired results. There may be "deliberate" resistance to change, but sometimes the procedures of creating the image itself is not sufficiently clear and presented in a consistent manner. A positive result can be expected only if everyone is aware of the significance of the changes and if they adopt them as their personal and common values.

4. Specificity Of PMI RTV

"Public service is a nonprofit, independent radio-television organization, established in the name of the general public and financed from public funds, that meets the needs of the largest possible number of citizens, and the general public by diverse, balanced, high-quality programs, impartially and without discrimination". (Veljanovski, R., 2005, 28) "It is free from political interference and pressure from commercial forces. With secured pluralism, programming diversity, editorial independence, appropriate funding, accountability and transparency, public service can serve as the foundation of democracy". (Mendel, T., 1999, 10.11.2015.)

PMI RTV is a successor of RTV Novi Sad, which started broadcasting radio program in 1945, and television program in 1975. It was established on 26th May 2006. on the basis of Article 94. of the Broadcasting Act (RS, Ministry of Information, 2006, 20th January 2014.), and since 13th August 2014. according to the Law on Public Media Services (RS National Assembly, 2014, 20th August 2014.), it continues to operate under the name of Public Media Institution Radio-Television Vojvodina. The main activity of RTV¹ is production, purchase, processing and broadcasting of television and radio programs, informational, cultural, educational, children, entertainment, sports and other content in 11 languages, 24 hours a day, which meet the needs of a wide audience in Vojvodina and beyond. During 2013, the Strategy of RTV was adopted which defines the vision, mission and general courses of action and development, "BI² RTV is a public service broadcaster for the territory of the Autonomous Province of Vojvodina which broadcasts all day program on two television and three radio channels as well as through the internet portal. With approximately 18,000 hours of the broadcast program content per year (out of which more than 50% is its own production), this institution is in the "golden middle" of program offers of European national public service, and in comparison with regional services it is among the top five in Europe." (RTV, 2013, 25th August 2013.).

Financial strategies are also defined, and some of them are marketing strategy and public relations: "Increased income from marketing activities is one of the main reasons for fundamental change in the system of preparation of the program and the business plan, which should be well-timed, complete and roll-on oriented. Public service RTV was created to meet the needs of the public and citizens and that is why the communication with the public should be paid attention to." "Networks of NGOs and civil society require adequate processing. No one will promote RTV if it does not engage itself for that cause. The battle for affectation of the public cannot be won only by quality programming content, but also by modern and constant communication. Multimedia portal is of a great significance, as well as transparency of the work. The very nature of the management of public funds obliges to that, but also the obligations summarized in international documents (European Council, EU, EBU)." (RTV, 2013, 25th August 2013.)

Technical functioning is important for functioning and performance of the basic activities of a media service (production and distribution of content), such as PMI RTV Vojvodina. Because of the complete destruction during bombing in 1999, the functioning of the Public Service was enabled by the rest of the equipment and the temporary installation in a rented room with inadequate working conditions for a professional TV. RTV digitalized its infrastructure in the standard definition in 2009/10 by its own means, and the process of transition from analogue to digital broadcasting was completed on 18th May 2015. By digitizing existing audio and video archives a digital archive system is being prepared. Current systems are multifunctional, with a high degree of integration of the radio, television, and internet and mobile applications, which enable interactivity, reliability, cost effectiveness, modular and phased feasibility, expandability, sustainability and coherence.

¹ PMI RTV – abbreviation for Public Media Institution Radio-Television of Vojvodina

² BI - abbreviation for Broadcasting Institution

5. Research Methodology

If a management of an organization does not understand the importance of proper, systematized and organized corporate communication, as well as the importance of its integration and application, it will not be able to fit in the modern market trends. The image of an organization itself is how it is seen by the public and it shows the level of integrated communication in an organization. Therefore, organizations need to adapt their own communication message according to the expectations of the target public, their attitudes, interests and specific knowledge.

In the very process of the research, many scientific research methods are applied. First, a detailed analysis of the available literature, primary and secondary data sources, and their synthesis methods of description, classification and comparison are conducted. Then, the established scientific findings were synthesized and two hypotheses were defined whose determination of truthfulness was the subject of the research:

Hypothesis **H1**: the intensity of corporate communications has a positive effect on creation of PMI RTV's image.

Hypothesis **H2**: positive image of PMI RTV has a positive effect on increasing competitiveness of PMI RTV.

In order for the hypothesis **H1** to be accepted, the research needs to meet the following conditions:

multiple regression model is statistically significant at the level $p < 0.05$

appropriate beta coefficient is statistically significant at the level $p < 0.05$

appropriate beta coefficient is in expected direction

In order for the hypothesis **H2** to be accepted, the research needs to meet the following conditions:

the correlation coefficient is statistically significant at the level $p < 0.05$

the correlation coefficient is in expected direction

Data were gathered in the field by surveying the external public. The research included 1,012 subjects on the territory of AP of Vojvodina, out of which 49,9% were male and 50,1% were female respondents, aged between 18 - 60+, of all educational backgrounds, occupations and social status, and it was conducted during September and October in 2015. Respondents for whom it was thought that they would be able to answer the survey questions were chosen as a sample, taking into consideration the complexity of the research issues. The structure of the samples is shown in **Table 1**.

Table 1. *The structure of the samples*

Sample	1012	%
Gender	male	49,9
	female	50,1
Age	18-29	18,8
	30-44	24,9
	45-59	27,6
	60+	28,7
Educational status	Without school, unfinished elementary school and elementary school	1,6
	Three or two years of high school	10,8
	Four years of high school or gymnasium	30,2
	College or faculty	53,9
	Magister degree or doctor of science	3,5
Employment status	Employed in the public sector	25,6
	Employed in social or combined sector	16,2
	Employed in private sector	23,9
	Unemployed (housewife)	4,6

	Retired	8,0
	Agriculturist	8,1
	Pupil, student	9,0
	Unofficially employed (unregistered work)	3,6
	Did not give an answer	1,0
Languages on which they watch TV programs	In Serbian language	84,2
	In Hungarian language	7,4
	In Romanian language	0,3
	In Ruthenian language	0,1
	In Slovak language	1,2
	In Bunjevac dialect	0,4
	In Ukrainian language	0,2
	In Croatian language	2,9
	In Macedonian language	0,1
	In Romani language	0,1
Another language	0,5	
Settlement type	Urban	59,4
	Rural	40,6

By surveying the external public, attitude of respondents on the quality of the image of PMI RTV Vojvodina and on its competitiveness and intensity of application of various forms of corporate communication was researched. The instrument for this survey was a questionnaire. The studied variables were measured using measurement scales containing attitudes (statements) for which respondents expressed their agreement or disagreement. For attitudes that were available for respondents, Likert scale with five levels (range 5 - 9 can be seen as the optimal solution) was applied. All attitudes which were required for this research were formed by the authors.

Table 2. List of attitudes for determining variables - image PMI RTV

I have positive associations about PMI RTV (i1)
I consider PMI RTV to be a particularly good organization (i2)
PMI RTV has a good identity (i3)
PMI RTV has a good image (i4)
PMI RTV has a good reputation (i5)
I have a positive attitude towards PMI RTV (i6)
PMI RTV is a bad organization (i7)

Table 3. List of attitudes for determining variables - competitiveness PMI RTV

PMI RTV is competitive (k1)
Competitiveness of PMI RTV is higher compared to the competition (k2)
I consider PMI RTV to be more competitive compared to other organizations (k3)

Table 4. List of attitudes for determining variables – intensity of corporate communication of PMI RTV

Corporate communications of PMI RTV are frequent (kk1)
Compared to the competition, PMI RTV has more intense corporate communications (kk2)
Intensity of the use of corporate communications in PMI RTV is higher compared to other organizations (kk3)

For the analysis of gathered data, by surveying the external public, multiple regression method was used, which aimed to show that the intensity of corporate communications affects the image of the PMI RTV Vojvodina. The impact of the image

on competitiveness of PMI RTV Vojvodina was measured by correlation analysis. Gathered data were also analyzed by the additional statistical methods:

Reliability and the validity of the used scale were tested – Cronbach's coefficient - α was calculated and its value if certain attitudes were left out.

Methods of descriptive statistics were used: mean value and frequency distribution.

6. Research Results

Table 5. shows the value of Cronbach's coefficient – α for the measurement scale used in this research and processing of obtained data. Cronbach's α coefficient is a measurement for internal consistency of groups of attitudes whose value can range from 0 to 1. The closer the Cronbach's α coefficient is to 1, the measurement scale is more reliable. If the coefficient of reliability, including Cronbach's α coefficient is about 0,9 – reliability can be considered to be excellent.

Table 5. The values of Cronbach's coefficient – α

Measurement scale	Cronbach alfa coefficient
Image of PMI RTV Vojvodina	0,92
Competitiveness of PMI RTV Vojvodina	0,78
Intensity of corporate communications in PMI RTV Vojvodina	0,87

Source: author's research

Based on Cronbach's α coefficients, we can conclude that the used measurement scales have a satisfactory level of reliability. Measurement scale for competitiveness of PMI RTV Vojvodina showed the lowest reliability, while the measurement scale for the image of RTV Vojvodina showed the best reliability for which it is even possible to say is excellent. The value of Cronbach's α coefficients of corresponding measurement scales increased, and thus their reliability, leaving out the attitudes that affected the reduction of the reliability of the appropriate measurement scales.

Table 6. The influence of certain attitudes on the Cronbach's α coefficient of the measurement scale for variable - image of PMI RTV Vojvodina

Cronbach's α coefficient for the scale is: 0,92	
Attitude	Cronbach's α coefficient if an attitude is left out
i1	0,91
i2	0,90
i3	0,82
i4	0,91
i5	0,90
i6	0,90
i7	0,93

Source: author's research

Table 7. The influence of certain attitudes on the Cronbach's α coefficient of the measurement scale for variable – competitiveness of PMI RTV Vojvodina

Cronbach's α coefficient for the scale is: 0,78	
Attitude	Cronbach's α coefficient if an attitude is left out
k1	0,80
k2	0,67
k3	0,60

Source: author's research

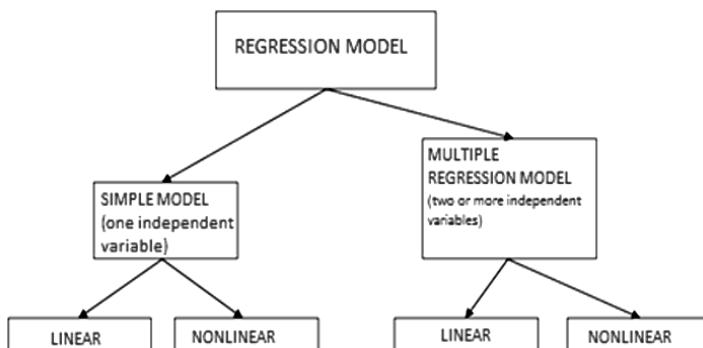
Table 8. *The influence of certain attitudes on the Cronbach's α coefficient of the measurement scale for variable – intensity of corporate communications in PMI RTV Vojvodina*

Cronbach's α coefficient for the scale is: 0,87	
Attitude	Cronbach's α coefficient if an attitude is left out
kk1	0,82
kk2	0,81
kk3	0,82

Source: author's research

Based on the presented results we can conclude that two attitudes affect the reduction of reliability of the appropriate measurement scale, and those are: attitude (i7) for variable – image of PMI RTV, or (k1) for variable – competitiveness of PMI RTV. By leaving those two out, the value of Cronbach's α coefficient of the appropriate measurement scale was increased, as well as their reliability. Because of that, those attitudes were excluded from further research. The same way the analysis of the validity of used measurement scales was performed by implementation of research analyses of the factors by which convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement scales was parsed. Thus we come to the conclusion that analyzed measurement scales have convergent properties (related claims have high factor loadings on relevant factors) and discriminant validity (related claims have low factor loadings on other factors). Discriminant and convergent validity was tested by exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

Since the used measurement scales have an acceptable level of reliability and convergent and discriminant validity, the gathered data are analyzed using multiple regression and correlation analysis¹, all in order to test the defined hypothesis **H1** and **H2**. Regression analysis determines the analytical form of relationship between dependent (here we took the image of PMI RTV Vojvodina as a dependent phenomenon), and independent phenomena (the intensity of corporate communications in PMI RTV Vojvodina), describing the connections between them, while correlation analysis establishes a link between the given phenomena - independent and dependent, its shape, strength and direction, without going into what is the cause and what is consequence. The name multiple regression means that there are more independent variables (intensity and competitiveness of PMI RTV Vojvodina in this case) and it uses regression function as the best prediction.

Image 1. Regression model - a schematic representation

The aim of the testing by multiple regression was to determine whether the independent variable explains a significant part of the variability of the dependent variable, i.e. whether there is a connection between them, also, to determine the strength of the structure of those connections, to predict values of the dependent variables and define the sampling line of the

¹ Multiple regression and correlation analysis study the relations between two or more phenomena. The significance of these methods lies in being able to predict the outcome of certain events based on knowledge of other phenomena. The name regression, was introduced by a statistician Sir Frances Galton (1822 -1911) and it means going backwards.

regression with the least possible residuals¹. In practice standardized residuals are used, which we can get by standardizing residuals, and which have a normal distribution with the middle 0 and deviation 1.

The first hypothesis **H1** was tested by the use of multiple regression, where the image of PMI RTV Vojvodina is seen as – dependent variable, and the intensity of corporate communications in PMI RTV Vojvodina as – independent variable. Mean values of the answers provided by the respondents about the attitudes which belong to those variables were calculated in order to be able to implement multiple regression. For each variable, one summary indicator (mean value) was obtained for each subject, and then those indicators were used as inputs in the implementation of multiple regression.

The assumptions, which the multiple regression model are based on, are similar to those that are valid for simple regression and they state that the form of dependence between all variables is linear, or straight line. This is especially important for the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable, in this case the image of PMI RTV Vojvodina.

Before explaining the results, their statistical significance must be tested. If R^2 , b and β are not statistically significant, it is concluded that the independent variable - intensity of corporate communication in PMI RTV Vojvodina, has no real connection with the dependent variable - image of PMI RTV Vojvodina, which means that the resulting model has no practical value. If all the regression coefficients are statistically significant, then the coefficient of multiple determination R^2 will certainly be significant. This indicates that the purpose of regression in this case is to determine the form of the relationship, namely dependence between the observed phenomena, image of PMI RTV Vojvodina and intensity of corporate communications in PMI RTV Vojvodina. This was achieved by using the appropriate regression model (stochastic model which best describes the quantitative relationship between variations in the observed phenomena in reality through a mathematical formula and a set of appropriate assumptions), which shows the average stacking variation of the tested phenomena. The regression model is not the goal itself, but a means by which we are able to evaluate and predict values of the dependent variable for the desired value of the explanatory variable.

The resulting multiple regression model is statistically significant at the level of $p < 0.05$. The coefficient of multiple determination R^2 is a relative measure and it shows the participation of the explained variability in total (how many variations of variable Y are explained by variable X), i.e. it represents the quotient of deciding - the ratio of the dispersion of the dependent variable that can be explained by the independent variable. The value of 0.57 represents 57% of the variability in the dependent variable that can be explained by the independent variable, so the level of connection is strong, i.e. the image of PMI RTV Vojvodina.

Table 9. The results of multiple regression analysis

Independent variable	Beta coefficient - β
intensity of corporate communications in PMI RTV Vojvodina	0,17

***statistically significant if $p < 0,05$**

Source: author's research

The first hypothesis H1: Intensity of corporate communications positively affects the creation of image of PMI RTV Vojvodina, and it is accepted based on the results of the analyses of multiple regression because the following conditions were met.

multiple regression model is statistically significant if $p < 0.05$
 corresponding coefficient beta - β^3 is statistically significant if $p < 0.05$
 corresponding beta coefficient - β is in the anticipated direction

The second hypothesis H2: Positive image of PMI RTV Vojvodina affects the increase of the competitiveness of PMI RTV Vojvodina. It was tested using correlation analysis between variables - image of PMI RTV and competitiveness of PMI RTV. The correlation coefficient between these two variables is 0.68 so it is statistically significant at the level of $p < 0.05$. This

¹ Residuals – errors, they should be approximately distributed.

² Coefficient of multiple determination (correlation) is used to determine the quality of the prediction of the dependent variable.

³ corresponding beta coefficient - β useful for the interpretation of the relative importance of independent variables

result suggests that the second hypothesis H2 can be accepted since both defined conditions are met. That is, we can conclude that the positive image of PMI RTV Vojvodina affects the increase of its competitiveness.

7. Conclusion

Using existing and creating new channels of communication, an organization creates a safe way for launching messages and plays an active role in building an attitude about the environment towards it - image creation. Image of an organization with corporate identity is a central concept of corporate communication, and as such it has been attracting the attention of a large number of marketing professionals worldwide for many years. By analyzing the available literature, we recognized the causal relationship between corporate communication and image of an organization, as one of the main sources of competitiveness of PMI RTV Vojvodina (Carey, J., 1983, 311-313; Carey J., 1985; Solomon, R.M., Marshall, W.G., Stuart, W.E., 2008, 376). By efficient management of corporate communication, PMI RTV Vojvodina profiles the desired image and creates a suitable position in the minds of the viewers/listeners/portal users and the public, coordinating the tasks that employees do (Jovanović, Živković, Cvetkovski, 2003) (Jovanović, M., Živković, M., Cvetkovski, T., 2003).

Corporate communication is directed towards the organization as a whole and towards the importance of its image (Dolphin, 2000). Mastering communication skills itself, does not lead to corporate identity, image or reputation of the company. Managerial competence is necessary so that the position and reputation of the company can be analyzed, corporate image/identity (corporate values, messages) determined, communication plan designed and developed, and finally, the results can be evaluated after the implementation of the plan. This is where the strategic management comes into play, and it is assumed that managers must be able to monitor and critically understand the actions taken, as well as to create communication programs which are appropriate for corporate goals. The organization needs to understand, from a strategic point of view, which is the most effective way of functioning of corporate communications, and how they can be used to achieve corporate objectives, to organize them, and decide what means should be used to complete their potential. Corporate communications also have an important role in decision-making and overall corporate strategy. They are integrated into the corporate goals, mostly with long-term implications. From the above, we can conclude that the corporate communication is: management function that requires from the communicator a complete understanding of communication and integration of communication strategies with corporate strategy and objectives (strategically planned series of activities which emerges from the general corporate strategy); According to Cornelissen (Cornelissen J., 2004), a version of the definition of the relations between corporate communications and image might sound like this: Corporate communication is a management function that offers the effective coordination of all means of communication, with the ultimate goal of establishing and maintaining the desired reputation i.e. the image of the group of stakeholders whom the organization depends on.

In order to test the hypotheses, a comprehensive research was conducted. Both hypotheses were accepted by the analysis of the obtained data, and the implications are possible benefits for PMI RTV Vojvodina i.e. the possibilities for strategic and long-term image management as well as its competitiveness by means of intensive, integrated and quality of corporate communication activities in the market.

The first implication indicates the need for forecasting further growth of the intensity of corporate communications in PMI RTV Vojvodina with absolute imperative - the integration of complete corporate communication activities of the organization, with the purpose of quality control over their own image, because there is reasonable doubt that all forms of corporate communication are not equally used. Changes in behavior and expectations of viewers/listeners/portal users, as well as the communication revolution in PMI RTV Vojvodina set imperative of constant monitoring of modern communication trends and adjustment to their own corporate communication activities in accordance with the current communication moment.

The second implication is based on recognition of the important role of the image of PMI RTV Vojvodina, whose quality in the current economic conditions and in conditions of high market competitiveness directly affects the competitiveness of the organization i.e. the viewership/listenership/citations. Corporate communication has a strategically important role in the process of quality image management in PMI RTV Vojvodina.

The research results show that the achieved level of image quality of PMI RTV Vojvodina is directly connected and dependent on the success of the organization to properly organize, implement and integrate their own corporate communications activities in practice, and to apply them with appropriate intensity. The higher the level of intensity of total corporate communication activities of the organization, better it is able to manage its own image. The research results also

show the existence of a direct link between the achieved level of image quality of PMI RTV Vojvodina, based on integrated and intensive corporate communication activities and its competitiveness.

We can conclude that the competitiveness of PMI RTV Vojvodina is equal to its image based on integrity, and intensity of corporate communication activities at the level of marketing, organizational and managerial communication. The competitiveness of the organization is deeply rooted in the concept of corporate communications, i.e. it is under the direct influence of the image of PMI RTV Vojvodina, based on intensive and integrated corporate communication activities.

This is how the image of PMI RTV Vojvodina becomes a direct source of competitive advantage of the organization in modern market conditions, highlighting the strategic importance of corporate communications.

8. Literature

- Balmer, J.M.T. & van Riel, C.B.M. (1997). Corporate Identity: The Concept, Its Measurement and Management. *European Journal of Marketing* , Vol.31, No.5/6, 340-355.
- Barich, H. & Kotler, P. (1991.). "A Framework for Managing Image Management". *Sloan Management Review* , Vol.32, No.2, 94.
- Burke, T. (1998.). Risks and reputations: The economics of transaction costs. *Corporate Communications* , Vol.3, No.1, 5-10.
- Capozzi, L. (2005.). Corporate Reutation: Our Role in Sustaining and Building a Valuable Asset. *Journal of Advertising Reserach* , Vol.45, No.3, 209-293.
- Carey, J. (1983). "The Origins of the Radical Discourse on Cultural Studies in the United States". *Journal of Communication*, 33 (3) , 311-313.
- Carey, J. W. (1985). "Overcoming Resistance to Cultural Studies". *Communication as Culture* .
- Cornelissen, J. (2004). *Corporate Communcations – Theory and Practice*. Sage Publications.
- Cornelissen, P. (2003). Change, Continuity and Progress: The Concept of Integreated Marketing Communications and Marketing Communications Practice. *Journal of Strategic Marketing* , Vol.11, No.4, 217-234.
- Dentchev, A.N. & Heene A. (2004.). Managing the Reputation of Restructuring Corporations: Sending the Right Signal to the Right Stakeholder. *Journal of Public Affairs* , Vol.4, No.1, 56-72.
- Dolphin, R. (2000). *The Fundamentals of Corporate*. Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Donaldson, T. & Preston, L.E. (1995.). The Stakeholder Theory of the Corporation Concepts, Evidence and Implications. *Academy of Management Review* , Vol.20, No.1, 65–91.
- Dowling, G. (2004.). Journalists' Evaluations of Corporate Reputations. *Corporate Reputation Review* , Vol.7, No.2, 196–205.
- Flatt S. J. & Kowalczyk S. J. (2008.). Creating Competitive Advantage Through Intangible Assets:The Direct And Indirect Effects Of Corporate Culture And Reputation. *Advances in Competitiveness* , Vol.16, No.1, 13-30.
- Forman J. & Argenti P.A. (2005.). How Corporate Communication Influences Strategy Implementation, Reputation and the Corporate Brand: An Exploratory Qualitative Study. *Corporate Reputation Review* , Vol.8, No.3, 245–264.
- Freeman, R. E. & McVea, J. (2001.). A Stakeholder Astroach to Strategic Management. Darden Business School Working Paper , No. 01-02.
- Grey, E. & Smeltzer, L. (1985). SMR Forum: Corporate Image - An Integral Part of Strategy. *Sloan Management Review (Summer)* , 73-78.
- Hawabhay B.B., Abratt R. & Peters M. (2009.). The Role of Corporate Communications in Developing a Corporate Brand Image and Reputation in Mauritius. *Corporate Reputation Review* , Vol. 12, No.1, 3-20.
- Jovanović, M., Živković, M. & Cvetkovski, T. (2003.). Organizaciono ponašanje. Beograd: Megatrend univerzitet primenjenih nauka.
- Jovanović, M., Živković, M., Cvetkovski, T. (2003). Organizaciono ponašanje. Megatrend univerzitet.
- Kotler, P. (1997.). *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control* (9th Edition ed.). London: Prentice Hall International.
- Mendel, T. (1999, February 5). Public Service Broadcasting: International Standards. Retrieved November 10, 2015. from http://portal.unesco.org/ci/en/ev.php-URL_ID=1525&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
- RS, M. k. (2006, April 20). Zakon o radiodifuziji. Retrieved January 20, 2014 from http://www.pks.rs/SADRZAJ/Files/Kreativna/5524-zakon_o_radiodifuziji.pdf
- RS, N. s. (2014, August 14). Zakon o Javnim medijskim servisima. Retrieved August 20, 2014 from <http://www.parlament.gov.rs/upload/archive/files/cir/pdf/zakoni/2014/2513-14.pdf>
- RTV, J. (2013, July 13). Strategija razvoja RUV RTV 2013-2017 . Retrieved August 25, 2013 from <http://static.rtv.rs/pdf/2013/10/29/strategija-razvoja-ruv-rtv-2013-2017-pdf.pdf>
- Solomon, R. M., Marshall, W.G., Stuart, W.E. (2008). *Marketing, Real People, Real Choices*. Pearson, Prentice Hall.
- van Riel, C. (1995). *Principles of Corporate Communication*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Veljanovski, R. (2005). *Javni RTV servisi u službi građana*. Beograd: Clio.
- Verčić, D., Zavrl, F., Rijavec, P., Ognjanov, G. & Brbaklić, A. (2004.). *Odnosi sa medijima*. Beograd: Medija Centar i Pristop.
- Worchester, R. (1997). Managing the Image of Bank: The Glue That Binds. *International Journal of Bank Management* , Vol.15, No.5, 146.

Multicultural Qualification Necessary for More Qualitative Education for the Roma Community

Msc. Alketa Bulku

Vice president at "Bajram Curri" middle school, Tirana, Albania

Abstract

Education represents a major challenge and it plays a key role in the social inclusion for the Roma and to their financial background also. The Roma children school attendance level is very low and what they learn from school is not equal to the other children. Poverty, illiteracy and insufficient education lead to a vicious surrounding which sets this community in front of difficulties and marginalisation. According to the law, all people are equal as to the right to education. As a complex approach to equal teaching and studying, multicultural education leads the way to the inclusion of this community within the educational system. Multicultural and inclusive practices improve the quality of the teaching and learning process, considering the chance to reduce barriers. This is a qualitative study which aims at exploring the influence of teachers' qualification on the Roma children engagement at school. The case study is performed through the theoretical study, monitoring, interviews with directors, education specialists and parents and focus groups with parents and teachers. This study presents the teachers, parents and directors' point of view on the importance of the qualification on social justice and the positive influence on teaching. Multicultural practices, less prejudice and education for social justice make school more effective.

Keywords: multicultural education, Roma community, teachers' qualification, less prejudice, social justice.

1. Roma community and problems related to them

The Roma people are not recognized as a separate minority in Albania; those ethnic communities from existing countries only, have been recognized so. This does not suit for the Roma who do not have a supporting country. The Roma population was recognized as an ethno-linguistic minority by the Albanian Constitution of 1998. Even though, the Albanian Constitution treats the basic principles of humans and minorities rights. "Ethnic affiliation is defined as a subjective feeling of affiliation that can be related to a common culture, language, religion, history, territory, but sometimes none of these characteristics are common, but still in this case we can speak of an ethnic affiliation when referring to the Roma people. According to the World Bank the Roma own clear cultural attributes such as language, music, community celebrations, family ceremonies, artistry and the women's outfit." The financial structure and size of their families are characterized by a higher number of generations living together and also from a higher number of family members. Usually, the marriage age of the Roma people is lower than the rest of the population, consequently the parental age will be lower and the number of child birth higher, "Current evaluation reports show that the growing rate of the Roma population is 3%, which is higher than the growing rate of the Albanian population".(UNDP, 2011)

Although they possess all these distinguishing characteristics, numerous reasons make this community marginalised and put it face to face to difficulties.

Poverty and low education rates provide them with a vicious environment. Poverty is considered as the main reason why they cannot afford their children's education. The Roma parents consider their children's financial contribution as indispensable because of extreme poverty and unemployment. Extreme living conditions make it impossible for these children to do their homework by becoming the barrier to their good performance at school. Usually, malnutrition leads to lack of concentration during the lesson. The Roma parents are sceptical about their children's ability graduate. Generally, they cannot look after them as they are looking for a job in the market while the oldest child looks after their siblings. According to various studies (Gedeshi, 2010). "Racial discrimination from the other non-Roma children and from teachers" represents another reason affecting school attendance. Moreover, another problem would be language and cultural

difference. Many Roma children do not know Albanian when they start school, which causes a lot of difficulties to their learning process. This is why they feel obliged to quit school.”

Many Roma families are obliged to move from one country to the other because of economic matter. As a result, it is difficult for their children to attend school once they return back to their countries. Regardless of the obstructive factors, the education system bears the responsibility of engaging and involving them within education.

“The main concerning issue is making clear that education is not directly related to employment, neither is it going to soften their poverty.” According to the records of Census 2011, 97% of Albanian children between the ages 6 to 9 years old attend elementary education, while only 55% of the Roma children of the same age attend school.

These extremely low figures are the result of those who have never been enrolled at school. (INSTAT, 2011)

Self-assessment is not their strong point and this should be a main issue of concern for teachers as they can put the balance between school and the Roma community. But there is still another issue of concern originating from the teachers' prejudice. This can be improved through additional education and trainings for teachers.

In a school where the Roma children make up 40% of the school children, the interviewed parents show no interest against their children's teachers. Only 6% had asked for their children's old teacher, around 47% appraised the criteria that teachers must be strict with children as they have not received the proper education during kindergarten and because the parents themselves are unschooled. 75% of them have attended 0-4 school grades, 25% have attended elementary school (8 grades school). This is the reason why they cannot help their children and why they do not expect a lot from them.

Parent A says, “I do not know who is going to be his teacher, but I asked the director if it could be the strictest one because he is troublesome. I hope he learns, as we all are unschooled (she meant her family)”.

Parent B is sceptic to teachers “I haven't thought about who is going to be the teacher. They are all the same...they do not pay attention to our children, they say – oh you gipsy you don't study”. Parent C is sceptic to his child's performance; he tries to find out a reason to make him/her go to school “Can you put him in the young teacher's classroom? This way he can willingly come to school as he is not fond of school”.

Parent D speaks about a close connection with his older son which makes him/her hope for the younger as well “Can he please study with the same teacher as my other child as I am used to her, she knows about my misery”.

Parent E does not show any interest at all. “I came to know about his classroom and his teacher the first day I brought my son at school, all teachers are the same”.

The average rate of the Roma children aged from 10 to 16 who abandon school reaches 30% for the boys and 44,6% for the girls. At 16, 96% of girls and 68% of boys have abandoned school. There is still a significant issue of concern “Apparently what is happening to these Roma children inside the school is still far from the public commitment of the educational institution that is: offering equal developing opportunities to all children regardless of the colour of their face”. (Nikolovska, 2008).

2. The Roma education and employment in Albania

“Before the World War II the lack of education and illiteracy used to be dominant characteristics of the Roma community. Education approach was rare because of the nomadic tradition and the school range in Albania at that time. Their conditions have improved during the socialist system when the educational system developed into a more universal system. Even though, they benefit from the basic education not being able to approach higher level of education. It is believed that during the post socialism transition the lower average school enrolment led the way to the deterioration of the education quality of the Roma people. (INSTAT, 2011)

Various studies have provided many factors related to the low rate of education of the Roma people such as, low level of qualification of teachers in order to work with minorities, poor financial condition, high level of discrimination of the Roma community and frequent movement. (Gedeshi, 2010).

The Roma children achievement is far more unsuccessful than that of the other children. Besides the mentioned factors, irregular school attendance has an immediate impact on the Roma student's achievement. "Around 34% of the Roma children have confirmed that they have been absent from school at least once or twice during the last two weeks." (MAS, 2015).

"Given that education is necessary to face the competitive labour market it is important the Roma children attend compulsory education and then some of them can study all the following levels of study by taking into account the ability to soften all barriers. From this point of view, the teacher's competency for inclusion has to include an overall pedagogy which proves that when deciding on the informative teaching the individual characteristics of the children shall be considered – teaching outside the school setting, existing knowledge of the student, individual and cultural experiences and interests." (Florian & Rouse, 2009).

Often, the Roma children's disadvantages are not compensated due to discrimination and failure to benefit from school: "they start their life with the poorest unemployed parents who underestimate the role of schools; children who lack parental support time to time are obliged to help their parents. They are obliged to study in a serious school which provides very little opportunities to live a funny and active life, etc. (Tamo & Karaj, 2007)

If we consider children of all ages, the average percentage of school non-attendance in Albania is 3%. 49% of the Roma children have never attended school. When parents send their children to school, they ask for the teachers' support as they confess they are uneducated themselves. When they have studied 2 – 4 years they do not consider themselves uneducated. Especially the mothers who have the duty to look for their children and assist them with their homework, confess that they do not know how to write and read. The approach toward education is challenging and directly affects their education level. If we refer to there are 96% of Albanian children who have completed the cycle of primary education from grade 1 to 4, 80% of whom have reached grades from 5 to 9, only 43% of the Roma students (40% women and 46% men) who have completed the first four years of elementary school, 21% from whom have made it to the next for years of elementary school (918% women and 2% men). (UNDP, 2011).

"Poverty leads to more frequent cases when children are asked to work instead of go to school. They participate in informal economic activities of their families. When asked whether this was acceptable or not, 55% of the answers of the Roma people agreed, compared to the 25% of the Albanians." (UNDP, 2011)

"The main income for 40% of the Roma families comes from informal activity like collecting and selling rubbish. If we include the Roma people who declare that their main income comes from informal employment in the private sector (10%) and those who declare their main income comes from casual employment (daily-based work, 11%) the result is that the main income for 61% of the Roma families is based on the private sector. (Fondacioni Shoqëria e hapur për Shqipërinë, 2012)

The high school approach is a major challenge for the Roma students. The critical situation in education leads to a more critical status within the labour market. "There is evidence that 81% of the Roma people do not have a job, 9% of those have a profession whose demand is falling, and only 6% have a job in demand." (Fondacioni Shoqëria e hapur për Shqipërinë, 2012). The level of employment and unemployment highlight the low level of activity of the Roma people. The level of unemployment of the Roma women is reaching peaks of 58%. The Roma people being employed in those jobs of low quality, serves as an evidence to their employment through the informal sector. (UNDP, 2011).

The right to education in the Republic of Albania shall be guaranteed to the Albanian citizens, foreign citizens and those without citizenship, without discrimination in terms of gender, race, colour, ethnicity, language, sexual orientation, political or religious convictions, economic or social status, age, residing location, disability or

other grounds being referred to in the Albanian legislation. The effective Albanian legislation aims at being aware, respecting, protecting the national identity and developing the cultural heritage; (Law 69/2012, 2012). Even though the all-inclusive nature is within the previous strategy of the pre-university education already, the researches show that: not enough attention has been paid to the low results of the Roma children at school.

3. The effort to transform the social, economical and education reality of the Roma community

In 2005, the countries taking part in the Decade of Roma committed in closing the gap between in welfare and living conditions between the Roma and non-Romapopulations, as well as putting an end to the cycle of poverty and social exclusion that many Roma find themselves in. Each of these countries has developed a national Decade Action Plan that specifies goals and indicators in the Decade's priority areas: education, employment, health and housing.(UNDP, 2011)

After more than 20-years of post-communist transition, local, national and international institutions have failed to provide a full database of Roma in Albania, despite several efforts and continuing financing. In absence of realistic information on Roma status, it is impossible to formulate adequate policies, to adopt effective strategies and to efficiently implement priority actions. It is also not efficient to provide financing for resolving Roma problems. As a result, it is strongly recommended to restart efforts by the collection of information; a specific registration of the Roma community seems to be indispensable and unavoidable.(Shoqëria Civile, 2012).

There is a general feeling that the Roma children are welcomed at school, which proves that exclusion and discrimination shall not be considered as the reason of not enrolling at schools. This interferes with the experiences given in the report of need assessment, in which between the different mentioned barriers to education, there is also discrimination and stigma caused by poverty are recognized as the main reason for avoiding school. The education system reform in Albania has led to clear qualitative changes as referring to the structure and content of the system, including education programs and teaching methodologies. Even though, yet the scholar texts do not provide any information on the Roma history and culture. The Roma community is referred to as a linguistic minority only in the scholar programs focused on the human rights issues together with the other ethnic and linguistic minorities without offering specific information on this community.

4. Attempts to change the social-economic and educational reality of the Roma community

In 2005, the governments joined the Roma decade committed themselves to narrow the gap that exists in the welfare and living conditions of the Roma as compared to the non-Roma population, take measures to reduce poverty and combat social exclusion in which many Roma find themselves all participating countries developed National Decade action plans, which specify the goals and indications in the areas of priority for the decade: Education, Employment, Health and Housing.(UNDP, 2011)

Despite several attempts and continuous financing, after more than 20 years of post-communist transition, national and international local institutions have failed in submitting the full records on the Roma community in Albania. In absence of real information on the Roma situation it is impossible to implement proper policies, approve effective strategies and effectively implement certain measures. This leads to a non-efficient attempt for financing for the Roma problems. As a result it is highly recommended the recommencement of financing for information collection. The specific registration of the Roma community is now necessary and inevitable. (Shoqëria Civile, 2012).

There is a general idea that the Roma children are welcomed at schools so exclusion and discrimination shall not be considered as a reason why they do not enrol at school. This is inconsistent with what is declared in the Needs Assessment, in which among the different barriers to education there is the discrimination and stigma caused by poverty which is identified as the main cause to school avoidance.

The education system reform in Albania has led to clear qualitative changes as related to the system structure and content, including teaching programs and methodologies. Still, there is no information on the Roma history and culture in scholar textbooks, yet. The Roma community is referred to as a linguistic minority in scholar textbooks which are concerned on human rights issues. No specific information is found for the Roma together with other ethnic and linguistic minorities. Time to time, models follow stereotypes, such as a piece of reading for the second grade student where the Roma student plays the accordion, but he/she is absent from class.

"The second chance program was approved by the ministry a few years ago appointing teachers for specific courses aiming the fulfilment of education gaps in the base education; aiming at encouraging them going back to school and preventing them from abandoning school. Despite the lack of regular statistics, the general perception of the Roma for this program is that it is a very useful and successful program and it should cover all schools including a big number of Roma children" (Shoqëria Civile, 2012).

Providing the Roma students with books according to the common Instruction number 51, clause 4.6 has made it easier for the students, but still there are some students that quit school a few weeks after starting. The Regional Education Director atehas offered several trainings on the new learning programs, new teaching methodologies for teachers.

Specific modules have been included within the training sessions for teachers working with vulnerable groups of students, especially Roma students. Additional trainings have been offered to teachers working with the Roma by the NGOs, financed by the international donator agencies” (Shoqëria Civile, 2012).

The report provides a general description without real figures. According to the questionnaires, the trainings covered just a limited number of modules and were offered to just a limited numbers of schools especially to those with a considerable number of Roma students

“Lack of motivation is one of the main answered reasons why the Roma students quit school. This means it is boring and unpleasant. What school provides them with, does not match to their real life and neither does it match to their future aspirations. In order to be motivated, they need stimulation, aspiration, influence and enthusiasm as it usual for children from the non-Roma families. They also need self-assessment, influence, work for an aim and understand that they have to do something valuable which usually teaching classes cannot make them understand (Shoqëria Civile, 2012).

5. Multicultural Education and its value

Multicultural Education is a process which goes through all aspects of the school practices, polices and organisations, as a way of reaching the highest academic achievement for all students. It helps to develop a positive self-assessment by showing knowledge on the history, culture & contributions of various groups. It leads students to actively work towards structural equality in different organisations and institutions by offering their knowledge and skills to reaply power and income in different groups.

Intercultural Education is considered to be the tool which helps fight educational disadvantages of children with ethnic minority backgrounds(Leeman & Ledoux, 2003). One from the sub-clauses of the Roma decade strategy was the improvement of qualifications for teachers: “Training sessions for teachers in the intercultural environment and periodic qualifications in relevant sessions.”(UNDP, 2011, p. 14)

This is not about improving qualifications as nowadays it is a requirement for education which is an ongoing organism, but it is exactly about becoming qualified in multiculturalism or in the theory of multicultural education.

What is the multicultural education?

Multicultural education is a critical pedagogy based on experiences, knowledge and viewpoints of students and teachers. Multicultural Education promotes social rights. Many teachers believe that social rights can be cultivated within the classroom by assessing diversity, promoting equality, by bringing in a wide improvement of views, based on influence and free speech (Brooks & Thompson, 2005). Practically this means making the necessary adaptations for those children with different special needs so as to provide equal lesson and assessment approach.

Multicultural Education is a developing and complicated process, important to all students, not only to coloured or disadvantaged students. This is racist. Multicultural Education is basic, which means that it is important in every aspect such as, reading, writing, and mathematics. It includes all aspects of school life, setting, curricula and relationships between teachers, students and the largest community of the school(Nieto & Bode, 2008). Another concept is presented by Grant and Sleeter highlighting the fact that “Multicultural Education means having the faith that in a certain society, school can and has to prepare citizens to work in groups and be active in order to confront the problems which society might face” (Grant and Sleeter 2008).

Teachers from different schools were asked about their knowledge on multicultural education. The study concluded that the majority of the teachers had never heard about this philosophy, not even about its principles and dimensions. Some of them believed that this type of education would be helpful just in the areas around the borders or in classrooms with children from different nationalities.

Usually, the origin of school problems is the prejudicial nature of the humans and of teachers in general. This is why minimizing prejudice is the first goal to be achieved. The teachers will start to reduce prejudice, once they realize how much it affects teaching process. Multicultural Education is based upon 5 major dimensions, which make the root philosophy of this education, explaining its efficiency and success in all groups of students.

Prejudice Reduction: It is focused on the characteristics of the students' attitudes and how they can be modified through learning methodologies and information.

"Intergroup prejudice is a concerning issue which can be reduced through school education as they are public places where students can learn how to negotiate and how to apply the difference between the things they know. If the prejudice system will not be explored in schools the students will not have the chance to identify and reduce the intergroup prejudice.

Intergroup prejudice is turned to children from their families, school community or teachers who do not offer equal opportunities to improve their academic, mental and physical skills (Janaqi, 2013).

In such a circumstance students realize the existence of numerous social perspectives which offer social conditions to help improve their intergroup relationship at school and community." (Camicia, 2007).

Inclusion of content has to do with the application of different cultural examples and contents by the teacher in order to introduce key concepts, principles and generalisations in the subject field.

Teachers, being aware of the cultural diversity, try to understand the universal viewpoints of different students and respect and accept them as such. Educational Researches, even when they are traditionally focused on effective teaching and academic success, agree that the quality of education is partially defined by students individually, by the time and context and they recognize that the teachers' professionalism shall be focused more on the "diversity" and on the reflection of how the diversity approaches the teachers' education practice and their actions based on this reflection (Leeman & Volman, 2001).

The process of building up knowledge relates to the way in which teachers offer their support to students by helping them understand, look into and define cultural intended assumptions, reference frames and perspectives and prejudice within a discipline which has its impact on the ways knowledge is set up.

Grouping and Labelling practices, sports participation, in a disproportion with the staff and students, regardless of ethnic and racial diversity, are those components of school culture which should be examined in order to build that school culture which favours the development of students from different racial, ethnic and cultural groups. "Very often these factors completely cover the prejudice and the strong ignorance as referring to what it can actually be done in order to include a larger variety of children" (Musai, Ikonomi, & Sotirofski, 2009).

Equality between the pedagogical staff happens when teachers modify their teaching process in order to simplify academic achievement for students from different social classes and, cultural and racial differences. This includes a variety of types of learning processes applied to a wide variety of teaching process within different cultural and ethnic groups. (Banks, 2006).

Every student has the right to develop and study in a school close to his house. This is particularly included in the UNO convention on Children's Rights. It is true that their settlements are grouped in certain quarters especially in the outskirts usually next to the river shores. Around 12% of the Roma express their difficulty to access the school setting (INSTAT, 2011). Therefore, several schools tend to have larger numbers of students from this community. Teachers have to be conscious of their specific role and how to adapt it while working with other multi-disciplinary professionals (social workers, psychologists and different therapists) in developing and applying the IEP, etc. (Musai, Ikonomi, & Sotirofski, 2009, p. 54).

6. The teacher, is a key factor in education's quality development

Education goes through various challenges. Teachers and school will provide the needed support. In theory, teachers expect a lot of challenges, but are they ready to manage the reality of social, cultural and economic differences of this community? Are they able to meet the needed competency without performing any qualification processes? Qualifications are essential to the teachers' constant adaption to the needs, especially when referring to new international theories.

"We have to pretend more than immediate academic achievement from our educators... and there won't be the minor success achieved if students, our children, won't believe that educators love them and take care of them, even if they themselves won't know how to look for others." (Noddings, 1995) Noddings calls it a minor success the immediate academic success as compared to learning how to look after each-other. She proceeds with her comment that taking the time to develop a positive relationship with the students, speak with them about their problems, help them become sensible and skilful are very important educational activities. These kind of relationships are very important as they encourage learning, which might be very difficult to achieve through other ways.

There are several procedures and institutions providing multicultural programs' accreditation. Continuous training programs are optional and they are not available to all teachers. Currently there is lack of awareness of the wide range of diversity between the students. (Musai, Ikonomi, & Sotirofski, 2009, p. 36). Therefore, helping the diversity and mechanisms which can develop the teachers' qualifications and trainings does not give any hope.

Professors from the NCTI or the local authorities and other state agencies, usually bear the official status, but these accredited institutions do not apply priorities on community qualifications. This study shows that teachers are interested in different trainings in order to raise their credits, even though the training theme does not fit. Moreover, the training sessions are charged therefore teachers are not interested in them. Specific theme trainings are offered by NGOs which might not meet the teachers' needs but do match to their plans and visions. The NGOs' professors are highly motivated and qualified.

Teachers say that, "We would like to attend various training sessions but they are too expensive to be afforded. We are lucky if offered any training sessions by the NGOs".

Teacher A describes, "These kind of training sessions are highly efficient especially for us who don't have many experiences at work. Often it seems like we lack the proper proficiency or it's like the students are unable to learn. But I do understand now that this is not true. All I learned was helpful and I could see the problem from a different point of view."

Teacher B, "Even if you have a lot of years of experience, often you have to reconsider your attitude during the class session. For example, I was surprised to face that positive reaction from the student's parent and to see that my teaching would make him feel delighted in front of his classmates."

Teacher C, "We often believe that in order to make students understand the lesson we have to spend too much effort while teaching, but no. If you use different games, you achieve more than you can imagine."

Teacher D, "Gandhi quotes - If you want change, starts with yourself. If I will think differently, it will have my impact on others also. I could assure that the only thing these students need is a little more love than the others. Probably because of their hard living conditions. They need more affection. I have been working with at least 10 Roma students and I have been delighted. So they have been successful."

Teacher E, "We may need to consider time, and give more time to the changes. I cannot forget the example of the professor and the candle: if we light the candles one by one, no one will notice, but if we light 5 or 6 at a time, there is a difference."

Teacher F, "They say, You Live and Learn, so it is not enough. Despite going through a long experience, us, the old generation tend to ignore the gender difference. Even if we do not agree with anything, we do not have why to offend them, not even indirectly."

In 2016, for the first time it was issued a national report indicating the teachers and directors' needs as referring to the pre-university education. Our responsibility towards 500,000 students and their parents is based upon this document, showing reality, bearing the name of every teacher, school, Regional Education Directorate. But the important thing is being engaged in time, with measurable indicators in order to improve the urgent issues and after that to build a permanent, coherent system for the teachers' qualifications." (MAS, 2016)

"These agencies have not had a proper cooperation and coordination with the Regional Education Directory and schools in order to provide real support which meets the reforms of the pre-university system. Very often, the media or several teachers have reported a very negative side of the education system, delaying for credits. There is also lack of the professional literature and publications to support teachers to learning about development, following the experiences of

their local and foreign colleagues. Meanwhile, the online courses are missing also."This was cited in the report, adding that there was a poor coordinaton between the university education as referring to the teacher's qualifications."_(MAS, 2016)

"The national report for the identification of the teachers and directors' need for trainings" identified the need for qualification based on the analysis of subjects referring to the general standards of the teacher. Each subject includes several issues which lead to the tools which help identify what's needed, as follows:

Planning (annual, daily planning) etc. Planning according to the students' needs (learning objectives or results, learning resource, Planning real-life cases, ensuring coherence of planning, planning the assessment tools). Teaching and Learning (the methodology of teaching-learning), Learning assessment, the question technique and discussions, (manage the classroom and the students' behaviour) the physical environment of the classroom, Classroom climate, Communication and Ethics, Ethics Code, communicating with the Students, Communicating with the parents, Communicating with colleagues, collaborating with the community, professional development, participating in professional development activities, participating in professional networks.(MAS, 2016)

Important elements such as social equality and prejudice have not been analysed, although they can help identifying various elements helpful to multicultural education.

EDI has accredited teachers according to Directive 26 date 15.08.14 based on Article 58, Law no. 9754, "Social Justice Education" program which has a key role in multicultural education. NGOs related to and interested on the Roma community problems, have been analysing and offering this to teachers.

Even after a few sessions of qualification, you can feel the difference in their attitude towards themselves and the student. This was identified during the interviews with the teacher.

Methodology

Theoretical support of the study is based on the study of literature and educational policies reported by the Ministry of Education and Sports.

This is a case study which refers to an infrequent example. The semi-structured interview is the key instrument applied with, Teachers; Students; Parents

School Directors

The semi-structured format of the interview is mainly based on key questions which are included within the study, the vocabulary used is simple and familiar to the participants of the study. This is followed by study surveys related to the feelings and benefits from the "social justice" training and how much does this help training and working with certain categories of children, especially those from the Roma community.

The questionnaire aims at identifying the popularity of multicultural education and making clear if prejudice is preventing the teaching process and if so, at what extent. It tends to find out in which areas do we need to intervene in order to make teachers conscious about the importance of considering all students equally and minimizing prejudice.

When asked if they are prejudicial to others, 90% of teachers answered "No", but the following answers reveal the prejudging nature of their actions. For example, when asked to whom would they firstly give a certain task, to boys or girls, to children with a good economical background or not, to a Roma student or to the majority, we could understand that they were very prejudicial to others according to their answers. (We keep in mind here the people's sincerity also).

Teacher 1 says, "I have organized the cleaning groups with both boys and girls, but the boys will carry the water and throw the rubbish away, girls will clean...".

Teacher 2 says, "The Roma parents, are not interested at all and they do not come here along the year, so in the front desk will be sitting those whose parents come to school and ask about them".

Teacher 3 says, "The desk does not make the student, but the Roma students usually stay in the last desk as some are older than the others while some others prefer doing so".

Teacher 4 says, "When students are asked to bring some school tools with them, the Roma bring just a few so they work with fewer tools than the others".

So, it is not the principles which reflect on behaviours, but the demand and interest of certain groups.

Findings

According to the study, teachers from different schools had the following knowledge on multicultural education: the majority had never heard about such a philosophy, neither for principles or dimensions. Some of them believed that this type of education was used just in areas near to the borders or in multi-nations classrooms.

Less prejudice is the key to multicultural education which has a clear impact on the process of teaching. As soon as teachers come to know this factor, they will become conscious of its importance and will try to avoid it. Equal society education makes the teacher self-confident about his professional skills and improves his efforts for better results.

Study Restrictions

There are no standard questionnaires in this study, but it is based on different questionnaires and supporting theories. The number of teachers was limited also and not all questions were asked to the same groups of people. All teachers work with Roma students but the choice was casual. They were selected intentionally as part of organized trainings.

Not all questionnaire answers were included within the study.

Problems Following the Education of Roma Children in Their Free Movement and Their Attempts for Asylum

Msc. Alketa Bulku

Vice president at "Bajram Curri" middle school, Tirana, Albania

Abstract

Immigration is a growing phenomenon in the recent years with its characteristics on the social groups which are mainly involved and with its impact on the educational level of children also. The life of Roma children is associated with a lot of economic and social problems. They often move inside or outside the country for a more normal life. Frequent changes have their own psycho-social impact on children, as the most sensitive category of the society. They often suffer the long-term consequences which influence the progress of their education and future. Multicultural education and inclusive education are considered to be a good opportunity for marginalised groups offering equal education opportunities in the destination country the same as in their native country, but still they come across some difficulties. This is a qualitative research which aims at giving an analysis about the impact of immigration on the multicultural education and on the inclusion of children within the education system. What happens to these children once in the destination countries and how do they adapt their old experience? What is the impact of this transition on their emotions? The case study was performed through the: theoretical study of the phenomenon, monitoring, students, parents, educators and focus groups' interviews. This study is focused on the primary and low secondary school students. This study introduces some evidence provided by children, educators and parents, proving that returning back to your home country does only enrich their life experience. It does not have a clear positive effect on their education and inclusion to the education process.

Keywords: Education, Inclusion, Multicultural Inclusion, Asylum, economic – social difficulty.

Introduction

Problems following the education of Roma children in their free movement

Globalisation, economic problems and disputes are some of the reasons causing free or obliged movement of different social cultural groups towards more developed countries. They are obliged to seek for better living conditions and they also have to live with the variety of problems related to the cultural characteristics of the nation that they represent and of the country that they come from. Usually the movement takes place from developing countries to already developed or economically consolidated countries. Immigration is a growing phenomenon in the recent years with its characteristics on the social groups which are mainly involved and with its impact on the educational level of children also.

Educational experiences of refugee children in the developed countries, for example in the United States, are from the most marginalised educational groups internationally. Actually, more than half of the 57 million out-of-school children globally live in conflict-affected environment (UNESCO, 2013).

Often the actual kind of knowledge migrant children possess is not of an academic type and as such cannot be measured by the available standardized assessment tools. (Adams & Kirova, 2005, p. 8). This can result in teachers giving priority to socially sensitive teaching practices, but teachers may also feel less competent to provide the adequate level of content to the newcomer children, and to facilitate their learning. The lack of appropriate curriculum (materials) and sound information about the child's previous educational experiences, as well as poor assessment of general knowledge and skills, can pose challenges to teachers' daily life in a classroom with these children (Educational International, 2010).

While parents try to improve the quality of their children's lives, they fail to think of their education. Despite the multicultural profits and life experience gained, they risk a permanent disengagement from school. Children face several challenges once in the new country, such as, facing the unknown, social-emotional adaptation, cultural adaptation, extreme difficulties which their families go through, etc. Beside the tradition of the destination country, becoming part of a new education system usually it is based on two strategies, the inclusive and multicultural education, which the last two years are globally considered to be priorities.

Theoretical point of view on the inclusive education and multicultural education

Inclusive education and multicultural education are education strategies which aim the inclusion and qualitative education of vulnerable and marginalised groups in both the origin and destination countries. Inclusion means being offered equal education opportunities and multicultural education means to give support and show respect for the culture of the country from where the children come.

Banks (1996) defined multicultural education as "a field of study and an emerging discipline whose major aim is to create equal opportunities for students from diverse racial, ethnic, social and cultural groups."(Banks, 1996, p. 46). Nieto (2004) views multicultural education as a process that requires not only challenging issues of difference and diversity, but also those of power and privilege. In other words, when inequitable structures, policies and practices of schools exist, they must be confronted.(Nieto S. , 2004).

Nieto and Bode (2008) expand upon this definition to include seven characteristics of multicultural education. First, multicultural education is antiracist.(Nieto & Bode, 2008)

First, multicultural education is antiracist.

Second, it is basic, meaning multicultural education should be considered as important as reading, writing, and math. Thirdly, multicultural education is critical for all students, not just for students of colour, or those who are considered disadvantaged. Fourth multicultural education is pervasive. It is embedded in all aspects of school life, environment, lessons, and relationships among teachers, students, and the larger school community. Fifth, multicultural education promotes social justice. Sixth, multicultural education is an ongoing, complex process that is never fully complete. Last, multicultural education is critical pedagogy based on experiences, knowledge, and viewpoints of the learners and the teachers.

Manning and Baruth (2009) suggest multicultural education is both a concept and process, designed to "teach learners to recognize, accept, and appreciate differences in culture, ethnicity, social class, sexual orientation, religion, special needs and gender"(Manning & Baruth, 2004, p. 5). In addition, they believe multicultural education should instill a sense of responsibility and a commitment toward the democratic tenants of justice, equality and democracy. Bennett's (2011) writes, "Multicultural education is a complex approach to teaching and learning that includes the movement toward equity in schools and classrooms, the transformation of the curriculum, the process of becoming multiculturally competent, and the commitment to address societal injustices"(Bennett, 2011). Regardless of minor nuances in these descriptions, educators bear the responsibility for changing school culture to reflect the values of multiculturalism(Dimmock & Walker, 2005).

Inclusive education is an educational strategy aiming the effective inclusion of children in educational activities. Inclusion and integration represent two concepts being so close but far from education.

It is important to make the difference between these two concepts. Inclusion represents a wider concept than integration. Even though integration aims the inclusion of special needs students within the education system, still it is different from inclusion. Different authors (Soder, 1991; Jordan and Powell, 1994; Major, PijandHegarty,1997) stated that "integration comes after exclusion, as a way to avoid it. Integration can result in adapting the scholar programme to the special needs of students, but that is not enough for their inclusion within education. In the worst case, integration leads only to physical presence of children with special needs within the general schools or to a new version of the scholar programme."

Inclusion means much more than physical presence. "In order to provide inclusive education, various levels of politics and thoughts are needed as it is not only a school concern. It goes beyond connected to the life of children beyond school, to their family and community" (Stangvik, 1997). "Inclusion does not mean only to arrange school environment, but reforming the school"(Pijl, Meijer, & Hegarty, 1997). Reformation means changes in the mentality of the policymakers and

professionals of education. Traditional mentality in favour of the education system shall be open for changes influenced by the contemporary paradigm in education and it shall offer solutions for the children's advantage. (Pijl, Meijer, & Hegarty, 1997, p. 151)

Education in Albania and marginalised groups

Albania is undergoing an extended economic, political and social transition. Its education system is being reformed due to the need of changes under the influence of globalizing factors. From time to time laws and strategies have been created in favour of reformation of school policies supporting the multicultural and inclusive education. The first concerning issue seems to be about what's written and what is being put into practice within the education institutions. The implementation of education reform in Albania leads to an education system that includes diversity of students and that adapts education to this diversity. In general, the education environment is characterised by the mentality "one-size-fits-all" and the concept of inclusive education is based on equal teaching for all students, despite their profiles, social background, skills and personal style and without following them individually" (Sultana, 2006). Various researches on the education field have shown that the education reform goes through three levels: the teacher's attitude against students with special needs, adapting the curricula and factors outside the school. The second concerning issue is about how trained and qualified is the pedagogical staff in order to work with those students part of that contingent that needs inclusive education. Inclusive education opposes the avoidance and oppressive values against people and groups in need. These values consider these people as weak due to their problems and negate them as humans. (Armstrong, 2003). In the form of inclusive education, multicultural education interferes as an effective approach. Reducing prejudice and being socially fair, are key standards which need to be empowered and extended within the education system. It presents the role of school in the development of the key attitudes and values to a democratic society. It appreciates the cultural differences and affirms the pluralism reflected by the students, their community and the teacher. It challenges all types of discrimination at school and within the society through promoting the democratic principles of social rights (Sultana, 2006). But still education is a weak point for certain social groups, especially for the Roma people. Marginalisation is the cause to partial inclusion and integration. The Roma inclusion decade 2005-2015, which is the most absolute initiative for the improvement of their life, recognizes education as the key to their social integration. Through this research we are trying to provide a qualitative and measurable perspective of the Roma children education in Albania. Over than 90% of Roma children do not have a studying place at home. About 70% of them state that their parents are not able to offer them their help when studying. About 90% of children state that they do not follow any additional courses on those subjects they might face difficulties. The quality of education received by the Roma children is quite more reduced than that of others (Pasha, 2012). Inclusion and the inclusive strategy are considered by the law on education, still no achievements are accomplished.

Albania lacks the full and proper data on the level of education of Roma children, especially for those from official census. Meanwhile, contradictory data come from administrative resources, from various surveys, official estimates or nongovernmental societies. Even the results from Census 2011 did not provide real figures. A lot of debate and discussions came from the side of different societies and organizations interested on this target group. There are various reasons why we lack the correct figures. The Roma people live in the outlying districts, in remote not properly urbanised areas. There should be a clear record taken from the responsible people on the lack of roads and buildings fearing the stigmatization and misuse of the information for discrimination purposes or disbelieving the state or the scepticism against the profits received from participating in the census; (INSTAT, 2011)

Meanwhile, it is generally known that school enrolment and attendance and the quality of education of the Roma children is very low, school dropouts rates are high and a small group of Roma children graduate in elementary school, even less graduate in high school or university. They say that the Roma children experience various forms of prejudice, discrimination and segregation.

The reasons why the Roma children do not regularly attend school or drop out school are: unregistered births, immigration, commitment to work or helping out their parents who work, lack of knowledge of the Albanian language and unsatisfying assessment at school, being embarrassed to restart school after several dropouts, the need to protect girls once they are teenagers, low educational support from their parents, goods poverty, racism/discrimination.

2.2. Social, economic and cultural characteristics of the Roma community related to education

The Roma and other migrating communities make the biggest minority group in Europe. They observed that in the European Union countries discrimination and other abuses of the human rights against the Roma and other migrating people have been deteriorating and no European government can pretend to be successful in defending the human rights for these minorities which urged the development of an inclusive report on the situation of the Roma and migrating communities in Europe.(UNDP , 2006)

Estimates show that the Roma population in Albania varies from 80.000 – 120.000. They are mainly located in the suburb of the cities. They have mainly their identity and conserve their language. The rate of unemployment and illiteracy is four times higher compared to the majority of the population(UNDP , 2006). Social exclusion is viewed as the main cause of their poverty. Governmental policies for the Roma community are known as Ethno-linguistic and not as a national minority due to the lacking a motherland. Yet government says that rights deriving from the Framework Convention on National Minorities are applicable to the Roma people also.

There is a special act related to the policies of education of the Roma children (OSCE, 2003). Even though, many positive attempts referring to school reconstruction or new classes available in the Roma community areas, referring to teachers' trainings and free books dispatching, education strategy objectives have been partially achieved. Although there are specific plans for the implementation of this strategy, the government has not provided the necessary manpower, institutional and financial resources for the implementation of relevant monitoring and evaluating bodies. The ministry of Education and Sports has undertaken the initiative of "second chance" for the education of the Roma children, which represents the most important step towards their educational and social integration. The current strategy for the Roma has not addressed the problem of racism segregation that they do actually experience at school. The objectives of the Roma strategy have not addressed the influence of their family as the most important aspect of education. Education provided to the Roma children does not take into consideration the special sociology of the Roma as a social group.(FRA, 2014, p. 13). All these special and important issues of concern have direct impact on their studying progress. The vicious circle leads only to poverty which can be avoided through giving up school.

The methodology of study

The case study has been achieved through: theoretical study of the phenomenon, research on documentation, interviews with students, educators, school directors and focus groups of parents.

The qualitative study has been performed in a school in the outlined district of Tirana where 35% of its students are Roma students and 90% from those who have been seeking asylum are Roma students. Children who together with their families lived in destination countries were included in the study. The theoretical study of the phenomenon was based on the contemporary literature in order to have a study with multiple points of view.

The research has been mainly focused on the data provided by schools. These documents reflect the attendance and progress of children in the countries where their families were seeking asylum. Only those attending German schools have submitted documents from corresponding schools. Students studying in other countries were not provided with the requested documents.

Through the interviews with students we were introduced to the long way towards asylum, their emotional experiences and description of schools that they have attended in the destination countries.

The interviews with teachers were performed in order to make an analysis on the situation of the children after their return from relevant schools.

The interviews with school directors were performed to have information on the behaviour towards them once they are returned in their old classrooms and to have a deeper knowledge on the problems which follow the phenomenon.

Focus groups were created in order to have an answer why they are always leaving to other countries, regardless of the refusal of their request for asylum, in order to confront their thoughts and understand in depth their lives challenges and their mentality.

Which are the factors that lead the Roma community in Albania to seek asylum

Poverty is the major factor that draws them to seek asylum. Albania lacks the official statistics but subsequent studies have been made from various organizations offering their help to this community as per humanitarian and study purposes also.

The average income per head for Roma people in Albania, in the first half of the last decade has been estimated less than one third of those non-Roma people and over 80% of them live under the living level of 14%.

On the other hand, the regional study of 2011 for the Roma gives the average 37% live under the estimated indigence rate for the Roma population or more than the duplicated estimated indigence for the non-Roma population who lives near to the Roma areas.

The study results published by the UNDP in 2006 show the Roma unemployment level is almost 3 times higher than the non-Roma population as a result of the combined poor teaching and discrimination. According to the regional study of the Roma in 2012, the quality of their living conditions is problematic. 36% out of the Roma houses, 61% from them do not have a toilet. A considerable number of Roma houses (30%) do not have direct access to consumable water. (OSCE, 2013)

Two years later, another study writes: generally the major problems for the Roma community have economic nature related to the possibility to afford a decent life, like, unemployment, lack of food, lack of living conditions etc. The Roma seems to be quite pessimistic about their near future finance. Only 15% of them think that their economic condition will be better in 2013 than in 2012. The remaining think that it will become worse (33%), or that it will continue to be the same (24%), or that they do not know how to answer (29%).

According to their statements, their family income can only help them survive and in the majority of cases they can hardly survive. Incomes from informal activities, like collecting and selling recycled materials is the main way 40% to earn their living. If we come to include those who declare to earn their living from employment in the informal private sector (10%), and those declaring occasional employment as the main way of earning a living (day based work, 11%), the result is 61% of Roma families earn their living through working in informal sectors.

The only chance of doing a state paid job is for some family heads working in the greenery or cleaning service, etc.

The Roma community is unsatisfied even from the labour office (about 74%). They state that from those declared as unemployed; only 29% are registered in the labour office while 71% of the unemployed Roma people who could have the support of the labour office services are not able to register.

The Roma state several causes for their unemployment. They are mainly related to the lack of job opportunities generally in Albania, ethnicity, their low educational and professional level. So, the data show that 81% of the Roma people do not have a profession, 9% have low demand professions and only 6% have inn-demand jobs.

Living conditions for the Roma are too difficult. According to the study, 35% of Roma families live in no larger than 40m² areas and that 31% of their houses are used by two or more families. 18% of Roma families live in huts and shacks, in very difficult conditions and there is no opportunity to turn them into legal properties, while 50% of them declare living in old houses.

Nearly one in three Roma people say "unemployment" is their major problem in their ordinary life. Generally, the real problem of this community is their financial status and challenge of affording a decent life...(Pasha, 2012, p. 14)

Among the most common works are: second hand goods trade, collecting recycling materials, plastic and paper. In order to collect all these materials they wander through garbage bins near to the urban areas or at the garbage patches. We have to stress that different aged children are involved in these works.

Another common phenomenon is their exploitation as street beggars. Cases when they are monitored by mentors are even more serious, working under pressure to collect certain amounts of money. Very often TV investigative programmes have shown facts that these children are victims of human trafficking. Often, Roma families are big families which consist of numerous members and the elders take decisions on behalf of the young members, usually affecting their education in favour of early marriages or keeping girls at home. During a session from the interviews of focus groups with parents, they

say: "although we have been through a lot of difficulties such as our journey to Germany and moving from one camp to the other while seeking for asylum, after being unsuccessful and returning back here, we will keep trying. We cannot have a proper job here; we collect various materials, refrigerators, washing machines whenever we find any. Our earnings per day depend on the goods we collect. Women are unemployed while our little kids need care. We do not have assistance and if we go there, for sure we will be provided financial support and shelter. Besides, we can do some works of community and maintenance service etc. Our major problem is language, as it prevents us from getting a job but we hope our children learn."

Another parent says that they sell second hand goods but this is not being allowed anymore as the police are asking for business license and permits and in contrary they take hold of all goods. "But we don't have licenses for this! I won't apply for one anyway! Do we earn enough money to apply for one?"

Free movement and immigration impact on education and confrontation of the Roma children to new reality

Being a group in need and always affected by subsequent changes and traditionally moving from one country to another, they often experience new things. A lot of refugee children experience dropouts from school or limited approach to education.

Based on relevant policies in the destination countries, refugee children are included within the education system and they can attend language classes according to their age. A lot of difficulties related to adaption to the new educational level are witnessed, mainly related to their learning progress in their homeland.

The educational experience of the refugee children in the First Asylum countries seem to be far from the objectives of the UNCHR. These global education models for the refugee children in the First Asylum countries have had their impact on their education after resettling to the destination countries.

Refugee children might manifest some learning difficulties, due to school dropouts, not because they are lacking skills. Learning gaps can be minor (after dropping out school for some weeks only) or big (years without attending school). Education is often sporadic after they are settled in the new country, which can influence their families' attitudes. Based on the past experience, teachers can recognize the parents or children's hesitation to invest time on school and relevant relationship. Refugee children are usually exposed to multiple language learning which can lead to language confusion and limited opportunities to master academic language.

Careful attention is necessary in order to identify the learning needs based on their academic experience, compared to the born capacities to learn. There are various factors that might prevent refugees' enrolment at school, including their living in acute needs; conflict, legal restrictions according to enrolment and frequent displacement in the first asylum countries, and also the fear of getting exposed to migration applications or other authorities.

Refugee children usually face language barriers. They can have obstacles with lessons that have to be learnt in a different language from their own, or in case they have to take lessons in a limited resource environment in order to support language learning. Refugees in the same class can speak different languages which need various interpretations; they can slow down or interrupt the teaching process. They are usually exposed to many languages which prevent them from mastering one of them.(Bourgonje, 2010)

Children leaving Albania, face two language challenges. First, in their country the lesson is not held in the Roma language. They speak their language just in the family setting and when they attend Albanian schools, they start to learn Albanian language as their first foreign language, spoken and written. In the asylum countries they are introduced to a new unknown language. So, in a very short time, they are exposed to three different languages. If we add academic barriers to this, children then will feel not ready to attend school.

Education in the destination countries

Problems with education in the destination countries have been treated by various researcher in the recent years. International data show the growing rates of migration all over the world and more than the half of refugees consists of children. Migration has several educational impacts(Bourgonje, 2010). It is important to highlight that there is no difference between educational problems and needs. Children of refugee and immigrants seeking asylum has turned into a global

concern for educators. Education systems face the need to answer to the current tendencies of migration and to the demographic changes of students in an adequate manner.

Migrant education is high on the policy agenda in many OECD countries. Growth of the ethnic and cultural diversity provides new opportunities and challenges within the education systems. While, focusing on outcomes for these children and reviewing education policies at the international level, has rarely been done. In 2008, The OECD Thematic Review on Migrant Education has started a project in support of developing practices by ensuring a deep analysis on the approach to immigrants' education(OECD, 2008).

There is a low and unequal education provided to refugees. As a result, even those refugees who have displaced their children from the first asylum countries might have lower skills and knowledge than their peers.

Another problem for Roma children from Albania is that they leave without getting any documents from schools. How do they integrate in their new classrooms?

The focus group with parents said: "school enrolment was arranged by the social centre that used to cover: monthly payment, health problems, school, so, you could turn to them for any issue of concern. Enrolment in classes or language courses was done according to age. You could receive language classes in common classrooms for three days and in your classroom for two days. They were integrated at school but depending on the interest and possibility shown by their parents. Parents' interest was relative from one family to the other. The most important thing was learning the new language, and this was worth for us parents as well."

The Roma students who had attended school came from several European countries, such as: Italy, France and Germany. Only a few students had attended classes regularly according to their age. Only those students coming from German schools were provided with the corresponding documentation. Picture 1, shows one photo of the documentation provided to student A. R. by the school she used to go to.

Picture 1

61130 NIDDERAU - WINDESHEIM

Schuljahr: 2014 / 2015

2. Halbjahr

Jahrgangsstufe: 3
Klasse: 3c

Zeugnis

Arbeitsverhalten	<u>1</u>	Sozialverhalten	<u>2</u>
Pflichtunterricht			
Religion	<u>*</u>	Kunst*)	<u>2</u>
Deutsch	<u>*</u>	Musik	<u>2</u>
Sachunterricht	<u>*</u>	Sport / Schwimmen	<u>2</u>
Mathematik	<u>*</u>	Englisch**) (1 Fremdsprache)	<u>2</u>

Bemerkungen: Anisa lebt erst seit Oktober 2014 in Deutschland und geht seitdem regelmäßig zur Schule.
* Als Seiteneinsteiger erfolgt, durch die Verordnung zur Gestaltung des Schulverhältnisses Teil 7 §56 geregelt, in diesen Fächern eine Verbalbeurteilung. siehe Blatt 2 – Anlage zum Zeugnis. Aus diesem Grund hat sie die fehlende Benotung nicht zu vertreten.

Versäumnisse: 0 Tag(e) (0 Tag(e) entschuldigt / 0 Tag(e) unentschuldigt)
0 Stunde(n) (0 Stunde(n) entschuldigt / 0 Stunde(n) unentschuldigt)

Sie wird in die Jahrgangsstufe 4 versetzt.

61130 Nidderau, den 24. Juli 2015

Kennntnis genommen.

(Datum)

In the document it is said: A.R. lives in Germany from the last October and since that time she attended school regularly.

In German language she masters reading. She is confident when reading already conducted texts but her reading skills in new texts are vulnerable. Her writing is recognizable. A. R. is able to use capital or lower case letters in her exercises. She

has done progress in mathematics. She is willing to work according to her abilities and enjoys her achievements. A. R. is interested in ethics and her inclusion varies according to her language skills during the class. She is very active during school activities. She learns quickly and she is highly motivated. Her vocabulary has improved and she is able to discuss with teachers and peers.

Picture 2

Bestätigung über die Schulzugehörigkeit

Die Schülerin

geboren am 19. Mai 2001 in Tirana/Albanien
besucht im Schuljahr 2015/2016 die 07. Jahrgangsstufe der
Hyazinth-Wäckerle-Mittelschule.
Sie besucht die Hyazinth-Wäckerle-Mittelschule seit dem 01.08.2015.
Der Schulbesuch endet voraussichtlich am 31.07.2016. *11.11.2015*

Lauingen (Donau), den 10.11.15



J. Schenk
Joseph Schenk, Rektorin

Hyazinth-Wäckerle-Mittelschule
Postfach 10000
89415 Lauingen (Donau)

Certificate of Attendance. She was born on 19 May in Tirana and she is attending the academic year 2015-2016, seventh grade. She attended school from 01.08.2015 to 11.11.2015

Picture 3 is a photo of the document from student J. XH.

Albanien Herkunftssprache: **Albanisch**

Vorbereitungsklasse seit 16.02.2015

Das Kind erstmals in einer deutschen Schule eingeschult am 16.02.2015

Deutsch als Zweitsprache	3	Erreichte Niveaustufe	A1/A2	Sport	3
Englisch	2+	Anforderungsniveau Jahrgang	5/6	Lernbereich Gesellschaft	3
Mathematik	4+	Anforderungsniveau Jahrgang	7/8	Kunst	3

Angaben zur individuellen Lernentwicklung, zum erreichten Lernstand und zu den überfachlichen Kompetenzen:

Naturwissenschaft: 3+

Die Deutschnote entspricht den erreichten Niveaustufen im Fach "Deutsch als Zweitsprache" und ist nicht mit der Deutschnote der Regelklasse zu vergleichen.

Liebe Justina,

erst im Februar 2015 bist du in die Klasse 7/8 IV gekommen. Schnell hast du dich dieser Klasse eingelebt und Anschluss gefunden. Deine Mitschüler wählten dich vor einiger Zeit zu einer Klassensprecherin. Du bist eine angenehme Schülerin, die gern lacht und auch manchmal Scherze macht, sich aber auch an die Schulregeln hält.

Beim Erlernen der deutschen Sprache hast du ordentlich begonnen. Deine Leistungen im Hörverstehen und Lesen sind gut. Du hast deinen Wortschatz erweitert und bist inzwischen in der Lage, in Deutsch einfache Gespräche zu führen. In der englischen Sprache kannst du dich, im Vergleich zu manchen anderen Schülern in der Klasse 7/8 IV – relativ gut ausdrücken. Dabei profitierst du von in deinem Heimatland erworbenen englischen Sprachkenntnissen. In Mathematik, das ein weiteres Hauptfach ist, hast du einige Wissenslücken und Lernrückstände, die du aufholen bzw. schließen musst.

Du verstehst viele Dinge im Unterricht relativ schnell und arbeitest mündlich aktiv mit. Jedoch musst du noch fleißiger werden, regelmäßig die Hausaufgaben machen und sonst noch mehr zu Hause üben als bisher.

178 und Gymn. - Internationale Vorbereitungsklassen der Jahrgangsstufen 5 bis 10) Fassung 11.2011

In the document it is said: for student j. XH., German language assessment shows the achieved level in German language and it is not the equivalent to the normal classes evaluation. Dear J. XH. you came at school in February 2015 and you

integrated within a short time. You are a very good student, always smiling; you make jokes but always respecting the rules. You are always learning and your listening and reading skills are very good. Your vocabulary is improved and you are able to make simple discussions in German language. As compared to other students, you can express yourself very good in English language. There are a few deficiencies in mathematics which you need to improve, as it is one of the key subjects. You can understand things relatively fast, and your verbal communication is active. Even though, you have to show your earnest effort to regularly do your homework and get more exercises done at home.

Observations performed within the school environment after returning back at their homelands

In some countries, the Roma asylum seekers have been provided kind of temporary defence, which prevented them from getting the status of the resident even not progressive exhibition of their rights. Repetition of the disposition of a shortly "tolerated" status has prevented thousands of Roma people to come and integrate within the new societies. The right to asylum has been recognized by the United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1951) for all refugees without discrimination. The Roma asylum seekers and displaced persons have to be treated the same as the non-Roma asylum seekers or displaced people. Many European countries have performed banishing practices for the Roma. The document from the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, 20 guidelines on *forced return* provides the standards on defence procedures which the state members should respect when undertaking forced return. The guidelines stress that group banishing of expats is forbidden (UNDP, 2006).

After they return back to Albania, schools adapt the current laws, that means putting the child at the same classes they were attending before leaving. The school director says: "based on the guideline for students returned from immigration date, 10.11.2015, students returning from immigration, especially those coming back from Germany, and from other countries also, get enrolled according to their age, after doing an exam testing the level of their knowledge, or converting the results from the documentation provided by the previous school. Usually there is no documentation provided, or it does not fit with our system. So, they attend classes just a limited number of subjects, such as language, mathematics and a few sciences, but they have proper attendance at school and regular learning. There are 19 students who returned from immigration and started to attend the same grade that they were previously attending. Their performance was poor even though they keep attending school regularly, but still improvement is difficult. The documentation provided by these students, they evaluate the language knowledge as a second language, basic knowledge which makes not possible for them the understanding of the information but evaluation is given to their commitment and willingness to learn. There are at least 11 students who have decided abandon school as they think they will not make it and they do not accept to follow lower grades. Separation from school have many consequences in children, they aim at dropping out school, especially if they are in the higher grades."

After going back to school, student L. 13 years old describes her return as follows: "we left our country because my mother was unemployed, my father sells second hand clothes in the trade market, but we cannot afford a living as there are 6 members in my family. We left on July 2015, traveled by bus, ferry, and then by bus again, changing a country every 3 hours. We stayed for 1 month in camps. We spent 15 months abroad. We couldn't attend a lot of courses as we were moving quite often. If we stayed more we could go to school. As we were told the school was a very good one. We couldn't go to school, so we attended just a few courses instead. I was happy to come back because I missed my friends and my school."

Student I, 6th grade, says that: "we could learn some things, some German, some English, we did some sports like swimming and other sports, we sometimes went to excursions or camping. I can't say it was not good, but I like it more here. My mother, my father and my sisters and brothers went back to Germany again, but I didn't want to. I preferred to stay here with my grandparents because I missed them, I missed my neighbourhood, my friends and my school. Despite this, I feel better with my old friends. When I first came here, I knew just a little Albanian as we used to speak Roma language at home, then I got used to it, while I had to learn German and English there. It was difficult for me to learn two additional languages and even though I tried, I could hardly find the words to speak."

Student E, 5th grade, after her return back she says, "We were so happy to come back, especially me and my sisters as our home and friends are here."

H, 5th grade, describes her journey back like this: "We used to go to school there. A kind of a supervisor, used to come and enrol us in different courses. There were about 20 students from different nationalities and age in these classes, but we

didn't feel bad about it. I liked the way how we used to learn English and my performance was good. There were TVs and the blackboards were similar to TVs. We used to do mathematics and we it was clear those coming from Afghanistan were very good in mathematics. I like it more there, even school was better. I started being friends with an Italian girl. I would like to go back again."

A, 15 years old, says: "I stayed at school for 9 months. There were 40 students in the classroom. There was food service at school. I had a school card and I used to go there regularly. I started to like school after learning German. I will regularly attend school here also, even though I started being absent a few times before leaving Germany because I had to help my family at the trade market sometimes."

Student J, 15 years old, reveals her experience: "we spent almost 2 years there. I went there with my family and the cause was financial situation for sure. We don't earn a lot here; my parents do not have a permanent job. I started to go to school there, so did my sisters. There is not much similarity between schools here and there. I don't know, but school there is less busy and more practical than here. We will try to go back there again. Meanwhile I will finish elementary school here."

In their interviews, teachers describe some of their students who returned back here.

The second grade teacher says: "when I ask him, "what did you learn? Which were your favorite subjects there?" - He looked at me amazed. He tells me that they used to play with friends and teachers in the classroom and in the yard also." The teacher describes her work like this: "We aim to provide teaching techniques based on games, not only because of the physical conditions of school, but the program itself prevents us from free activities. We try to exercise children continuously because our job is also measured by testing students' achievements in the key subjects: mathematics and language."

The fifth grade teacher describes the return of her student as follows: "when he first came back, he was kind of more driven back, as he was not as troublesome as the others, but now he is similar to them. I noticed that children would notice the change also."

The seventh grade teacher, she describes her 3 students: "there are many gaps in their learning, maybe because of the big distraction or loose of interest. I often talk to them in order to recognize the causes, but there can be too many; comparison to the previous environment, lose faith in parents, impossibility to earn back the lost time etc. In the beginning I thought they would be more mature and take it more seriously, but I see they are putting less effort than before."

Conclusions

The qualitative research brings light on the immigration phenomenon of the Roma population from Albania to the developed countries of the region for a better living. The main reason of leaving the country is poverty and lack of the basic conditions of living. Because of poverty, their children do not attend school regularly as they are being exploited to work since an early age. Frequent displacing leads to even longer separation from school. Seeking for asylum offers the opportunity to leave in other countries for some months. Depending on the destination country policies, children attend courses or classes according to their age. Their education in these countries faces language difficulties and academic formation such as maladjustment. In the documentation provided by schools the go to in the destination countries, it is said that their knowledge is not comparable to those students going to normal classes. Destination countries institutions evaluate the students' attitude and social relationship more than the acquired knowledge. Asylum rejection sends them back to the origin country where they have to face the same problems as before, even worse than before. In this case, families will be looking for another chance of immigrating and again children will have to leave school. In conclusion of the study, we can say that frequent displacement of the Roma families in search of better living conditions do only enrich their experiences without providing a clear positive impact on the multicultural education or inclusive education.

Bibliography

Nieto, S., & Bode, P. (2008). *Affirming Diversity: The Sociopolitical Context of Multicultural Education* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Adams, L. D. & Kirova, A. (2005). Examining culturally appropriate assessment practices in early childhood development (ECD) programs. *Global Migration and Education. Schools, Children, a , and Families. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah*, p. New Jersey & London.

Armstrong, F. (2003). Difference, discourse and democracy: the making and breaking of policy in the market place. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*.

Banks, J. A. (1996). *Multicultural Education, Transformative Knowledge, and Action: Historical and Contemporary Perspectives*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Bennett, C. I. (2011). *Comprehensive multicultural education theory and practice*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Bourgonje, P. (2010). *Education for refugee and asylum seeking children in OECD countries*. Amsterdam.

Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (2005). *Educational leadership: Culture and diversity*. London: Sage.

Educational International. (2010). Educational International. p. De Jonge / De Smedt.

FRA. (2014). *Education: the situation of Roma in 11 EU Member States*. Vienna, Austria: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights. Retrieved from http://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra-2014_roma-survey_education_tk0113748enc.pdf

INSTAT. (2011). *Profili i Romëve dhe Egjiptianëve*. Tirane: Census, INSTAT.

Manning, M., & Baruth, L. (2004). *Multicultural education of children and adolescents. (4th ed.)*. Boston: Pearson.

Nieto, S. (2004). *Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education*. New York: Longman.

OECD. (2008). *Migration & mobility: challenges and opportunities for EU education systems*. Green Paper. Retrieved from http://www.oecd.org/document/17/0,3343,en_2649_39263294_39887569_1_1_1_1,00.html

OSCE. (2003). *National Strategy for improving Roma living Conditions, No 633*. Tiranë: OSCE.

OSCE. (2013). *Raporti rajonal mbi antidiskriminimin dhe pjesëmarrjen e romëve në vendimarrjen lokale : praktikat më të mira për integrimin e romëve*. Tiranë: OSCE/ODIHR.

Pasha, A. (2012). *Raporti per romet*. Tiranë.

Pijl, S. J., Meijer, C., & Hegarty, S. (1997). *Inclusive Education: A Global Agenda*. London and New York.

Stangvik, G. (1997). *Beyond schooling; integration in a policy perspective*. London: Routledge.

Sultana, R. G. (2006). *Facing the hidden drop-out challenge in Albania. Evaluation report of hidden drop-out project piloted in 2001-2005*. Tirane: UNICEF.

UNDP . (2006). *Social Vulnerability of Roma in Albania*. UNDP .

UNESCO. (2013). *Fëmijët ende janë duke luftuar për të shkuar në shkollë*. Paris: UNESCO.

Bibliography

Banks, J. A. (2006). *Diversiteti kulturor dhe Edukimi: Fondazione, Kurrikula dhe Mësimdhënia*.

Brooks, J., & Thompson, E. (2005). *Social justice in the classroom*. Educational Leadership.

Camicia, S. P. (2007). *Deliberating immigration policy: Locating instructional materials within global and multicultural perspectives*. Theory and Research in Social Education, 35(1), 96-111.).

Florian, L., & Rouse, M. (2009). *The inclusive practice project in Scotland: Teacher education for inclusive education*. Teaching and Teacher Education 25(4), 594-601.

Fondacioni Shoqëria e hapur për Shqipërinë. (2012). *Dekada e romëve dhe situata e romëve në Shqipëri*. Tirane.

Gedeshi, I. (2010). *Global Crisis and Migration: monitoring a key transmission channel to the Albanian economy*". Tirana: UNDP & IOM.

Grant, C., Sleeter, C. (2008). *Turning on Learning: Five Approaches for Multicultural Teaching Plans for Race, Class, Gender and Disability*. New York

INSTAT. (2011). *Profili i Romëve dhe Egjiptianëve*. Tirane: CENSUS. Retrieved from <http://www.al.undp.org/content/dam/albania/docs/Census%202011%20Profili%20i%20Romeve%20dhe%20Egjiptianeve%20final.pdf>

Janaqi, G. (2013). *Llojjet e paragyjimeve në zonat migratore të Shqipërisë mes të ardhurve dhe vendasve (Doktoraturë)*. Tiranë: Universiteti i Tiranës.

Law 69/2012. (2012). *On Pre-University Education System in the Republic of Albania*. Tirane: Official Journal.

Leeman, Y. M., & Volman, M. (2001). *Inclusive education: recipe book or quest. On diversity in the classroom and educational research*. Routledge.

Leeman, Y., & Ledoux, G. (2003). *Preparing teachers for intercultural education*. Teaching Education, 13(3), 279-292.

MAS. (2015). *Vlerësimi i arritjeve të nxënësve të klases se 3-të dhe të 5-të*. Tiranë: MAS. Retrieved from http://www.arsimi.gov.al/files/userfiles/prezantime/Vleresimi_Kombetar_kl_3_dhe_5_final.pdf

MAS. (2016). *Raporti - Identifikimi i nevojave për trajnim*. Arsimi.gov.al.

MAS. (2016). *Raporti Kombëtar i Identifikimit të Nevojave për Trajnimin e Mësuesve dhe Drejtuesve të Shkollave*. Ministria e Arsimit dhe Sportit. Retrieved from <http://www.arsimi.gov.al/al/newsroom/lajme/raporti-kombetar-i-identifikimit-te-nevojave-per-trajnimin-e-mesuesve-dhe-drejtuesve-te-shkollave>

Musai, B., Ikonomi, E., & Sotirofski, K. (2009). *Raporti vendor për Shqipërinë*. Bolonjë: SCIENTER dhe Qendra për Politikën Arsimore.

Nieto, S., & Bode, P. (2008). *Affirming Diversity*. The Sociopolitical Context of Multicultural Education (5th ed.).

Nikolovska, M. (2008). *Human Resource Development, Country Analysis, Albania*. Tirane: European Training Foundation .

Noddings, N. (1995). *Philosophy of Education* .

Shoqëria Civile. (2012). *Monitorimi nga Shoqëria Civile i Zbatimit të Strategjisë Kombëtare dhe i Planit të Veprimit në Shqipëri*. Tiranë: Decade of Roma Inclusion Secretariat Foundation. Retrieved from https://www.google.al/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=5&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0ahUKEwjm6M26q5HMAhVJ7RQKH5YtBC0QFgg7MAQ&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.romadecade.org%2Fcms%2Fupload%2Ffile%2F9270_file1_al_civil-society-monitoring-report_al.pdf&usq=AFQjCNHWPRc7P2H

Tamo, A., & Karaj, T. (2007). *Raport studimor*. Tiranë: UNICEF & Save the Children.

UNDP. (2011). *Dekada e përfshirjes së romëve - Plani kombëtar i veprimit 2010 - 2015*. Tirane: UNDP. Retrieved from <https://www.google.al/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=3&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0ahUKEwi4wf-YqZHMhXETHQKHb-aBhcQFggvMAI&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.undp.org%2Fcontent%2Fdam%2Falbania%2Fdocs%2FDekada%2520e%2520Perfshirjes%2520se%2520Romeve%2520-%2520Plani%2520>

Appendix 1

How competent do you feel on understanding the Roma community - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Did you gain confidence after the social justice training - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Did you gain an experience from the training on the treatment of the Roma children in the classroom? - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Appendix 2

sex F M

Age (circle) 25-30 30-35 35-45 45-55

Have you heard of multicultural education yes No

If Yes, please try to write a short description

Does It represent an important element of teaching, or you think it is not suitable for Albania?

Yes No it is not suitable for Albania

Mark with +

According to your opinion, multicultural education has to do with racism, sexism, classism, linguistics, religious intolerance or xenophobia

Do you think teacher are prejudicial to students?

If Yes, is that relate more to:

Economic background, racial background, sexual orientation, religious belief, Gender belief
corresponding ethnicity (Aromanians, Greeks, Macedonians) put numbers from 1 to 6.

is there any prejudice reflected if the teacher asks the girls to clean and the boys to fill the water?

Yes _____ No _____ if Yes, what type of prejudice? _____

is the teacher more familiar to the child of the businessman or the cleaner?

What type of prejudice do we have here? _____

Do you think it is reasonable to have information on the culture and tradition of your students so the teaching process is more qualitative? Yes _____ No _____

Were there any Roma students in your classroom? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, did he/she sit In: the front desk last desk in the middle you do not remember

Can you make the difference between a Roma and an Egyptian? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, which is the indicator? _____

Is it important for you to make the difference between them? Yes _____ No _____

What do you think about his/her development, if there was a Roma student in your classroom?

Good _____ Very good _____ Bad _____ Sufficient _____ Comment _____

Is it necessary for you to follow any training in order to help you with minimizing your prejudicial attitude towards the students?

Yes _____ No _____

Do you think that this is a prejudicial questionnaire? Yes _____ No _____

Semi-structured interviews for parents and teachers

Appendix 3

The questions included within the semi-structured interview are:

Did you decide on who your teacher will be, or just as it goes by chance?

Which was the selection criteria, age, personal knowledge, being rude or accurate with the children?

Do you think you have to meet the teacher often?

Study of the Effective Factors on Air Pollution in Iran Cities

Dr. Saeede Safari

Assistant Professor,
Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch.

Abstract

Nowadays, air pollution in cities with regard to its harmful outcomes has been turned in to one of the serious challenges in urban management. Carbon dioxide emission is one of the most principal factors in the environmental pollution, the world efforts are concentrated to reduce it due to its devastating effects on climatic change and global warming. In the current research, the effective factors on air pollution in Iranian cities were studied, considering CO₂ emission level as the pollution index in the period 1993-2013 and for analyze effective factors, econometrics models were applied. The research findings demonstrated, with increase per capita income and Urbanization rate, air pollution, has been increased. Also Study of the effective factors on cities air pollution in Iran showed that per capita oil and natural gas products consumptions have a significant positive effect on CO₂ emission while per capita natural gas consumption had a more important effect (4.04% compared to 3.4%). Therefore, important sources of energy in Iran, which oil and natural gas products, were found as the most dominant factors in air pollution. Thus, the necessity of current energy carriers' replacement by clean energy sources as solar energy and geothermal energy is emphasized.

Keywords: Air pollution, Fossil fuels, Greenhouse gases.

Jel cod: Q56, R4, C22

1-Introduction

In the recent decades, environmental issues have been among the important challenges in the national and global policies due to the increased greenhouse gas emissions. Greenhouse gases increase such as CO₂ led to the phenomena as climatic change, global warming, depletion of ozone shield, and melting polar ice sheets. However, the effects of greenhouse gases increase as NO_x, CO, and SO₂ are observed in the national and regional scales like acidic rain, sanitary and hygienic dangers to human being and other creatures, the effects of CO₂ emission is considered on the global scale. International seminars and protocols like Rio conference, Kyoto protocol, and Copenhagen summit all indicate the importance of this issue in the entire world and account for the efforts to make policies in order to control global warming and climatic change – which greenhouse gases increase have had a significant role and among them, CO₂ is the most important one (Karbasi & Rahimi, 2000:2). According to the World Bank reports of the environmental pollutants causing climatic change, 76% of the total greenhouse gases were allocated to carbon dioxide in 2010. CO₂ emission had a rising trend in Iran as well and has been increased from 302 million tons in 2001 to 587 million tons in 2013; while carbon dioxide share among all the polluting and greenhouse gases was 98%.(E.B.S,2013)

In accordance with Kyoto protocol, Iranian government is obliged to reduce the total carbon dioxide gas emission. The extensive energy consumption and utilization of fossil fuel in various economy sectors are the major reasons of greenhouse gas emission.

The urban lifestyle and consumption patterns in large cities enhance energy resource usage in a higher amount than other smaller cities. As cities are developed and enriched, the demand for urban infrastructure, transportation, and individual resource use all grow; consequently, the challenges regarding the energy consumption and pollution emission are emphasized (Pomny & Kaniko, 2010).

Carbon dioxide is considered as the indicator of environmental pollution due to its particular importance in air pollution and intensification of global warming in most of the experimental studies. CO₂ emission and global warming resulted in climatic change which might pose noticeable risks to physical infrastructure, city societal context, and safety of societies; therefore, the research objective is to investigate the effective factors on air pollution of cities in Iran based on CO₂ emission indicator.

2- Literature review and research background

According to the definition by the superior council of environmental protection, air pollution involves existence of one or several pollutants in the open air in such an amount and duration that changes the air quality so that it dangers human being and other creatures' lives, plants, as well as built environment. Public transportation services, thermo-electric power plant, domestic, agricultural, and fishery industries are the air pollution sources.

There are plenty of evidences of the positive correlation between energy consumption and improvement of economic macro variables. Improvement of the economic macro variables leads to pollution spread due to energy consumption increase. Gross domestic product, is one of the significant economic variables considered as an indicator for the economy growth measurement. The correlation between economic growth and environmental pollution in the last two decades has been widely analyzed by statistical methods.

The practical framework for the aforesaid evaluation is based on the Environment Kuznets Curve (EKC) theory which reveals the correlation between environmental index and the per capita income. According to this theory stated by Grossman and Krueger (1991) and became known by the global development report of the world bank in 1992, the correlation between per capita income and environment deterioration indices is an inverse U. Based on this theory, the correlation between economic growth and environmental quality, either positive or negative, is not constant along the country's development; in the beginning, pollution increases due to per capita income increase, but it later decreases after reaching a specific level of per capita income. Indeed, as a country arrives at a situation that the demands for a cleaner environment are enlarged and the efforts to achieve more efficient infrastructure broadens, the sign of correlation alters from positive to negative (Nasrollahi & Ghaffari goolak, 2010:79).

There are two viewpoints regarding urbanization development effects; the first one declares that the economy structure changed from agricultural basis to industry due to urbanization growth and thus pollution has increased. Although air pollution is attributed to automobile traffic and industrial pollution, another significant factor particularly in large cities is related to nonstandard construction systems and high-rise buildings in downtown and suburbs which block the natural wind paths and accumulate pollutants. The second viewpoint believes that urbanization leads to more efficient infrastructure, transportation system and energy; consequently, energy consumption efficiency in cities is higher than rural areas and pollution decreases. Hence, the correlation between urbanization and environmental pollution might be positive or negative (Alam et al., 2007).

Several experimental studies in term of effective factors on air pollution in different countries were carried out as follows:

Alam et al. (2007) investigated the correlation among economic growth, energy intensity, CO₂ emission, population rate, and urbanization in Pakistan by data derived in 1971-2005. The findings demonstrated that increment of 1% in gross domestic product results in 0.84% increase in carbon dioxide emission; while increment of 1% in energy intensity causes 0.24% increase in carbon dioxide emission. In addition, urbanization development and population growth have significantly made pollution emission, however these two factors decrease economic growth in a long term scale.

Say and Yucel (2006) studied the correlation between energy consumption and CO₂ emission in Turkey in the period 1970-2002. For this purpose, the total energy consumption was estimated by means of economic growth and population growth which are two major factors in energy consumption of developing countries; then, the correlation between total energy consumption and CO₂ emission was evaluated by regression analysis. The results indicate a strong correlation between energy consumption and CO₂ emission.

Schipper et al. (2009) studied the impacts of transportation sector on carbon dioxide emission in Asian developing countries in 2000 and 2005. It was found out that transportation-related CO₂ emission in the developing countries has a greater share compared to the global CO₂ emission. Heavy vehicles as trucks consume a large amount of fuel and emit more CO₂ than light-weight vehicles; so, CO₂ emission might be directly decreased by transportation system in the development of urban and rural areas.

Gaesser and Kahn (2010) in a research entitled as "City greenness: CO₂ emission and city development" have analyzed cities development and CO₂ emission in various regions across US in 2000. According to the findings, the lowest CO₂ emission was related to California; while the highest CO₂ emission was observed in Texas and Oklahoma. Besides, there

is a negative correlation between emissions and land use regulations. In general, CO₂ emission is considerably lower in cities compared to suburbs.

Arouri et al. (2012) in a paper entitled as “energy consumption, economic growth, and CO₂ emission in middle-east and North African countries” have investigated the correlation between CO₂ production, energy consumption, and gross domestic product on twelve middle-east and North African countries in the period 1981-2005. A positive correlation was found between non-renewable energy consumption and CO₂ production.

Sebri and Salha (2013) in a study regarding BRICS countries (including Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa) in 1971-2010, found a long-term correlation among economic growth variables, renewable energy consumption, trade openness, and CO₂ emission.

Akpan and Abang (2014) surveyed the correlation between environmental quality and economic growth in 47 countries in the period 1970-2008. The findings demonstrated that economic growth, energy price, export to gross domestic product ratio, and energy consumption have a significant positive effect on CO₂ emission; while population growth and import to gross domestic product ratio showed a significant negative effect on the pollution.

Shafiei and Salim (2014) in a paper named as “renewable/non-renewable energy consumption and CO₂ production in OECD countries” studied the effective factors on CO₂ production in these countries in the period 1980-2011. The results denote that CO₂ production is decreased by renewable energy consumption whereas non-renewable energy consumption increases greenhouse gas production.

Begum et al. (2015) investigated the dynamic effects of gross domestic product, energy consumption, and CO₂ emission in Malaysia. The research findings have not confirmed the Environment Kuznets theory. Study of the destructive effects of economic growth on CO₂ emission in long term has been one of the important results of this study.

Asgari and Mohammadi (2016) studied Intra industry trade on air pollution in Iran applying data panel and various industries data in the period 1980-2014. The effects of Intra industries trade in the air pollution in Iran were found to be positive.

4- Data and model prediction

As seen in Table 1, CO₂ had the greatest portion among all polluting greenhouse gases in Iran in 2009-2013; as its value increases from 492 million tons in 2007 to 587 million tons in 2013.

Table 1.

The diffusion of pollution gases from production and consumption energy in Iran 2007-2013

(Ton)

Year	Co	Nox	So ₂	Co ₂
2007	8456502	1378957	1424973	492264957
2008	8973628	1808553	1598617	523293617
2009	8651070	1836265	1678078	538527894
2010	201223	1805823	1355656	532324843
2011	8033989	1843831	1425800	547014571
2012	8523752	1861374	1540500	556866442
2013	9136589	1946838	1612823	587445727

Source: Energy balance sheet, Ministry of power, I.R.I., 2013.

In total, the highest energy consumption in different sectors in Iran was related to oil and natural gas products (about 90%); and according to Table 2, oil products consumption has been decreased while natural gas consumption has been increased during the time; however, urbanization rate has been rapidly developed in Iran and has reached more than 70% nowadays according to statistical center of Iran.

Table 2.

Energy carriers' consumption in domestic, public, commercial, industry, transportation, and agriculture sectors in the period 2006-2013 (million tons petroleum)

Year	Oil products ¹¹		Natural gas products		Electricity	
	Domestic, Public, Commercial, Industry, Transportation	Agriculture	Domestic, Public, Commercial, Industry, Transportation	Agriculture	Domestic, Public, Commercial, Industry, Transportation	Agriculture
2006	56.2	3.6	50.7	0.1	10.1	1.4
2007	56.4	3.6	59.6	0.2	10.71	1.4
2008	57.1	3.8	59.6	0.2	11.22	1.7
2009	57.2	3.9	65.2	0.3	11.82	1.7
2010	50.7	3.9	70.7	0.4	12.72	1.9
2011	46.9	3.9	78.2	0.5	12.53	2.4
2012	47.7	3.3	76	0.7	13.23	2.5
2013	48.7	3.2	80.4	0.9	13.53	2.7

Source: Energy balance sheet, Ministry of power, I.R.I , 2013

If energy consumption by domestic, public, commercial, industry, and transportation sectors is assumed as an indicator of urban consumption and energy consumption by agricultural activities as an indicator of rural consumption, it is observed that the highest energy consumption and pollution were attributed to cities in the period 2006-2013.

Fossil fuels amount and portion in CO₂ emission in 2013 are presented in Table 3. As it is seen, the highest share in CO₂ emission was allocated to natural gas.

Table 3.

Fossil fuel amount (Ton) and share (%) in CO₂ emission in 2013.

	Liquid gas	Petrol	Kerosene	Gas oil	Fuel oil	Natural gas
Quantity	8335319	59460393	10695282	114314426	74171027	304924289
Percentage	1.42	10.12	1.82	19.46	12.63	51.91

Source: Energy balance sheet, Ministry of power, I.R.I, 2013.

¹ These products comprise liquid gas, petrol, kerosene, gas oil, and fuel oil.

An econometrics model derived by Alam et al. (2007) was utilized in order to investigate the effective factors on air pollution and measuring their impacts which is expressed as:

$$PERCO_2 = f(PERI, SHE, URB) \quad (1)$$

Where:

PERCO₂: per capita CO₂ emission (Ton per person)

PERI: per capita income (constant in 2004)

SHE: energy consumption intensity (ratio of final energy consumption to gross domestic product)

URB: urbanization rate (ratio of urban population to total population)

It should be noted that other variables like per capita oil product consumption and level of industrialization (added value of industry sector out of gross domestic product) were also applied in the model which at last were omitted from the final model due to lack of statistical credit.

The data regarding the variables is in the form of annual time series in the period 1993-2013. In order to avoid the false regression estimations, the statistics of variables must be investigated before model prediction. Augmented Dicky Fuller test (ADF) has been utilized to determine the Stationary of variables.

As seen in Table 4, all variables are static (I(0)) and allow for the model prediction by OLS method.

Table 4.

Report of variables stationary

Variable		ADF statistics	Critical value in surface			Statistical condition
			1 %	5 %	10 %	
Per capita carbon dioxide	PERCO ₂	2.58	- 2.68	- 1.95	- 1.61	I(0)
Real per capita national income	PERI	1.79	- 2.75	- 1.97	- 1.6	I(0)
Energy consumption intensity	SHE	- 4.65	- 3.8	- 3.02	- 2.65	I(0)
Urbanization rate	URB	- 4.52	- 3.8	- 3.02	- 2.6	I(0)

Source: research findings.

The regression estimation of equation (1) is as follows:

$$PERCO_2 = -15/3 C + 0/0001 PREI + 0/003 SHE + 27/8 URB + 0/66 AR(1)$$

$$t: \quad (-2/6) \quad (2/45) \quad (0/54) \quad (3/0) \quad (5.1)$$

$$R_2 = 0/96 \quad F = 82/47 \quad D.W. = 1/66$$

As shown by the abovementioned findings, all variables (except for Y-intercept (C)) had a positive effect on the dependent variable and 96% of dependent variable changes is explained by independent variables changes, AR(1) is applied for removal the autocorrelation problem of variables. According to F statistics, total regression has statistical validity.

The coefficient of real per capita national income (PERI) demonstrated that increment of 1% in the considered variable causes an increase of 0.0001% (averagely) in per capita CO₂ emission and holds a high statistical credit. Therefore, according to the Environment Kuznets Curve (EKC) - which expresses the correlation between the environmental indices and per capita income - the pollution amount has been increased due to the per capita income increase in the studied period in Iran as a developing country.

The coefficient of energy consumption intensity (SHE) indicates that increment of 1% in the considered variable ends in an increase of 0.003% (averagely) in per capita CO₂ emission; however, this variable does not provide the sufficient statistical credit.

Urbanization rate (URB) is realized as the highest coefficient; in other words, per capita CO₂ emission increases by 28% (averagely) as increment of 1% occurs in the coefficient; it also has a high statistical credit. As mentioned earlier, numerous viewpoints look differently regarding the effect of this variable on air pollution and are dependent on the urban development structures. This phenomenon has considerably led to air pollution and CO₂ emission in Iran.

Effects of the final consumption of major energy carriers on CO₂ emission in Iran - in order to evaluate effective factors on air pollution in cities - were estimated according to the model below (assuming energy carriers consumption in domestic, commercial, industry, and transportation sectors are related to urban areas):

$$PERCO_2 = f(PERFO, PERGA, PERBA) \quad (2)$$

Where:

PERCO₂: per capita CO₂ emission (Ton per person)

PERFO: per capita oil product consumption

PERGA: per capita natural gas consumption

PERBA: per capita electricity consumption

After the augmented Dicky Fuller test was carried out to investigate the variables Stationary (the results are shown in appendix), the estimated regression is derived:

$$PERCO_2 = 1/3 C + 3/4 PERFO + 4/04 PERGA (-1) - 10/03D (PERBA (-1)) + 0/34 AR (1)$$

$$t: \quad (2/05) \quad (2/9) \quad (10/35) \quad (-0/96) \quad (1/25)$$

$$R_2 = 0/97 \quad F = 117/8 \quad D.W. = 1/8$$

By abovementioned findings, 97% of dependent variable changes is explained by independent variables changes. As it was predicted and shown above, per capita oil and natural gas products consumptions have a significant positive effect on CO₂ emission while per capita natural gas consumption had a more important effect (4.04% compared to 3.4%). In other words, in the studied period, an increment of 1% in per capita oil product consumption made per capita CO₂ emission increase by 3.4% (on average); while an increment of 1% in per capita natural gas consumption made an increase of 4.04% (on average) in per capita CO₂ emission. In contrast, the coefficient of per capita electricity consumption is negative (D (PERBA) is 1st difference of PERBA for removal the nonstationary problem), which means CO₂ emission decreases as per capita electricity consumption increases; however, the coefficient lacks the required statistical credit.

Therefore, energy sources in Iran - which oil and natural gas products show the greatest shares- were found as the most dominant factors in environmental pollution. AR(1) is applied for removal the autocorrelation problem of variables.

5- Conclusions and recommendations

CO₂ emission is one of the most principal factors in the environmental pollution; the world efforts are concentrated to reduce it due to its devastating effects on climatic change and global warming. In the current research, the effective factors on air pollution in Iranian cities were studied, considering CO₂ emission level as the pollution index in the period 1993-2013. Econometrics models were applied to analyze the effective factors on air pollution in Iran.

The research findings demonstrated that 1% increase in real per capita national income averagely led to an increase of 0.0001 in per capita CO₂ emission. Hence, according to the Environment Kuznets Curve (EKC) determining the

correlation between environmental indices and per capita income, the pollution has been increased as a result of per capita income increase in Iran as a developing country.

The coefficient of energy consumption intensity (SHE) indicates that an increment of 1% in the considered variable ends in 0.003% (averagely) increase in per capita CO₂ emission; however, this variable does not provide the sufficient statistical credit.

Urbanization rate (URB) is realized as the highest coefficient; in other words, per capita CO₂ emission increases by 28% (averagely) as an increment of 1% occurs in the coefficient and has a high statistical credit.

Study of the effective factors on cities air pollution in Iran showed that per capita oil and natural gas products consumptions have a significant positive effect on CO₂ emission while per capita natural gas consumption had a more important effect (4.04% compared to 3.4%). In other words, in the studied period, in per capita oil product consumption made per capita CO₂ emission increase by 3.4% (on average); while an increment of 1% in per capita natural gas consumption made an increase of 4.04% (on average) in per capita CO₂ emission. In contrast, the coefficient of per capita electricity consumption is negative which means CO₂ emission decreases as per capita electricity consumption increases; however, the coefficient lacks the required statistical credit.

Therefore, energy sources in Iran - which oil and natural gas products show the greatest shares- were found as the most dominant factors in environmental pollution. Thus, the necessity of current energy carriers' replacement by clean energy sources as solar energy and geothermal energy is emphasized.

In addition, automobile manufacturing with high standards and low pollution potentials, improvement of vehicle fuels, utilization of less-polluting energies as electricity in automobile manufacturing process, modification of regulations in large cities, eliminating worn out and nonstandard cars, encouraging people to avoid cars, upgrading public transportation, and setting carbon taxes are other solutions which might play roles in air pollution reduction created by industrialization and urbanization development.

References

- Alam,S.,Fatima,A. and M.Butt(2007), "Sustainable development degradation",Journal of Asian Economics,N.18.
- Akpan,U.F. & Abang,D.E.(2014),"Environmental quality and economic growth: a panel analysis of the "U" in Kuznets", MPRA Paper N.54461,1-22,Posted 20.
- Aroui,A.Ben Yussef,H.Mhenni,C(2012),"Energy consumption,economic growth and co2 emission Middle East and North African countries",Energy policy,45,pp.126-135.
- Asghari. M., Mohamadi.M.H. , (2016),"Inter – industrial trade on Iran's air pollution", Open Journal of Ecology, 6, pp.277-287.
- Begum,R.A. Sohag.k.,Mastura Syed Abdullah ,S. & Jaafar ,M.(2015), "CO2 emission, energy consumption, economic and population growth in Malaysia", Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews,41,594-601.
- Energy balance sheet,(2013), Ministry of power, I.R.I.
- Gaeser, E.L. and Kahn, M.E. (2010), " The greenness of cities: carbon dioxide emission and urban development", journal of urban economics,N. 6, pp. 404-418.
- Grossman,G.M. & Krueger,A.B.(1991),"Environmental impacts of a Norh American free trade agreement", National Bureau of Economic Research, Working Paper,3914,NBER,Cambridge MA.
- Karbasi.A , Rahimi.N. (2000)"Environmental considerations energy sector",IEA,pp.2.
- Poumanyong, P and Kaneko, S (2010), "does urbanization lead to less energy use and lower co2 emissions? A cross – country analysis", Ecological Economics, vol. 70 pp. 434-444.
- Nasrollahi,Z , Ghaffari goolak.M,(2010)"Air pollution and factors affecting it (case study, SPM and SO2 emissions in the manufacturing industries of Iran)", Journal of Economic Research,N.3, pp.79.
- Say,N. & Yucel,M.(2006),"Energy consumption and co2 emissions in Turkey :Empirical analysis and future projection based on an economic growth", Energy policy,34,PP.3870-3876.

- Schipper, L., Fabian, H., and Leather, J. (2009); "Transport and carbon Dioxide Emissions: forecasts, Options Analysis and Evaluation", ADB Sustainable Development, Working paper series, pp. 1-41.

- Sebri, M., & Ben-Salha, O. (2014). "On the causal dynamics between economic growth, renewable energy consumption, CO2 emissions and trade openness: fresh evidence from BRICS countries". *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 39, PP.14-23.

- Shafiei,S.,Salim,R.(2014),"Non-renewable and renewable energy consumption and CO2 emissions in OECD countries: A compatatative analysis",*Energy policy*,66,pp.547-556.

Appendixes

Null Hypothesis: D(PVAI) has a unit root

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on AIC, maxlag=4)

Prob.*	t-Statistic			
0.0191	-3.516648	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		
	-3.831511		1% level	Test critical values:
	-3.029970		5% level	
	-2.655194		10% level	

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Null Hypothesis: SHE has a unit root

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on AIC, maxlag=4)

Prob.*	t-Statistic			
0.0016	-4.652855	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		
	-3.808546		1% level	Test critical values:
	-3.020686		5% level	
	-2.650413		10% level	

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Null Hypothesis: PERCO2 has a unit root

Exogenous: None

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on AIC, maxlag=4)

Prob.*	t-Statistic			
0.9978	2.854703	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		
	-2.685718		1% level	Test critical values:
	-1.959071		5% level	
	-1.607456		10% level	

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Null Hypothesis: URB has a unit root

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on AIC, maxlag=4)

Prob.*	t-Statistic			
0.0022	-4.520363	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		
	-3.808546		1% level	Test critical values:
	-3.020686		5% level	
	-2.650413		10% level	

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Null Hypothesis: PERFO has a unit root

Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend

Lag Length: 4 (Automatic - based on t-statistic, lagpval=0.1, maxlag=4)

Prob.*	t-Statistic			
0.0890	-3.383928	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		
	-4.667883		1% level	Test critical values:
	-3.733200		5% level	
	-3.310349		10% level	

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Warning: Probabilities and critical values calculated for 20 observations
and may not be accurate for a sample size of 16

Null Hypothesis: PERBA has a unit root

Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on t-statistic, lagpval=0.1, maxlag=4)

Prob.*	t-Statistic			
0.7618	-1.586284	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		
	-4.498307		1% level	Test critical values:
	-3.658446		5% level	
	-3.268973		10% level	

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Null Hypothesis: D(PERBA) has a unit root

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on t-statistic, lagpval=0.1, maxlag=4)

Prob.*	t-Statistic			
0.0435	-3.102083	Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic		
	-3.831511	1% level	Test critical values:	
	-3.029970	5% level		
	-2.655194	10% level		

*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Warning: Probabilities and critical values calculated for 20 observations
and may not be accurate for a sample size of 19

Dependent Variable: PERCO2

Method: Least Squares

Date: 08/03/16 Time: 23:39

Sample (adjusted): 1375 1392

Included observations: 18 after adjustments

Convergence achieved after 10 iterations

Prob.	t-Statistic	Std. Error	Coefficient	Variable
0.0609	2.051644	0.637271	1.307453	C
0.0124	2.900357	1.174519	3.406525	PERFO
0.0000	10.35659	0.390435	4.043574	PERGA(-1)
0.3533	-0.962640	10.42316	-10.03375	D(PERBA(-1))
0.2303	1.258535	0.270804	0.340817	AR(1)
5.660819	Mean dependent var		0.973164	R-squared
1.462727	S.D. dependent var		0.964907	Adjusted R-squared
0.478859	Akaike info criterion		0.274014	S.E. of regression
0.726184	Schwarz criterion		0.976088	Sum squared resid
0.512962	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.690272	Log likelihood
1.813168	Durbin-Watson stat		117.8572	F-statistic
			0.000000	Prob(F-statistic)
		.34		Inverted AR Roots

The Civil War in Greece and Relations with Albania According to the Communist Press During 1948 – 1949

PhD. Cand. Marsel Nilaj

Abstract

During 1948-1949 relations with Greece were very tense in the postwar period of World War II. The positioning of the two countries in two different camps, respectively Albania in the Socialist Camp and Greece in the Western Camp, lead to even more severe relations between these two countries. The Greek Civil War, fought between two Greek groups, the democratic and the communist one, also involved Albania in the propaganda as supporting the right wing of the Communist Greek. Such a propaganda was retaliated by the Greeks in the Albanian territory, for a few days in the Albanian land. The Albanian press of that time was very much involved by mainly giving information of the propaganda oriented towards Moscow, rather than about the immediate risk the country was directly facing. In many cases, the war and the threat it imposed was transformed and far away from reality. The press of that time mostly transmitted what Stalinist Moscow directed, rather than the truth. It was Stalinist Moscow the place which Enver Hoxha held as the orienting point, especially after breaking relations a few months ago with the Communist Yugoslavian state. The Communist press of that time was more preoccupied about the advancement of the Greek communist forces, rather than the threat the democratic wing imposed by approaching the Albanian border. This showed that the Albanian State was displaying itself since the first steps as being indoctrinated and related to the ideology and not to the threat imposed to the Albanian nation. The communist press of that time varied in numbers and kinds, displayed in every newspaper or magazine the success of the Greek communism. Such a problem is also presented in the British parliament as an unfair action from the Albanian state.

Keywords: Civil War, Greece, Albania, propaganda, communist press.

The Albanian State after the phase of liberation from the Nazi-fascist invaders, by the end of 1944, finds itself completely ruled by the communist regime. For a period of 15 years, up to the beginning of the 1960s, the communist ideology, seen from the today perspective, would be somewhere between a rigid communist doctrine and naivety. The first phase of the World War II, found the Balkans in a severe instability. This was due to an impact that the collision of the two doctrines caused, in this very important geopolitical zone.

On one side, it is Yugoslavia, which after World War II started its life under the satellite soviet doctrine, but within 5 years, moved its eyes upon the democratic west. On the other side, it is Greece, which was trying at any cost, with all its forces and with the help of the western democratic states not to fall into the clutches of the soviet communism.

Meanwhile, Albania, which had a weak diplomacy, presented itself as calm and as having no doubts within the radical soviet doctrine, the Stalinist one.

The Civil War in Greece, through national Greek forces and the communist ones, had an impact upon both the above mentioned states. The biggest impact was on Albania. The war on its start, had a small impact on the Albanian territory. However, since 1948, we started positioning ourselves on the side of the Greek Democratic Army, the communist group inside Greece. The press of the time, was one of the best ways to spread propaganda. The newspapers and magazines of the time played an important law in the widespread of propaganda all over the place. Even though the number of the newspapers and magazines was not significant, it played its role till the end.

In some cases it is presented as very important the description on detail of all the declarations and winning of the Greek Democratic Army, against the national one. Several big successes were declared from the GDA, for its increase in number,

and that it already numbered thousands attacks.¹ In addition to this, there are several other articles where it is stated that the communists in Greece seek to set peace, and their hearts hurt when innocent Greeks are killed.²

Such articles are contrary to each other. This due to the fact that, first they talk about the success that the GDA has achieved through its attacks, and on the other side they were hurt from the death of the Greeks. If this was true, and they were really touched from the deaths of innocent Greeks, then there would not be any attacks from them and no pride, as the communist army had increased to 20 000 soldiers. Such declarations were published to show to the people that communism was compassionate, that communism was for the people, but the capitalist attacks made it lose itself.

The worst of all came from the collaboration that existed with the western imperials, Athens.³ Actually, this ideology and propaganda was with the purpose of frightening the common people, that part of the society that did not understand anything about the foreign policy, by presenting the West in its most terrifying form. The appreciation for the communist group reach such a peak as to state that their fight was for independence.⁴ However, the Albanian press, strictly controlled from the politics of the time, never had the purpose or courage to tell the Albanian people that when a grouping of a country fights against another grouping of the same country is called a civil war. The interference of Albania in such a war was not acceptable.

However, the press of the time acted the other way round. It published articles about a certain support that was given from different groups around the world to the Greek communism. Such articles were written from student groups in London who protested in the Greek Embassy there,⁵ up to the American Council of the Greek War, which sent to the UNO a petition, to stop the supply with weaponry the National Greek Army.⁶ Such propaganda articles had a special impact on our country, supporting communism in Greece, for the fact that the ones to blame for this war were the USA and Great Britain. This meant that people, common people, just like the terminology of the time, was pro communism, that is why we were on the right track to support it, as the whole world was doing so.⁷ Belarus,⁸ as part of the democratic popular camp, had even demanded the termination of attacks on the Greek communists, a fact that enforced the idea that the entire communist camp was with the Greek communism.

Greek communism was seen as victorious against the Americans, who were supplying with weaponry the monarch-fascist army, known as the Greek National Army. They were even opposed from the American people. At the same time, they were suffering losses from the Greek Democratic Army, which not rarely shot the airplanes,⁹ that is why the Americans had a difficult time in dealing with the Greek communism.¹⁰ However, despite the sporadic success of the Greek communism, at the start of 1949, it couldn't compare with the Americans, as there was a big difference in the strategic zones that each held. If communists held under control lot of villages but poor villages, the American army in collaboration with the Greek national army, they possessed the most important cities, including Athens.¹¹

This war was seen as very important in Albania, especially during these two years. Strikes were frequently held from social groupings in different places, supporting Greek communism. Such rallies organized from women,¹² or the youth, were more like a propaganda as to connect our country with this war. This due to the fact that such rallies, in such a small place like our Albania, and not part of the UNO, had an almost zero impact. This support, that actually was not just a moral but for real, was causing problems with Greece. These problems tend to aggravate to such a point as causing delays in predicting the end of the war, during 1948-1949. Accusations that the Albanians were helping the Greek Democratic Army, tend to

¹ Viti që kaloi ka qenë plot me suksese dhe fitore për popullin heroik grek, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 02 Shkurt 1949

² Ushtarët monarko – fashistë refuzojnë të luftojnë kundër Ushtrisë Demokratike, in *Bashkimi*, 01 Maj 1949

³ Qeverija Demokratike Provizore Greke i drejtoi Asamblesë së Përgjithshme të UNO – s një mesazh për paqen in Greqi, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 30 gusht 1949

⁴ Sot populli heroik grek është i vendosur më tepër se kurrë në Luftën për liri, pavarësi e demokraci, in *Luftëtari*, 1 Janar 1948

⁵ Organizatat e rinisë dhe të studentëve të Londrës protestojnë kundra terrorit monarko – fashist grek, in *Bashkimi*, 11 Mars 1949

⁶ Për vendosjen e paqes në Greqi, in *Bashkimi*, 29 Shtator 1949

⁷ V. Sotriadhi, Luftën heroike të popullit grek e përshëndesin gjithë popujt demokratik të botës, *Shqiptaria e Re*, Nr. 5, fq. 3 – 4

⁸ Të merrën masa për t'i dhënë fund terrorit monarko – fashist në Greqi, in *Bashkimi*, 08 Gusht 1949

⁹ Manevrat e imperializmit nuk munt të fshehin ndërhyrjet e tyre direkte në luftë kundër popullit grek, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 26 Janar 1949

¹⁰ Ofensivat e reja t'imperializmit Amerikan nuk do ta shkatërrojnë kurrë Ushtrinë Demokratike Greke, in *Luftëtari*, 21 mars 1948

¹¹ Ofensivat e reja t'imperializmit Amerikan nuk do ta shkatërrojnë kurrë Ushtrinë Demokratike Greke, in *Luftëtari*, 21 mars 1948

¹² Kryesija e B. G. SH. Prej datës 25 – 30 prill organizonj "javën për popullin grek", in *Bashkimi*, 17 prill 1949

increase,¹ a fact that led to the prolongation of the war. It was frequently revealed the fact that rebel groups, known as GDA in West, entered the Albanian territory, got remobilized and started the war again.² Albanian was presented as very interested in supporting the establishment of the Greek communism,³ and this was used for two reasons. Firstly, to have an open path to communism, especially after 1949, a time when the separation from Yugoslavia was finalized. Secondly, to eliminate a part of the political opponents, who could no longer be called filo-Yugoslavian but were now called filo-Greek.⁴

Because of the fact that we were inside the civil war, and at the same time the communist doctrine considered war as an important means to achieve victory, a special importance was also given to the propaganda supporting the Greek Democratic Army. The thing you can easily notice is the idea that this army is invincible, which was seen under the eye of victory and never defeat. The important thing for us was to tell about it, its anniversaries,⁵ as well as its six months balance sheets, and present them as successes.⁶ Such achievements which were presented from the surveys of the local civil activities, that actually damages Greece, up to the killing of 50 000 Greeks, for us were complete successes. In fact, this was a way to justify ourselves within our country, in front of all the accusations from the world during these two years. Since mid-1948, The Department of the American State, accused Albania as being the supplier with weaponry of the GDA.⁷ This had started to change the plans of the Americans for the war in Greece, up to the point that they had started to plan a small intervention, but without putting at risk the Albanian zone of Prespa.⁸ The same thing continued even in the following year, when the supply was intensified and it was assumed that 11 000 Greeks were helped from Albania and Bulgaria, where the biggest part was covered from Albania.⁹ Hence, the presentation of GDA as victorious in the Albanian press, was an excuse in front of the Albanian headquarters as well as a part of the people who were aware of it.

Everything was done based on the framework of the communist ideology, a hybrid ideology in between naivety and Stalinism. Enver Hoxha, head of the Albanian Communist Party, during a meeting of reconciliation between the Greek communists and the Albanian ones, in 1950, accused the Greek communist leadership that had sabotaged the communist doctrine, creating in this way a truce with the monarch-fascist.¹⁰ Such act was also supported from Stalin. This tells us a lot about the differences between the two forms of communism, the Greek and the Albanian one, where the former under the pressure of the outsiders and not willing to destroy its country, was retreated, whereas the latter one, for the sake of the ideology, "advised" the destruction of its country.

A much used form in the Albanian press, to spread propaganda on the humane side of the Greek communism, was the presentation of crimes and injustices that were committed against it. In many articles during these two years, was presented the great concern that the Greek communists had, because the so-called monarch-fascists, that meant Athens government and army, were destroying the country. However, the people accepted anything, except deprivation of freedom.¹¹ Likewise, massacres were huge in number, like in Peloponnese where 5000 people were imprisoned,¹² or the turning of the agricultural lands into deserts as in Karadievi.¹³

¹ Amikam Nachmani, *International Intervention in the Greek Civil War: The United Nations Special Committee On the Balkans, 1947-1952*, (London: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1990), 18.

² V. R., Albania: A Balkan Bridgehead, në *The World Today*, Vol. 6, No. 2 (Feb., 1950), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1950),

³ N. K., The Troubled Outlook in Greece, in *The World Today*, Vol. 4, No. 11 (Nov., 1948), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), 464

⁴ Beqir Meta, *Tensioni greko – Shqiptar (1939 – 1949)*, (Tiranë: GEER, 2002), 328.

⁵ Me 28 tetor Ushtria Demokratike greke feston përvjetorin e dytë të formimit të shtabit të përgjithshëm, in *Puna*, 2 tetor 1948

⁶ Radio "Greqija e Lirë" bën bilancin e aktivitetit t'Ushtrisë demokratike në gjashtëmuajt e parë të vitit 1949, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 20 korrik 1949

⁷ *Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 104.

⁸ *Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 105.

⁹ Chandler, Greece: Relapse or Recovery?, in *International Affairs*, Vol. 26, No. 2 (Apr., 1950), (London: The Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1950), 180.

¹⁰ Haris Vlavianos, *Greece, 1941 – 1949: From Resistance to Civil War*, (Neë York: Palgrave Macmillan, 1992), 62.

¹¹ Ofensivat monarko – fashiste nuk mund ta shuajnë luftën e popullit grek për liri, *Luftëtari*, 17 korrik 1948

¹² Terori e masakrat monarko – fashiste kundër popullsisë së pafajshme greke kanë arritur kulmin, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 15 Janar 1949

¹³ Trupat monarko fashiste kanë transformuar luginën pjellore të Karadievi në një shkretirë, *Zëri i Popullit*, 11 Shkurt 1949

During these war, there occurred huge destructions in lands, buildings, and people, and this was noticed worldwide. With the consent of the Americans, Napalm was used from the Greek National Army, in Gramoz, during the fighting.¹ Still, what you can notice is that you cannot be that subjective, besides in cases of a damaging propaganda. It was never mentioned the number of the massacres committed from the Greek communists, the number of the casualties or destructions. However, these were not left unsaid, but they were seen from another point of view. Each destruction and murder from the communists, was a victory to communisms, as I mentioned above.

Another element that was seen as unfair from the Athens activities, were the trials and imprisonments against the syndicalist and communists. The inclusion of both these categories into one, meant indirectly that syndicalism in Greece had been turned into a communist tool. However, our propaganda talked about cruel sentences, medieval treatments to the prisoners as well as in trials.² Such actions, is needed to be emphasized, were condemned from the entire world.³ Nevertheless, it was never mentioned which states were they, as the world was divided into two separate blocks from the ideological fence, and all the states of that time were separated and supported the two camps mentioned above. But a part of the accusations from our propaganda, were true, for the fact that Greece while trying to avoid the spread of communism, exercised terror against the accused by trying to make an example out of them, an example of fear in the part that was not involved in the Greek communism. This action was not humane, but considering that communists were Machiavellian, this action was the same side of the coin, but on the opponents wing.

In addition to this, huge propaganda was published in the press of the time about the murder of Manolis Gleso, chief editor of the Rizospastis newspaper, a left newspaper in Greece. He had been involved, since the first years of the Italian invasion, in the communist groups,⁴ and is held as a symbol of Greek communism in Greece from the Greek communists. Likewise, the sentence to death of the 38 syndicalist made big news in our press. There was also published a letter that was sent to Stalin from the relatives of the sentenced syndicalist, requesting to intervene in the UNO,⁵ but they were still executed. In fact, the idea of publishing it was for a support that Stalin was assumed to give to Greek communism, but this never happened. This told a lot about the Greek communists, but above all about the Albanian ones, as the latter saw Stalin as the inspiration of the Balkans communism. However, the important thing was the distraction from the truth, and the accusation that the Greek courts were in the hands of the Americans, who ordered the death of the communists.⁶

The Albanian press propaganda was not just a support or protection of the Greek communism, as it often held the offensive position, mainly towards the Greek government. The Greek government was accused of not being able to create its own government,⁷ and in most of the cases this came as a result of not being able to divide the posts and profits from ministry posts.⁸ All of this came as a result of the articles that were presented, from the collaboration it had with the foreigners. The ones who have blocked the Greeks from creating a government, were the Americans.⁹ Based on this press, most English people were accusing USA as well as Britain itself for the massacres that were happening in Greece. The purpose of this propaganda was to show the country the need for an internal collaboration, especially with the communists, and not with foreign states, in particular if they were imperialists. Such a policy was to tell the Albanians how bad the American policy was, if they were searching for a collaboration with it. That kind of mentality would cause more problems to our country, which turned into an isolated one, rather than to Greece which had collaborated with the West before.

It is very noticeable the terminology used by the Albanian press of the time, in relation to the Athens government, which was supported from the Anglo-Americans. If for the West, this government and its army were known as the Greek National Army, for the communist press of our country, it was known as monarch-fascist. By using this style, they were aiming at creating two elements. First, the idea of monarchism in Greece, which as a concept, even though Communism was an

¹ James Pettifer, *Grekët...*, 23.

² Në gjithë botën vazhdojnë protestat kundër barbarisë mesjetare të monarko – fashistëve grekë, in *Bashkimi* 18 Maj 1948.

³ Jehona e persekutimeve të demokratëve grek vazhdon të ngjalli protesta në opinionin publik të vendeve të ndryshme, in *Luftëtari*, 19 maj 1948.

⁴ Xhelatët monarko – fashistë duan t'a vrasin me çdo kusht Manolis Glezos, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 15 mars 1949.

⁵ Mesazh dërguar Gjeneralissimit Stalin nga t'afërmit e demokratëve grekë të dënuar me vdekje, in *Bashkimi*, 23 tetor 1949.

⁶ Terror i pashembullt në Greqi, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 05. Tetor 1949

⁷ Përpjekjet e Tsaldaris për të formuar qeverinë e re gjer tani kanë dështuar, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 18 nëntor 1948

⁸ Në parlamentin grek lindin mos marrëveshje ndërmjet partive të ndryshme, in *Bashkimi*, 6 shkurt 1949

⁹ Tradhëtarët kombëtar të Athinës duke ndenjur indiferent përpara gjakderdhjes ulëritën për gjoja triumfet e tyre, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 03 shtator

absolute monarchy, it did not accept governance from one king. Whereas, the fascist idea, was an accusation towards the Greek government of the time. A lot of articles talk about collaboration, or freedom of a lot of fascist collaborators. Collaborators of fascism were freed,¹ at the same time, laws were passed to set free the quisling ministers during the German invasion², and during this time reporters who were pro communism were killed and the people tortured. However, the target of the Albanian communist state of the time, was also somewhere else. For as long as Greece accused us as collaborators of the Italians during the invasion of Greece, and had the aw of War with us, this exactly was our purpose, by accusing Greeks as fascists, we were creating a counterattack towards them, by telling them that they are the fascists. And secondly, by calling bad names to the Greek fascist phenomenon, was made clear the idea that the Albanian communism had nothing to do with fascism, it even hated it and was distanced.

We tried to present our ideas as being in the same lineage with the articles of the foreign press, which saw the Athens politic as a threat to Balkans. But these were weak articles to be able to change the psychology of the Balkan people.

However, our press was not always offensive, as there were several times when it turned defensive. This mainly for the fact that Greece, in its press, accused Albania for defending and supporting communism. The interesting thing is that Albania never had the courage, not even indirectly, to admit that it was defending and helping Greek communism. On the contrary, in the official declarations of the Albanian Telegraphic Agency, it was declared that this was just defamation, that each and every element that entered our country was neutralized, sent to the collection areas, after being disarmed.³

It was not only the Greek press that expressed itself in this way, but UNSCOB, the British Parliament, and the Foreign Affairs Department of USA, talked about the same thing. In the Albanian press, there were articles in the form of research, where declarations such as Greece had intended to attack Albania, as seeing them with the same political style for decades towards the Albanian State.⁴ Such elements, cannot be taken as accurate, but the chosen way in between the influence and help of the communist side, did not mean that attacking was the right choice to defend yourself. First of all, because you didn't show credibility, due to the facts, and second, attacks with the purpose to defend, were not necessary in that period of instability.

On the other side, the Albanian communism knew that Athens didn't want or better say, was not allowed to invade Albania. This gave much security to Enver Hoxha, and allowed him freedom of speech to spread propaganda, without being in turn attacked from Greeks. He admitted that the Greek attacks during August 1949, were with a tactic purpose. Such a tactic which was aiming at using the Albanian land, in Gramoz Mountain, and attacking the Greek communists from behind.⁵ It is also admitted that the people who stopped this from happening were the Anglo-Americans. In a press where the censure control was very high, this declaration was very strong. By trying to show that the Greeks had intended to attack, in a naïve way, they admit that it was the Anglo-Americans who saved Albania from the Greek attacks.

A strong and constant accusation from Athens was the fact that Albania helped the Greek communism. This help had become a problem in 1948, in the British Parliament, as well as the American politics, in relation to the civil war in Greece. In Britain, Albania was directly accused as helping the Greek communist, together with Yugoslavia and Bulgaria.⁶ This statement was also supported from the political reports of the Americans, that not only did the Greek communist guerrilla use the territory, but they also were helped in the material aspect.⁷ The British as well as the Americans were not speaking in vain, as since the settlement of UNSCOB in Greece, the first center, from the all five in the Greek territory, was in Epirus, with two zones in Kostur and Janine.⁸ This meant that the observations were fully based since 1948, for this zone, which was seen from the Guerrilla as a replenishment point of primary importance. In the American press frequently appeared

¹ Qeverija greke po përgatit plane për të përkrahur mizoritë fashiste në Greqi, in *Bashkimi*, 5 tetor 1949

² Parlamenti grek falë bashkëpunëtorët hitlerianë, in *Bashkimi*, 11 tetor 1949.

³ Komunikatë e Agjensisë Telegrafike Shqiptare, in *Bashkimi*, 26 gusht 1949

⁴ Greqija monarko – fashiste /erdhe agresioni, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 3 shtator 1949

⁵ Oficera monarko – fashistë të kapur rob deklarojnë se kanë shkelur tokën shqiptare me urdhër të komandës së tyre më të lartë, in *Bashkimi*, 21 gusht 1949

⁶ Mr. Mayhew, GREECE (GUERRILLA FORCES, OUTSIDE AID), 17 March 1948, in http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1948/mar/17/greece-guerrilla-forces-outside-aid#S5CV0448P0_19480317_HOC_293

⁷ *Foreign Relations of the United States, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union*, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010),

⁸ Amikam Nachmani, *International Intervention...*, 42.

articles that wrote about the free entrance of the Greek communist soldiers.¹ Likewise, the foreign affairs minister of the Athens government, Tsaldaris, had complained into the UNO via a telegram, by expressing among other things that Albania had reached an unprecedented level of helping the Greek communists.²

But the press at the time, would never accept such an accusation, and would even loan articles from the Free Greek Radio, which declared that there had never been any help from the Albanian side, and that the victories were achieved without the Albanian help.³ In another article was published the confutation of the idea that the Albanian state was not using Chams as it was being accused to throwing them into the Greek communist side.⁴ However, facts from Albania Nowadays, show the contrary. Since 1947, General Markos, leader of the Greek Communists, had requested Enver Hoxha to send him the Chams that were staying as immigrants in Albania because of the Greek Civil War, to help him in attacks.⁵ This was accepted from the regime of the time, as in 1948 the recruitment of the Chams started.⁶ However, Chams disappointed from the Greeks, and I think as well as from the Albanian communism which was betraying them by forcing them into the Greek communism, were not willing to be part of the communist Greek Democratic Army.

The important thing to say is that the Greek communists used the Albanian border and the supply from there as a strategic point. It took great importance, especially when the support from Yugoslavia decreased.⁷ It was often used to move within Albania, to supply with material, or as a rest zone, and there were several reports for this fact. The General Marko was thought to have his headquarters in Albania, and he had also declared the Free Greek Government by the end of 1947, close to the Albanian border.⁸ The help that Albania was giving to Greece, surprised the Americans, and was presented as a problem in the discussions of Greek issues into the British Parliament.⁹ Meanwhile, since mid-August, general Van Fleet, who was the commander of Greek National Army, stated that from Prespa zone, nearly third of the army had fled through the Albanian territory.¹⁰ That is why any propaganda published in the Albanian press, was not based on facts. The bad thing was that sources for the contrary, that Albanian Communist State helped the Greek communists, were a lot and from several sources. Lately, they were even published in the history books of the Albanian historians.

During the middle of 1949, when the accusation to Albania helping communists had reached the highest peak, the Greeks seek from UNO, on 25 June,¹¹ through General Pangallos, so that they intervene in Albania. They were based on an article of the UN Organization Charter, where every state is allowed to be protected from a threatening state. At this time, Albania was accused of having broken UN organization rules, by shooting down a UN airplane, of UNSCOB mission, that was passing close to the Albanian territory. However, the Albanian state did not accept this, and called it severe defamation towards the Albanian state.¹² The article was published in all the newspapers that circulated into the country. But the fact of Albania intervening and breaking laws of UN, was expressed in high institutions as well, or western states, by declaring that the interference of Albania and Bulgaria, was a very severe action against UN.¹³

But despite the accusations, from our part, that the western countries were those who pushed Greece to intervene in our country, that it was Greece who urged the attacks against us, it was actually quite the opposite. Britain as well as USA had

¹ Albert Kotini, *Tre gurët e zes në Prevezë*, Vol. I, (Tiranë: FLLAD, 2000), 687.

² *Chronology of International Events and Documents*, Vol. 5, No. 12 (5 – 12 June 1949), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1949), 369.

³ Radio "Greqija e Lirë" përgenjështroon çpifjet e monarko – fashistëve kundër vendit t'onë, in *iZëri i Popullit*, 10 prill 1949

⁴ Monarko – fashistët çpifin edhe për çamët, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 23 prill 1949

⁵ Beqir Meta, *Tragjedia came*, (Tiranë: KLEAN, 2010), 118.

⁶ Beqir Meta, *Ibid*, 119

⁷ N. K., The Troubled Outlook in Greece, in *The World Today*, Vol. 4, No. 11 (Nov., 1948), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), 464

⁸ V. R., Albania: A Balkan Bridgehead, në *The World Today*, Vol. 6, No. 2 (Feb., 1950), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1950), 78.

⁹ Mr. Mott-Radclyffe, *FOREIGN AFFAIRS*, 10 December 1948, in http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1948/dec/10/foreign-affairs#S5CV0459P0_19481210_HOC_152

¹⁰ *Chronology of International Events and Documents*, Vol. 5, No. 16 (4 – 17 August 1949), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1949), 544

¹¹ Beqir Meta, *Tensioni...*, 302.

¹² Përgënjeshttrim i Agjensisë Telegrafike Shqiptare, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 27 korrik 1949.

¹³ Mr. Molson, *GREECE (BRITISH EMBASSY STATEMENT)*, February 1949 in http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1949/feb/02/greece-british-embassy-statement#S5CV0460P0_19490202_HOC_65

wanted to have a closeness of Greece with its neighboring countries, especially Albania. The main scope was stability in the Balkans. Australia, which was part of the British politics, had declared itself willing that on 5 November 1948¹ to hold a meeting in Paris, between Greece and its neighboring countries with the purpose of reconciliation. At the same time, Britain itself, had set as a condition the restart of the relations between Great Britain and Albania, after a resettlement of friendly relations between Greece and Albania,² at a time when the relations were broken because of the Incident in Corfu Channel, where British destroyers were drowned, in the Albanian waters.

However, none of these happened, the Albanian communist state, remained loyal to the idea that communism should triumph in Greece, and it didn't think at all the profits that the Albanians would have if it distanced itself from this ideology.

Another important problem that is worth to be looked into is the foreign politics aspect of the Greek civil war, and the Albanian press relation with it. Even here, there are some categories of the Albanian press point of view. If the relations with Britain were not difficult to be understood, the same importance had the relation with the French, within this war. French belonged to the western democratic wing, but also had communist parties inside, with a strong influence in the French politics. At the beginning of 1949, a delegation of the French communist party had visited the zone of the Free Greece that was kept under Communists rule. This fact was presented as a triumph of Greek communism, which now was visited from a sister party, from the west.³ This meant that the support was now not only from the eastern countries, but from powerful organizations or parties from the west.

Apparently, western communism, initiated with a mission from the French state, had called for truce, the creation of a government where all the parties would participate, and the exclusion of all the individuals that were pro an extremely harsh politics. This came like a bomb for the Albanian propaganda, which two weeks later, in a second article, criticized the French communist party as having fallen into revisionism.⁴ In fact, France was trying to play the role of the intermediate, without holding the side of any of the parties but further aggravating the relations by doing so. On February 21 1949, the Greek Foreign Affairs Minister, Kalderis, had invited all the countries of the European Mediterranean, among them France, to create an alliance for the protection of Europe, but none of them had accepted.⁵ It had now taken the intermediate role to stop as much as possible the Albanian state from helping the Greek communists, if this role was not done appropriately from the Soviet Union.⁶

In the foreign politics, in the propaganda of the Albanian press, the Soviet Union was the idol and taboo. It was the only place where all the popular democratic places, communist states took an example. Albania, not only did not make an exception, but at the same time, it was the satellite country, most obedient of the Soviet Union. In the articles published in the Albanian press, it is displayed as the only good choice for Greece, is the one set from the Soviet Union, for free election in Greece and settlement of peace.⁷ This actually looked like the most cynic way, as it was completely clear what the Soviet Union meant with the expression "free elections". Such an action was carried out in Netherlands, Poland and Czechoslovakia, during the 1948, where under the idea of "free elections" communism was imposed in these countries. An acceptance of such a condition, meant the same fate to Greece as well. This was known from the Albanian press as well, but was interested in such an imposition. The same thing happened to us as well, when according to the Albanian propaganda, the Soviet Union was our protector from Greece, especially during the attacks in the boundary during the August of 1949. It even took the courage in a soviet article to state that USA was behind Greece, in its attempts to invade Albania.⁸ But which was the main interest that the Soviet Union saw in Albania? The Soviet Union, learning from history, was trying to use Albania like Italy, a trampoline to enter Greece through the Albanian land, especially after breaking

¹ *Chronology of International Events and Documents*, Vol. 4, No. 22 (5 – 18 November 1948), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), 772.

² Mr. Blackburn, FOREIGN AFFAIRS, 21 July 1949, in http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1949/jul/21/foreign-affairs#S5CV0467PQ_19490721_HOC_489

³ Një delegacion francez viziton Greqinë e Lirë, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 3 qershor 1949

⁴ Propozimet franceze dhe realiteti grek, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 19 qershor 1949.

⁵ Jean – Baptiste Duroselle, Andre Kaspi, *Historia e marrëdhënieve ndërkombëtare*, Vol. II, (Tiranë: Lira, 2009), 109

⁶ *Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe, The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 188.

⁷ "Pse i kanë frigë paqes?", in *Bashkimi*, 31 maj 1949.

⁸ Intrigat imperialiste rreth Shqipërisë, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 8 shtator 1949.

relations with Yugoslavia.¹ However, with the decline of the Greek communism strength, and the end of the Greek Civil War, the interest of the Soviet Union for Albania, as well as the support for it, fell significantly.² Albania was the only satellite of Moscow, which remained faithful, in its naivety, but which was surrounded from opponents of the Soviet Union.³

In the aspect of propaganda in the foreign politics, spread through the press for the events in Greece, a big space was covered from the attack that was done towards USA, as the cause of this situation. A big accusation falls upon the President Truman, who since 1948 kept the monarch-fascist army with high funds.⁴ Likewise, America was seen as the main leader in place, the one who governed, the one who forced king Pavli of Glitsburg, to ask the Americans for help,⁵ in many others it is shown as though it is the Americans who are suffering terrible losses but that are not declared. The truth was that losses were present, but we should keep in mind that the American help in Greece was very big, over 300 million dollars.⁶ Thanks to this help, the major part of the Greece was holding up, the non-communist Greece. But which was the relation between USA, Greece and Albania? This is a relation based on documents, not press propaganda.

Regarding Greece, president Truman, in a report for Congress, admitted by the end of 1948, that a part of the Guerilla warriors, after the Gramoz operations fled to Albania. This postponed their liquidation period.⁷ It was thought that the amount was more than 8 thousand Antara, nearly the third of what were located in Bulgaria.⁸ For this reason, USA allowed the use of Napalms, from the Greek army in the Gramoz area, despite the consequences, still felt nowadays there.⁹ This was more an attempt to stop the Antara from crossing the Albanian border, rather than retaliating against the Albanians.

Facts and documents showed how much USA supported Albania. USA had always called for a retreat of the Albanians from helping the Greek communism. In exchange, it had promised the integration of Albania as a full member of the UN.¹⁰ However, this never happened. A big step backwards for our country and a big loss for the Albanians, who even without this war, were in extreme poverty.

None of them supported Greece, when it sought the annexation of Vorio Epirus.¹¹ It had declared that we do not want to add sufferings to the Albanians, more than those that the communist regime is causing, we seemly wouldn't recognize this regime.¹²

Despite all the facts given, the press and documented ones, we can understand something very important: the Albanian Communist State, was distanced a lot from the national realism, a lot more than the political groupings in Greece. This made Albania blind with its internal problems and thus join the communist ideology, almost challenging the Stalinist one. This policy destroyed the country, and was the first step towards the isolation of the country, not just from Europe, but from the entire Balkans. The Albanian press, the most important and dangerous weapon, was not aimed outside, but inside the country. The press of a small country did not have a big impact outside, but the inside one was huge. The press shows us that since this war, and the following four decades, our country, did not have an iron fence separating us from the West, but a bunker above its head, isolating it from West as well as East.

Bibliography:

¹ V. R., Albania: A Balkan Bridgehead, në *The World Today*, Vol. 6, No. 2 (Feb., 1950), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1950), 77.

² V. R., *Ibid*, 78.

³ Jean – Baptiste Duroselle, Andre Kaspi, *Historia e marrëdhënieve*, 132.

⁴ Përpara sulmeve të ushtrisë demokratike Trumani detyrohet të pranojë se dollarët e tij nuk mund të mposhtin rezistenën e popullit heroik grek, in *Bashkimi*, 8 dhjetor 1948.

⁵ Pa ndihmën e huaj monarko – fashizmi nuk qëndron asnjë /ast në këmbë, in *Bashkimi*, 29 Mars 1949.

⁶ S. Papuli, Terror që s'ka shembull në histori, *Bashkimi*, 7 Maj 1948

⁷ *Chronology of International Events and Documents*, Vol. 4, No. 23 (19 November – 9 December 1948), (London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948), 820.

⁸ Geoffrey Chandler, Greece: Relapse or Recovery?, in *International Affairs*, Vol. 26, No. 2 (Apr., 1950), (London: The Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1950), 193

⁹ Misha Glenny, *Histori e Ballkanit 1804 – 1999*, (Tiranë: Instituti i Dialogut dhe Komunikimit, 2001), 544

¹⁰ *Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 169.

¹¹ Amikam Nachmani, *International Intervention*, 102.

¹² Beqir Meta, *Shqipëria dhe Greqia 1949 – 1990 paqja e vështirë*, (Tiranë: Koçi, 2004), 29

- Përpjekjet e Tsaldaris për të formuar qeverinë e re gjer tani kanë dështuar, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 18 nëntor 1948.
- Terori e masakrat monarko – fashiste kundër popullsisë së pafajshme greke kanë arritur kulmin, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 15 Janar 1949.
- Manevrat e imperialismit nuk munt të fshehin ndërhyrjet e tyre direkte në luftë kundër popullit grek, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 26 Janar 1949.
- Viti që kaloi ka qenë plot me suksese dhe fitore për popullin heroik grek, në *Zëri i Popullit*, 02 Shkurt 1949.
- Trupat monarko fashiste kanë transformuar luginën pjellore të Karadiev në një shkretirë, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 11 Shkurt 1949.
- Xhelatët monarko – fashistë duan t'a vrasin me çdo kusht Manolis Glezos, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 15 mars 1949.
- Radio "Greqija e Lirë" përgenjështron çpifjet e monarko – fashistëve kundër vendit t'onë, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 10 prill 1949.
- Monarko – fashistët çpifin edhe për çamët, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 23 Prill 1949.
- Një delegacion francez viziton Greqinë e Lirë, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 3 qershor 1949.
- Propozimet franceze dhe realiteti grek, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 19 qershor 1949.
- Radio "Greqija e Lirë" bën bilancin e aktivitetit t'Ushtrisë demokratike në gjashtë muajt e parë të vitit 1949, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 20 korrik 1949.
- Përgënjeshttrim i Agjensisë Telegrafike Shqiptare, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 27 korrik 1949.
- Qeverija Demokratike Provizore Greke i drejtoi Asamblesë së Përgjithshme të UNO – s një mesazh për paqen në Greqi, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 30 gusht 1949.
- Tradhëtarët kombëtar të Athinës duke ndenjur indifferent përpara gjakderdhjes ulërijtën për gjoja triumfet e tyre, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 3 shtator 1949.
- Greqija monarko – fashiste çerdhe agresioni, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 3 shtator 1949.
- Intrigat imperialiste rreth Shqipërisë, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 8 shtator 1949.
- Terror i pashembullt në Greqi, in *Zëri i Popullit*, 05 Tetor 1949.
- Ushtarët monarko – fashistë refuzojnë të luftojnë kundër Ushtrisë Demokratike, in *Bashkimi*, 01 Maj 1949.
- Organizatata e rinisë dhe të studentëve të Londrës protestojnë kundra terrorit monarko – fashist grek, in *Bashkimi*, 11 Mars 1949.
- Për vendosjen e paqes në Greqi, in *Bashkimi*, 29 Shtator 1949.
- Të merren masa për t'i dhënë fund terrorit monarko – fashist në Greqi, in *Bashkimi*, 08 Gusht 1949.
- Kryesija e B. G. SH. Prej datës 25 – 30 prill organizonj "javën për popullin grek", in *Bashkimi*, 17 prill 1949.
- Në gjithë botën vazhdojnë protestat kundër barbarisë mesjetare të monarko – fashistëve grekë, in *Bashkimi* 18 Maj 1948.
- Mesazh dërguar Gjeneralissimit Stalin nga t'afërmët e demokratëve grekë të dënuar me vdekje, in *Bashkimi*, 23 tetor 1949.
- Në parlamentin grek lindin mos marrëveshje ndërmjet partive të ndryshme, in *Bashkimi*, 6 shkurt 1949.
- Qeverija greke po përgatit plane për të përkratur mizoritë fashiste në Greqi, in *Bashkimi*, 5 tetor 1949.
- Parlamenti grek falë bashkëpunëtorët hitlerianë, in *Bashkimi*, 11 tetor 1949.
- Komunikatë e Agjensisë Telegrafike Shqiptare, in *Bashkimi*, 26 gusht 1949.
- Oficera monarko – fashistë të kapur rob deklarojnë se kanë shkelur tokën shqiptare me urdhër të komandës së tyre më të lartë, in *Bashkimi*, 21 gusht 1949.
- "Pse i kanë frigë paqes?", in *Bashkimi*, 31 maj 1949.
- Përpara sulmeve të ushtrisë demokratike Trumani detyrohet të pranojë se dollarët e tij nuk mund të mposhtin rezistenën e popullit heroik grek, in *Bashkimi*, 8 dhjetor 1948.
- Sot populli heroik grek është i vendosur më tepër se kurrë në Luftën për liri, pavarësi e demokraci, in *Luftëtari*, 1 Janar 1948.
- Ofensivat e reja t'imperializmit Amerikan nuk do ta shkatërrojnë kurrë Ushtrinë Demokratike Greke, in *Luftëtari*, 21 mars 1948.
- Ofensivat monarko – fashiste nuk mund ta shuajnë luftën e popullit grek për liri, *Luftëtari*, 17 korrik 1948.
- Jehona e persekutimeve të demokratëve grek vazhdon të ngjalli protesta në opinionin publik të vendeve të ndryshme, in *Luftëtari*, 19 maj 1948.
- V. Sotiriadhi, Luftën heroike të popullit grek e përshëndesin gjithë popujt demokratik të botës, *Shqiptaria e Re*, Nr. 5.
- Me 28 tetor Ushtria Demokratike greke feston përvjetorin e dytë të formimit të shtabit të përgjithshëm, in *Puna*, 2 tetor 1948
- V. Sotiriadhi, Luftën heroike të popullit grek e përshëndesin gjithë popujt demokratik të botës, *Shqiptaria e Re*, Nr. 5.

- Me 28 tetor Ushtria Demokratike greke feston përvjetorin e dytë të formimit të shtabit të përgjithshëm, in *Puna*, 2 tetor 1948.
- Kotini, Albert, *Tre gurët e zes në Prevezë, Vol. I*, Tiranë: FLLAD, 2000.
- Nachmani, Amikam, *International Intervention in the Greek Civil War : The United Nations Special Committee On the Balkans, 1947-1952*, London: Greenwood Publishing Group, 1990.
- Meta, Beqir, *Shqipëria dhe Greqia 1949 – 1990 paqja e vështirë*, Tiranë: Koçi, 2004.
- Meta, Beqir, *Tensionin greko – Shqiptar (1939 – 1949)*, Tiranë: GEER, 2002.
- Meta, Beqir, *Tragjedia came*, Tiranë: KLEAN, 2010.
- Pettifer, James, *Grekët, Vendi dhe Njerëzit që nga Koha e Luftës*, Tiranë: Iceberg, 2013.
- Duroselle, Jean, and Kaspi, Baptiste Andre, *Historia e marrëdhënieve ndërkombëtare, Vol. II*, Tiranë: Lira, 2009.
- VLAVIANOS, Haris, *Greece, 1941 – 1949: From Resistance to Civil War*, (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 1992.
- Glenny, Misha, *Histori e Ballkanit 1804 – 1999*, Tiranë: Instituti i Dialogut dhe Komunikimit, 2001.
- N. K., The Troubled Outlook in Greece, in *The World Today*, Vol. 4, No. 11 (Nov., 1948), London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948.
- V. R., Albania: A Balkan Bridgehead, në *The World Today*, Vol. 6, No. 2 (Feb., 1950), London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1950.
- Geoffrey Chandler, Greece: Relapse or Recovery?, in *International Affairs*, Vol. 26, No. 2 Apr., 1950), (London: The Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1950.
- Chronology of International Events and Documents*, Vol. 5, No. 12 (5 – 12 June 1949), London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1949.
- Chronology of International Events and Documents*, Vol. 5, No. 16 (4 – 17 August 1949), London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1949.
- Chronology of International Events and Documents*, Vol. 4, No. 22 (5 – 18 November 1948), London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948.
- Chronology of International Events and Documents*, Vol. 4, No. 23 (19 November – 9 December 1948), London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1948.
- Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 104.
- Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 105.
- Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 166.
- Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 188.
- Foreign Relations of the United States*, 1948, Volume IV, Eastern Europe; The Soviet Union, eds. Ralph R. Goodwin, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 2010), Document 169.
- GREECE (GUERRILLA FORCES, OUTSIDE AID), 17 March 1948, in http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1948/mar/17/greece-guerrilla-forces-outside-aid#S5CV_0448P0_194803_17_HOC_293.
- FOREIGN AFFAIRS, 10 December 1948, in http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1948/dec/10/foreign-affairs#S5CV0459P0_19481210_HOC_152.
- GREECE (BRITISH EMBASSY STATEMENT), February 1949 in http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1949/feb/02/greece-british-embassy-statement#S5CV_0460P0_19490202_HOC_65.
- FOREIGN AFFAIRS, 21 July 1949, in http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1949/jul/21/foreign-affairs#S5CV0467P0_19490721_HOC_489.

The Role of Ethnic-Based Social Capital in Establishing the Spatial Consensus Among Urban Growth Coalitions

Mohammad Hossein Sharifzadegan

University of Shahid Beheshti, Tehran, Iran.

Pouya Joudi Gol Iar

University of Shahid Beheshti, Tehran, Iran.

Behzad MalekpourAsl

University of Shahid Beheshti, Tehran, Iran

Abstract

Local power structure in the framework of urban growth coalition theory includes a set of property owners and place entrepreneurs who pursue their goal in establishing and maintaining consensus, providing the right conditions for outside investment and maximizing the “rents” by trapping human activities in place. Social capital, as part of the social structure, is the collective capacity of social groups for cooperation and common function to achieve public good. By translating public good to urban growth in physical context, urban coalition strives to construct a city environment in which the citizens come to the agreements and establish social relationships to maximize the profits from urban growth. Therefore, one can ascertain social capital as an instrument for dominance of urban growth coalition on urban politics. The overall aim of this article is to explore ethnic-based social capital, its crucial role on establishing consensus and facilitating the development of relationships between members of urban growth coalition, and seeks to analyze mechanisms that generate ethnic-based social capital so that urban coalition uses all networked positions and social linkage to achieve its goals.

Keywords: social capital, urban, growth coalition, place entrepreneur.

1. Introduction

In recent years the role of social capital – defined as the institutions and networks of relationships between people, and the associated norms and values – has risen to considerable prominence in programs of poverty alleviation and development. Although development practitioners have long suspected that social capital affects the efficiency and quality of most development processes (Grootaert & van Bastelaer, 2002). There are two broad intellectual streams in description and explanation of social action. One, characteristic of the work of most sociologists, sees the actors as socialized and action as governed by social norms, rules, and obligations. The principal of virtues of this intellectual stream lie in its ability to describe action in social context and to explain the way action is shaped, constrained and redirected by the social context. The other intellectual stream, characteristic of the work of the most economists, sees as the actor as having goals independently arrived at, as acting independently, and as wholly self-interested (Dukić, 2012). In this paper both intellectual approach has been used to explain and description of urban growth coalition.

2. Social capital as concept

Social capital is a controversial, although still surprisingly popular, concept. In its more recent manifestations, it has a motley past, coming through and moving between differing academic disciplines, principally political science, economics, economic development, education and sociology. Whilst this capacity to be recognized and used in a range of disciplines has been seen as a positive and integrative characteristic by some, others have seen it as the source of confusion and definitional

problems that are regarded as besetting the concept. Anne Kovalainen sees the inherent appeal of social capital as that it is at one and the same time an economic, a political and a sociological concept, giving it inter disciplinary prominence and potential (Kovalainen, 2004); Michael Woolcock (2001) sees it as freed in this regard from the constraints of particular disciplinary traditions. But Ben Fine (2001), Virginia Morrow (1999) and Alejandro Portes (1998) point to the fuzziness and chaos that the concept trails in its wake, working previously distinct perspectives together to suit its own hybrid construction (Holland, 2009).

As Fukuyama (1999) argues, while social capital has been given a number of definitions, many of these refer to manifestations of social capital rather than social capital itself. For the purposes of this article I want to concentrate on the work of Putnam in operationalizing the concept of social capital. According to Putnam (2000: 19) 'whereas physical capital refers to physical objects and human capital refers to properties of individuals, social capital refers to connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them'. Putnam suggests that communities with a 'good' stock of social capital are more likely to benefit from lower crime figures, better health, higher educational achievement and better economic growth. His perspective concurs with the political science view of social capital as concerned with civic engagement and trust at the level of communities and regions and how these foster the development of civic trust in political institutions (Leonard, 2004).

As Woolcock points out (2001) there is an emerging consensus regarding the definition of social capital – a consensus borne out of considerable debate and empirical investigation. We follow his lead with only slight modification by defining social capital as the social networks and their associated norms that may facilitate various types of collective action. This definition avoids the confusion that has been introduced by the inclusion of specific types of outcomes into the definition of social capital itself (Reimer, Lyons, Ferguson, & Polanco, 2008).

2-1- Social capital in networks and reputation

The two approaches to social capital will be considered jointly, due to their strong interrelationship: the first approach is social capital in networks, and the second is social capital as reputation. Network theory is vast and its relation to social capital disputed. However, many social capital authors regard network claims to be too insular and overblown. Putnam (2000: 172), for instance, argues that network theory is limited and quotes the Palo Alto Research Center in relation to the ultimate network, the Internet, saying 'that information itself needs a social context to be meaningful'.

It is not surprising that there are a number of ethical concerns over the network approach to social capital, given the universal claims made for this approach. Thus, it has been argued that the network approach to social capital is overly mechanical and arguably strips individuals and groups of their emotional and instinctive need for social interaction, within a syntax more suited to computer circuitry. Moreover, Fukuyama (2000) has argued that 'Networks, understood as informal ethical relationships, are therefore associated with phenomena like nepotism, favouritism, intolerance, in-breeding, and non-transparent, personalistic arrangements'. Such perspectives are entirely in conflict with Kant's moral imperative for universalizability so that all individuals must be treated in the same way according to rational principles, rather than relationship based (i.e. he claimed we should not favour a relative over a stranger) (Ayios, Jeurissen, Manning, & J. Spence, 2014).

The networks view of social capital, which derives many of its theoretical positions from social network analysis (SNA), argues that conceptualizing social capital as an asset held at the individual level allows scholars to differentiate its causes from its outcomes. Valued resources are embedded in social structures characterized by distributional and rank differences. The higher the rank, the greater the concentration of valued resources, in other words, the better the position of origin in a social network, the more likely the actor will access and use social capital (Lin, 2001).

Bourdieu, one of the most influential theoreticians among networks specialists, argued that a person's social capital could be asserted by aggregating: 1) the size of his or her network and 2) the volume of social, cultural, and economic capital of the network members (1986 in Zhao 2002). From his perspective, embedded resources such as information and the influence of its members are social capital. Lin (2001) has further refined this conceptual framework by seeing social capital as assets located in networks which can be measured through two main categories: 1) as embedded resources and 2) as network locations. The first one refers to the power, wealth, and influence available in a network and the resources that each contact in the network can provide. The second is more concerned with the structure of the network and how certain characteristics of a network, such as actors acting as bridges facilitate or impede returns to other actors. Beyond the

explanatory technicalities of formal network analysis, the point is that social capital is a resource that is differentially available to individuals depending on where they stand in the structure of relations of the group. Class, race, ethnicity, religion and gender, to name some, are categories that position social actors in the structure of social relations. In other words, whatever forms of stratification and inequality are at play in the constitution of social life in a community, they will be reflected in the processes of participation in its formal associations (Reimer, Lyons, Ferguson, & Polanco, 2008).

The issue of trust is developed further in our third related theme of social capital as a reputation theory, which analyses levels of trust and credibility, and in the economic context conceptualizes reputation as a capital asset to be promoted and protected. For example, from an economic understanding of social capital, Dasgupta (2005) argues that the role of mutual enforcement in repeated interactions is to create 'a creditable threat by members of a community that stiff sanctions would be imposed on anyone who broke an agreement could deter anyone from breaking it'. The threat's credibility would be grounded in 'rules of behaviour' or social norms.

Putnam sought to distinguish between bonding and bridging social capital, arguing that the former is likely to have illiberal effects because it seeks to build networks of the already like-minded to the exclusion of others (Putnam, 2000). Bridging social capital, he argues, which builds connections across groups and is inclusive in nature, offers the potential to solve some of society's most intractable problems (Putnam, 2000).

2-2- Bonding and Bridging Social Capital

In the critique of Putnam's work, Portes and Landolt (1996) suggest that in some cases, social capital can become a constraint to individuals' actions and choices. This is because social capital may stem from excluding others from access to resources. In his work on regional differences in social capital in Italy Putnam (1993) considered social capital as a positive resource and the possibility that the concept may have only partial benefits was not fully acknowledged.

However, in his later writings, Putnam (2000) addresses this criticism by making a distinction between bonding (exclusive) and bridging (inclusive) social capital. Bonding social capital occurs among homogeneous populations. (Leonard, 2004)

It is often parochial and only benefits those with internal access. While it can act as an effective resource for particular groups such as ethnic minority groups who create niche economies, its benefits are limited. The very factors that promote its development such as tight bonds of trust and solidarity may ultimately prevent its entrepreneurial members from reaching their full potential. They may be held back by family and community demands and will only become successful if they are able to forge ties with others in the wider society. In other words developing bridging social capital. Quoting Briggs, Putnam (2000) argues that bonding social capital is good for 'getting by' but bridging social capital is essential for 'getting ahead'. It is this notion of bridging social capital that has captured the imagination of policy makers.

Embedded in Putnam's notion of social capital are concepts such as trust, community, networks and reciprocity which have a long history. Indeed these concepts form part of the building blocks of both sociology and anthropology.

The incorporation of these older concepts into the theorization of social capital has led Portes to question the newness of social capital as a sociological concept. According to Portes (1998: 2) 'Despite its current popularity, the term does not embody any idea new to sociologists. That the involvement and participation in groups can have positive consequences for the individual and community is a staple notion that dates back to the work of Durkheim and Marx'. To the workings of these concepts are issues to do with inclusion and exclusion. Putnam's distinction between bonding and bridging social capital does not go far enough in acknowledging the inherently unequal features of both bonding and bridging social capital.

There are two main problems with Putnam's treatment of bonding and bridging social capital. Firstly, in Putnam's analysis, bonding social capital is unequal because it excludes those outside the community residing in other communities but at the local community level it is inclusive. This conclusion is debatable. Secondly, Putnam implies that making the transition from bonding to bridging social capital benefits the community as a whole rather than perhaps some individuals in the community. By drawing on a case study from Northern Ireland, the article demonstrates that this analysis is too simplistic (Leonard, 2004).

3- Applying ethics to social capital: exploring the dark side

Most approaches to social capital stress the positive externalities of social connections and informal relationships which are theorized to result in trust, shared norms, solidarity and civic mindedness. As Field (2003) observes: 'there shines out a warm glow. Social capital's "dark side", by contrast, remains largely unknown terrain'. Portes (1998) summarises problematic aspects of social capital as being 'at least' the exclusion of others, excessive claims on members of the group, restrictions on individual freedoms, group closure and the downward levelling of norms based on group solidarity. Other related outcomes include distrust and lack of cooperation, thereby impeding – rather than enhancing – economic progress.

Putnam also recognizes the potential limitations of the emphasis on shared norms, languages and networks, when he cautions over the 'Dark Side of Social Capital' (Putnam, 2000: 350–363) and concedes that there is a 'classic liberal objection to community ties: community restricts freedom and encourages intolerance' (Putnam 2000: 351). For example, in the 1950s, a 'surfeit of social capital seemed to impose conformity and social division' (Putnam, 2000: 352). This dark side is given voice in a collection of criticisms that interpret Putnam's social capital as class based, and elitist for providing a bulwark in favour of the prevailing economic policies.

This can apply as much in the perpetuation of elites or key groups in the workplace as in wider society, and is reminiscent of Bourdieu's (1986) conceptualisation of social capital as relating to 'privileged individuals [who] maintain their position by using their connections with other privileged people'. Based on this, it is easy to spot the potential moral deficiencies of social capital in simple statements such as those of Lin, defining social capital as 'embedded resources in the networks accessed and used to attain status' (Lin, 2001). Social capital is premised on 'investment in social relations with expected returns in the market place' (Lin 2001), or put simply: 'It's not just what you know but who you know' (Lin, 2001). It is our task in the current paper to add some precision to these broad indications of ethical problems associated with social capital.

To sum up the arguments regarding social capital's 'dark side', it is a resource that can be subject to high levels of selectivity and manipulation by actors using it and those subject to it, and this can lead to great inequalities and perverse outcomes in the attainment of optimum 'economic outcomes'. Such concerns lead Adler and Kwon to conclude that: 'social capital research would benefit from a more systematic assessment of risks as well as benefits . . . One actor's social capital advantage is often another actor's disadvantage, and research on the differential access to social capital is therefore a high priority (Lin, 1999; Adler & Kwon 2002: 35). This is the basis for the current paper, which seeks to deepen our understanding of social capital's dark side from an ethics perspective.

3-1- Four aspects of social capital

Based on Remier et al (2008), we differentiate four very general types of normative structures that guide behavior in social relations: *market*, *bureaucratic*, *associative*, and *communal*. These four types of normative structures represent four relatively comprehensive ways in which people organize their interactions to accomplish tasks, legitimize their actions, distribute resources, and structure their institutions. Each of these has its own general set of associated norms that condition the co-ordination of social behaviour.⁴ since social capital is reflected in and derived from these relations, it is conditioned by the same norms and sanctions as those relations.

Market relations are those in which the classical norms of 'open' and 'free' exchange of goods and services occur between relatively free actors (Reimer, 2008). Market-based social capital is created, built, and maintained through fair trade of goods or services, sharing of information about markets and prices, and the demonstration of appropriate negotiation skills in the process.

Bureaucratic relations are the 'rational-legal' relationships originally explored by Weber (1978). They are impersonal and formal, with the distribution of resources based on generally-applied principles and status positions rather than productivity. The charters and by-laws of government and corporate organizations are key points of reference for identifying the allocation of rights and entitlements. Bureaucratic-based social capital is built through the formulation of these charters along with the maintenance of legitimacy, either formally or informally.

Associative relations are based on shared interests. Clubs, social action groups, internet chat rooms, spectator events, hobby groups, and food banks are examples where these relations predominate. Associative-based social capital emerges when interests coincide and where there is a common contribution to the goals on the part of members. It is built through

the successful accomplishment of those goals, the achievement of objectives *en route* to them, or the reinforcement of promises to achieve those goals. (Putnam, 2001).

Communal relations are based on a strong sense of shared identity. Membership and collective action within communal relations are often dependent on ascribed characteristics of birth, ethnicity, or location but they may also emerge as a result of shared life experiences or intense socialization. Family, friendship, cult, and gang activities are common examples of such relations.

The rights and obligations of members are strongly associated with this identity, and are largely developed and maintained through customs (Hamilton and Biggart, 1992).

All four usually occur concurrently in a given situation, although only one or two may be dominant. This may be seen in an office setting where workers' behavior is primarily guided by market and bureaucratic norms, even as they may be supported by the communal and associative ones inherent in informal social relations. Still, this is not always the case, since one relation may inhibit another. Volunteer group participants in our field sites, for example, often complain that the inflexible demands of their bureaucratic based funding agencies undermine their original objectives, or divert them to a more limited set of goals. We develop and enforce regulations in our municipal decision-making to guard against communal-based patronage allocation of contracts and resources (Remier et al, 2008).

4- The Political Economy of Urban Power Structures

A local power structure is at its core an aggregate of land-based interests that profit from increasingly intensive use of land. It is a set of property owners who see their futures as linked together because of a common desire to increase the value of their individual parcels. Wishing to avoid any land uses on adjacent parcels that might decrease the value of their properties, they come to believe that working together is to the benefit of each and every one of them. Starting from the level of individual ownership of pieces of land, a "growth coalition" arises that develops a "we" feeling among its members even if they differ on other kinds of political and social issues.

In economic terms, the "place entrepreneurs" at the center of the growth coalitions are trying to maximize "rents" from land and buildings, which is a little different than the goal of the corporate community -- maximizing profits from the sale of goods and services¹:

Unlike the capitalist, the place entrepreneur's goal is not profit from production, but rent from trapping human activity in place. Besides sale prices and regular payments made by tenants to landlords, we take rent to include, more broadly, outlays made to realtors, mortgage lenders, title companies, and so forth. The people who are involved in generating rent are the investors in land and buildings and the professionals who serve them. We think of them as a special class among the privileged, analogous to the classic "rentiers" of a former age in a modern urban form. Not merely a residue of a disappearing social group, rentiers persist as a dynamic social force.

The most important activity of a local growth coalition is to provide the right conditions for outside investment. This preparation involves far more than providing level and plentiful acreage with a stream running through it. It also involves all those factors that make up what is called a "good business climate," such as low business taxes, a good infrastructure of municipal services, vigorous law enforcement, an eager and tame labor force, and a minimum of business regulations.

The growth-coalition hypothesis leads to certain expectations about the relationship between power structures and local government. Rather obviously, the primary role of government is to promote growth according to this view. It is not the only function, but it is the central one, and the one most often ignored by those who write about city government. Local government promotes growth in several ways, the most visible of which are the construction of the necessary streets, sewers, and other public improvements and the provision of the proper municipal services. But zoning, building standards, and many other government regulations also matter greatly in keeping property valuable, as home builders also realized very early in the 20th century. While all of this is going on, the city departments of planning and public works, among several, become allies of the growth coalition with the hope that their departments will grow and prosper (Mollenkopf, 2000).

¹ As sociologists Jonathan Logan and Harvey Molotch explain. Logan & Molotch, 1987.

The critical players in such coalitions are said to be those elements within capital which are most place bound, that is to say renters (property owners) who rely on an intensified use of land or buildings in a particular area for enhanced profits. They are joined by those who benefit from the intensification process itself—in the terms used here, those with an interest in treatment and servicing— and also by interests who benefit from the increased demand for their products brought about by economic (income and/or population) growth (Harding, 1991).

4-1- Peasant Coalitions

Wolf, saw two main types of coalitions that define peasant social relations: those that bring people together around a single interest, and those in which its members share multiple interests (1966: 81). The first he called *singlestranded*, the second one, *manyst stranded*. In single stranded coalitions, two or more persons join forces with the purpose of advancing a specific goal. An example is rural associations such as funeral groups, irrigation and producers associations. Members of this type of coalition are usually bound by a particular interest, which does not necessarily demand that its participants be involved with one another beyond this cause. A manystranded coalition, on the other hand: "is built upon through the interweaving of many ties, all of which imply one another" (1966: 81). Economic transactions may be influenced by kinship relations, which in turn may require specific obligations and rights; furthermore, these might limit the range of options in other spheres of life. Each type of relation is like a strand; together they provide great security to people at different levels. On the other hand, this interlocking of strands is the source of its own weakness as they tie people together into inflexible relations that are difficult to disentangle. An idea similar to the negative side of social capital, where closed and bounded groups contravene the benefits of building a network of relations as they are unable to build bridges.

4-2- The Role of Ethnic-Based Social Capital in Urban Growth Coalitions

Achieving urban development through increased social capital is one of the most important sociological objectives for nations in the 21st Century (Bartelsman 2000). Because of the close relationship between urban growth and community prosperity, economists seek recognition of policies for realizing growth. Urban productivity, together with other core urban development concepts such as competitiveness, are usually focused on the sub-national urban economic development process of the home country (Castellani 2011). However, recent experience has documented an increase in the internationalization of urban productivity and related activities (Fukuchi 2000). This was initially and mainly motivated by the need to better exploit existing home-based or urban growth coalition, while more recently the need to source complementary assets and competences abroad has become an important motive.

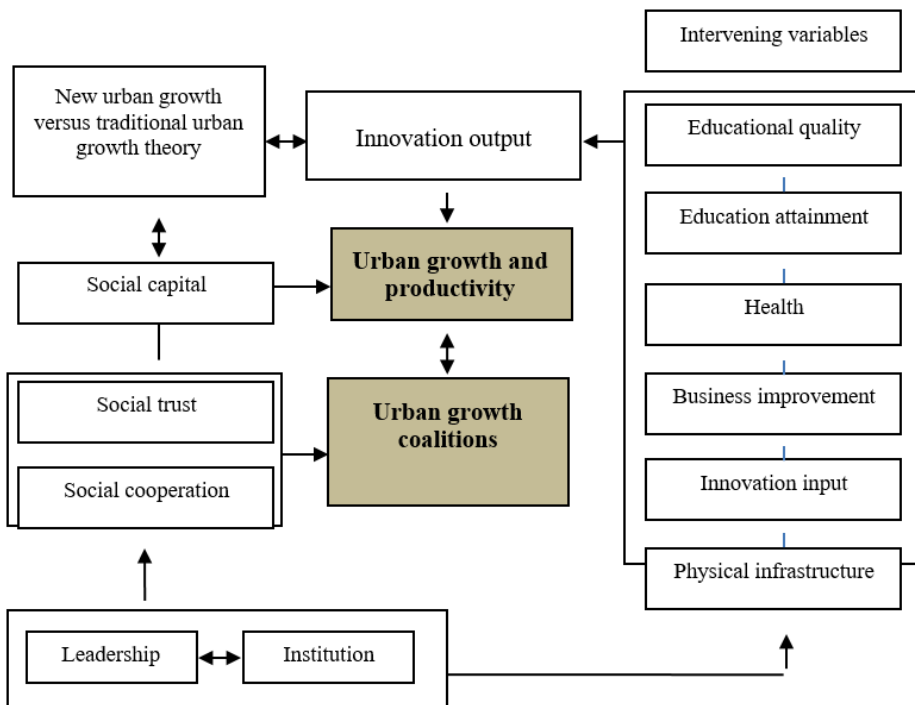
The definitions and meanings of urban growth coalitions become centrally important when considered in a more international and multi-disciplinary context. The geographical differentiation and change overtime in what constitutes 'local and urban productivity' within and between countries are amplified and even modified when influenced by international forces. Changing of and responses to contested definitions of productivity seek to encompass and reflect geographical variation and uneven economic, social, political, cultural and environmental conditions and legacies in different places across the world. From one perspective, this involves an extension to broader spatial scales of the types of location marketing traditionally practiced by private developers. Alternatively, it may be seen as extending local governments' use of public goods provision to attract/retain desired residents and their integration into the economy. A more distinctive third dimension to the process involves specific investment in organizational assets to create a market in the territory's economic community (Bartelsman and Doms 2000).

The role of urban growth coalitions in urban economic development had tended to be ignored traditionally by economists who recognized only the significance of productivity at the national level (Dicken 2003). However, the new growth theory (Dukić 2012) is consistent with a sub-national regional perspective that views productivity as a major contributor to increasing the quality of life in terms of the quantity and nature of local jobs, and in the quantity of prices of goods and services produced locally. This conception of productivity gives a fluid and dynamic meaning to concepts of "urban economic development", emphasizing the importance of empirical analysis of the relations between endogenous factors and national transformative drivers. The underlying legacy forces in a region may hold some positions, discourses and practices in place beyond a time when they have any significant and immediate functional relationship to a region's economic development. The ongoing interaction between actors at the regional level and strategic maneuvers to mobilize regional resources exert a significant effect on the conceptualization of regional productivity. This conception provides a rich way to analyze the dynamics of interaction of context with innovative action (Baycan 2013). Because of these facts, the economics and particularly the urban studies literature on productivity has mainly focused on the effects at the local

level; highlighting the positive role that regional endogenous factors may have on regional productivity through different channels. For example, urban and local R&D activities are required to be able to quickly and effectively adapt products to the needs and specificities of new markets (Pike and et al.,2006).

5- Conclusion

Under a traditional urban growth framework theory, achieving urban and local growth and productivity mainly a matter of investing in physical capital. Differences in stock and level of investment in infrastructure were regarded as the key elements of explaining output and regional economic returns. Hence, based on this thinking about how to spur economic development and growth and achieving productivity is rather straightforward: greater investment in infrastructure and stock enhancement would suffice to generate greater productivity and ultimately development. Further, if this approach is channeled to lagging urban regions, it would also contribute to economic convergence. But in new urban growth theory based on urban growth coalition, it is argued that achieving increased productivity and the introduction of a new dimension into urban policy modeling is much less straightforward than it may at first seem and that a clear distinction between the overall "physical capital- led productivity" and a more "multi-dimensional productivity and growth achieving process" conception based on social capital is needed in order to make urban growth policies more viable(following diagram).



This paper offers a novel conceptual model, based on a mutual relationship between urban growth coalitions and urban growth and productivity as a output at the local and urban level. In the light of the high policy importance of enhancement of urban economic development in lagging urban regions and the lack of a large sample empirical analysis, we argue that this paper provides a significant contribution to the extant literature and to the policy debate. Furthermore, in our conceptual model, we are able to examine how each urban region is or could be performing with greater productivity through a change in inputs thus overcoming another major gap in the existing literature which has mainly focused on the output dimension in the productivity enhancement process. In view of the arguments put forward in this paper, it is possible to identify four urban growth policy areas that are related to the urban productivity model.

References

- Adler, P. & Kwon, S. (2002). Social Capital: Prospects for a New Concept, *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 27, No. 1: 17-40.
- Ayios, A., Jeurissen, R., Manning, P., & J. Spence, L. (2014). Social capital: a review from an ethics perspective. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, Volume 23 Number 1, 108-125.
- Bartelsman, E, Doms, M. 2000. Understanding productivity: lessons from longitudinal microdata. *Journal of Economic Literature* 38:569–594.
- Bartelsman, E, Doms, M. 2000. Understanding productivity: lessons from longitudinal microdata. *Journal of Economic Literature* 38:569–594.
- Baycan, T. 2013. Knowledge commercialization and valorization in regional economic development. Edward Elgar publishing, Usa, Massachusetts.
- Castellani, D. 2011. Foreign investments and productivity. Evidence from European regions. *Quaderni del Dipartimento di Economia, Finanza e Statistica* 83/2011. University of Perugia.
- Dukić, M. 2012. Defining competitiveness through the theories of new economic geography and regional economy. *J. Geogr. Inst. Cvijic* 62: 49-64.
- Fukuchi, T. 2000. Long-run development of a multi-regional economy. *Papers in Regional Science* 79:1-31
- Dukić, M. 2012. Defining competitiveness through the theories of new economic geography and regional economy. *J. Geogr. Inst. Cvijic* 62: 49-64.
- Field, J. (2003). *Social Capital*. London: Routledge.
- Fukuyama, F. (2000). *The Great Disruption*. New York: Touchstone.
- Grootaert, C., & van Bastelaer, T. (2002). *The Role of Social Capital in Development: An Empirical Assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hamilton, G., & Biggart, N. (1992). Market Culture and Authority: A Comparative Analysis of Management and Organization in the Far East. *The Sociology of Economic Life*, 181–224.
- Harding, A. (1991). The rise of urban growth coalitions, UK-style? *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy*, 295-317.
- Holland, J. (2009). Young people and social capital: Uses and abuses? *Youth Research*, Vol 17(4): 331–350.
- Kovalainen, A. (2004). *Rethinking the Revival of Social Capital and Trust in Social Theory*. Maidenhead and New York: Open University Press.
- Leonard, M. (2004). Bonding and Bridging Social Capital: Reflections from Belfast. *Sociology*, Volume 38(5): 927–944.
- Lin, N. (1999). Building a Network Theory of Social Capital, *Journal of Connections*, 22(1):28-51.
- Lin, N. (2001). Building a Network Theory of Social Capital. *Aldine de Gruyter*, 3–29.
- Mollenkopf, J. (2000). How to Study Urban Political Power, *The City Reader*, second edition, Richard T. Legates and Fredric Stout, Routledge.
- Molotch, H. (1976). The city as a growth machine. *American Journal of Sociology*, 82, 309-330.
- Pike, A, Rodriguez-Pose A, Tomaney J. 2006. *Local and Regional Development*. Routledge press, London.
- Portes, A. (1995). *The Economic Sociology of Immigration: Essays on Networks, Ethnicity and Entrepreneurship*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Putnam, R. (1993). *Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Putnam, R. (2000). *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Reimer, B., Lyons, T., Ferguson, N., & Polanco, G. (2008). Social capital as social relations: the contribution of normative structures. *The Sociological Review*, 257-277.
- Stavren, I. & Knorringa, P. (2006). *Social Capital And Social Economics, Values in Public Life* Seminars of Heythrop Institute for Religion, Ethics & Public Life, London.
- Weber, M. (1978). *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*. London: George Allen & Unwin.

The Role, Responsibilities and Duties of the Homeroom Teacher in Albania Education System During the Communist Regime (1945 – End of '60-S)

Lindita Treska – Doct Cand.

European University of Tirana, Albania

Prof.Asoc. Dr. Tomi Treska

European University of Tirana, Albania

Abstract

Education is one of the most sensitive topics on a worldwide scale as it is one of the core components for a qualitative future generation. In Albania, education is always related and affected by the greatest political movements and events of the country's history. As such important, observation the history education evolution can serve as a great source of understanding different issues that today society is facing and by the quality and quantity of the actual education we can invest in a better future for the country. The emphasis in this research is put at the period in between 1945 until end of '60 as a timeframe snapshot of the evolution of the Albanian education. Extreme ideologization and politicization, are the key features of the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher during the 50's but that doesn't mean that it continues the same for the homeroom teacher at the end of '60s. The ideologization and politicization expansion in Albanian schools comes intensified significantly based on the political and economic relations in between Albania and the Soviet Union. This is clearly expressed in the majority of articles and explication by the specialized pedagogical bodies in the periodicals of the time. Despite the fact that the model of the homeroom teacher had to be oriented toward the soviet model, some core features/functions are not changed as; The homeroom teacher been a key figure in the Albanian school, high school as well as seven grade education; He/she was responsible for the progress of his/her students, for order and discipline in class and the education of the class as a collective and each student of it; To achieve his/her role, the homeroom teacher must organize differentiated work as well as individual with students, to collaborate with other teachers with the pioneer and youth organization, with parents and with the school, where was obliged also to report periodically; In conclusion, although the Communist Party was inducting its models in the school and specifically in the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher, this key role created some core values and competences inside the institution that would remain mostly untouched throughout different political changings.

Keywords: *Education, homeroom teacher, school, ideologization and politization, Communist Party*

For this period, is used an extensive literature review of mainly primary sources of the periodical press of the time. All the published materials in the periodical press that are related directly to the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher are reviewed. A particular importance for our study have been the published articles in specialized educational bodies of the time such as pedagogical magazines, Magazine "National Education" and the "Teacher" Journal (today "Teacher" magazines). Thousands of pages and hundreds of articles are read and reviewed. To analyze the role responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher for this period are carefully selected over 50 articles. In these bodies many directors of the Ministry of Education, other educational institutions, inspectors, field experts, school principals, teachers, etc., have been contributing with articles.

1. The role, responsibilities and duties of homeroom teacher in the 50s

Through all the articles of this period the emphasis is put on the role of the homeroom teacher in the framework of the overall goal of the school. The main purpose of the school in that period was "... to equip the younger generation with a qualitative education, courageous, to possess the fundamentals of science, be equipped with features of will to overcome beyond the difficulties faced in the job, love the people and fatherland, love the Soviet Union, be passionate partisan of peace. (Magazine" National Education", 1950, no. 8, page 6).

The ideological and political indoctrination of Albanian school, its direction, the work of homeroom teachers, education of students with this spirit, the support and influence of the Soviet school in all its aspects, are constant features throughout this decade. "To our new School - notes the Ministry of Education and Culture of the time - is assigned the duty to teach and educate both children with communist morality, fatherland's next generation" (magazine "National Education" 1957, no. 6, page 27).

These two requirements are a central feature of the work of the homeroom teacher of this period.

Within this framework it is defined and the role of the homeroom teacher, who has to deal with the education of the young generation. "Our school - stated in the press of the time - based on the principles of Soviet pedagogy, does not conduct educational work on special hour" (Magazine "National Education" 1958, no. 12, page 53); it is spread across the educational system. The homeroom teacher has a special responsibility to coordinate and direct all educational work. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 53).

The main duties of the homeroom teacher are (Magazine "National Education" 1950, no. 8, page 7-12) to ensure the development and implementation of school rules, to monitor progress of students of his/her class on behavior and how they use their free time. It is the duty of the homeroom teacher to recognize the characteristics of the class in general and each student in particular. He/she should aim at creating a healthy collective spirit in the class, but not based on orders from above, but through promoting student initiatives from below. He/she is also responsible for the health of each student, as for the patriotic education of students of his class. It is his/her task is to empower students not only to plan learning activities, but also the way of using their free time.

To achieve these objectives, he/she designs a specific plan of activities, documenting the implementation of this plan by holding a special diary and reports on the implementation with a report to the Director. He/she has to coordinate work with other teachers of the school, the pioneer or youth organization.

Special role is given to the cooperation with the parents of each child, but previously he/she is required to get to know the conditions of each student's family.

Some forms of work that are recommended to the homeroom teacher (Magazine "Popular Education" 1950, no. 8, page 7-12) are: organization of scientific circles, the class wall journal, organizing excursions and visits to in production and work centers, publishing the school literary newsletter, organization of meetings with personalities from different sectors. It is considered as responsibility of the homeroom teacher to make it possible for every student in his class to engage in useful social work, especially in the organization of patronage, the form of work in which most advanced students contribute towards pupils with lower performance or students of higher classes students take on the patronage students of the lower grade classes.

The homeroom teacher must make differentiated work especially with the lower performance students. He/she was asked to organize separate meetings with the parents of these students in the school, but also to organize visits to the families of these students. (Magazine "People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 50). For the lower performance he/she had to organize in school study sessions through a specific work plan based on the subjects, as well as with all those students who did not have suitable working conditions in their homes. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 51). He/she was also responsible for organizing the morning study or morning consultation. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 52).

Organizing visits in the student's family are recommended especially during exam season. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 52). Especially during these seasons he/she was asked to coordinate the work with the parents committee. (Magazine "People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 50).

When it comes on the collaboration of the homeroom teacher with parents, he/she is recommended organizing meetings with parents last Sunday of each month, during which he/she had to present not only the grades of students, not just the state of their behavior, but it was required by him/her to come prepared to develop an educational lecture. (Magazine "People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 49). To the school it was asked that through the homeroom teachers to organize "Teacher's Service" to welcome the parents to come for consultation. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page

58). Also in school is required the creation of the school parents representation corner. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 58).

The importance of teacher visits in the families, as well as the organization of meetings with parents, are mentioned in many articles of this period. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 51); (Magazine "People's Education", 1953, no. 5, pages 35-36).

Particular authors, consider as an important "front" for the education of students the cooperation between the school and families. (Magazine "People's Education", 1953, no. 5, page 35). The same thing happens with emphasis on the role of the wall newspaper and the development of working visits in to the production centers. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, pages 53-54)

In the press are brought concrete examples of the homeroom teacher's work in high school as well as in the seven grades education. It underlines the need for connecting the homeroom teacher with other teachers, coordination of the work of teachers with students, organization of their free time and especially the creation of collective within each class. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 27).

However, there are also critical writings as well as the presentation of problems that schools and homeroom teachers face of the time. One troubling problem of the time that involved the homeroom teacher, in high school as well as at seven grade education, was in school discipline and regime. Indicator concerns in this regard were: the worst grade evaluating student behavior, school expulsions, unsubscribing and a number of other disciplinary actions. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 28). Among their main causes are identified as: lack of internal regulation of the school, the homeroom teacher's indifference, lack of educational plans, significant concessions to enforce regulations, poor work with parents and students, etc. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 28).

To address and resolve these concerns, importance is given to the designing and implementing internal regulations of the school. According to the Ministry of Education and Culture "Drafting of internal regulations is a responsibility: where participants need to be not only the school director and deputy director, but also the secretary of the base organization of the party, youth secretary, the chairman of the professional committee as well as experienced class tutors... The regulation project is reviewed in the pedagogic council meeting and approved by the director of the school. (Magazine "National Education" 1957, no. 6, page 29).

One of the homeroom teacher working forms with his/her classmates should be the weekly class meetings. The topics of these meetings was to be different, interesting and useful. They should be used as forms for creating the behavior of cultured and courteous speech and general cultural education of the students. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 55- 56).

The homeroom teacher was required to combine the stimulation and encouragement form, with criticism and sanctions. Even in this direction there are provided concrete examples. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, pages 56-57).

The most important article on the role, duties and responsibilities of the homeroom teacher for the second half of the '50 and early '60, we believe that is the article Nos Delianës, Director of the Institute of Teacher's Perfecting in Tirana. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 4, page 25- 38).

In his article the author interprets the regulation of the tutor's class, drafted and sent by the Ministry of Education and Culture in November 1956.

In this article there are many new responsibilities and tasks that are added to the homeroom teacher, as there are repetitive duties that belonged to the homeroom teacher before the release of this regulation.

The role of teachers is generally seen as provider of knowledge and skills, and also as an educator.

The homeroom teacher should be subject teacher in his/her class and was responsible for all educational work developed with students in that class. He/she was considered the closest assistant to the director.

First, it was required of him/her ideologically, politically and educationally growth.

The homeroom teacher should draft a detailed plan of its educational work, which had to be coordinated with the general plan of the school, with the working plan of the pioneer or youth organization.

"The homeroom teacher's duty is to monitor the progress of the students of his class and student behavior, so he/she should keep records on the progress of enrollment and student behavior." (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, No. 4, page 25). For this purpose, he/she is obliged to assist in the classes of other teachers, talk with them, control of student notebooks, their cards and register of class. He/she should recognize his class students at school, outside of it and in the family. It is his/her task is to determine how united are the class students, which is the level and interest of each student towards the political life of the country and the international situation, and whether they evaluate them right or not.

The homeroom teacher studies and verifies the main characteristics of the class as a collective and those of each student as an individual. He/she should discover each student's family conditions, the past family's past as well as the relations among family members.

He/she should keep detailed records for each student at the end of the year and had to build a wider characteristic which was placed in the student's personal file.

A special responsibility of the homeroom teacher's work was considered the work with the lower level performance students, so he/she was asked to design a specific plan of concrete measures.

In the article is emphasize the special role of the wall newspaper class for progress and discipline in the classroom and also the creation of patronage teams for poor the lower level performance students.

In the framework of cooperation with other teachers, he/she had to regulate the student's homework load in all subjects, he/she was demanded to organize periodical meetings of teachers who teach in his/her class.

The aim of his/her work had to be the ensured of unity in the educative teaching work.

It was considered his/her duty to care for the cleanliness and hygiene of students and class.

In this article the emphasis is placed on the headmaster responsibility for organizing weekly class meetings and the implementation of "the rules of the students".

Also it is emphasized the responsibility of the homeroom teacher to organize thematic meetings on festive occasions or commemorations and particularly celebrations devoted to political events. He/she was asked to organize these meetings by including preferably all the students.

On the same time, the homeroom teacher was required to organize the "amusement" of the students. These evenings are known by the term "thematic-amusement" which aimed to combine education with entertainment. It is recommended that these evenings should be organized in the premises of the school (Education and Popular Culture 1955, No. 11, p 58).

Also, the homeroom teacher can also organize student's birthday celebrations, but only of those who had very high scores. It was recommended these celebrations to be organized in the homes of students "... so that the celebration might have a familiar character and serve to better recognition of them and for further strengthen of their friendship" (Education and Popular Culture 1955, No. 11, pp 58-59).

For excellent students it was recommended that "... The homeroom teacher in cooperation with the pioneer and youth organizations can organize symbolic gift, certificates of merit, etc." (Education and Popular Culture, 1955 No. 11, p 59).

The homeroom teacher duty for creating different clubs and different liaising with parents, was highlighted.

The homeroom teacher's work was monitored directly by the school principal, who provided this not only through the asked documentations but also by organizing separate meetings with the homeroom teachers, he was even asked to organize methodical meetings with the homeroom teachers; and for this purpose it was recommended translated literature from the Soviet school.

At the end of the article it is given the educative work plan of the homeroom teacher as well as a concrete work plan for the homeroom teacher of the sixth grade. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 4, pages 25-38).

If we generalize what was said above, we can conclude that:

- The homeroom teacher during the '50 has been a key figure in the Albanian school, high school as well as seven grade education.
- He/she was responsible for the progress of his/her students, for order and discipline in class and the education of the class as a collective and each student of it.
- During this period, special importance was given to ideological and political education of students relying on the experience and the Soviet school.
- To achieve his/her role, the homeroom teacher must organize differentiated work as well as individual with students, to collaborate with other teachers with the pioneer and youth organization, with parents and with the school, where was obliged also to report periodically.

2. The role, responsibilities and duties of homeroom teacher in the 60s

Based on the legal, political and administrative perspective, the 60s are distinguished for some important moments that affect the Albanian school in general and the role and responsibilities of homeroom teacher in particular.

In the 1960 was published a number of decisions known as the "*Theses of the Central Committee of the PPSH and the Council of Ministers for the reorganization of schools and for the further development of national education*", which "*aimed to link more closely the school with life, to give the young generation general polytechnic education and prepare them for manufacturing work, without reducing the level of knowledge of students*". (National Education, 1960, No. 7, Page 28).

In the 1963 was compiled the new law "*On the organization of the education system in the RPSH*".

- According to this law "*The education system in the National Republic of Albania has as objective the general education of the young generation and their preparation to take active part in the construction of the socialist society. Its duty is to equip the young generation with genuine knowledge, to build the Marx-Lenin outlook, to provide vocational training and jobs, to educate youth in the spirit of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism and to provide their moral, physical and aesthetic education*". (Article 1)
- It also stated that: "*The fundamental principle of work in schools and in institutions of higher education is the connection of learning and education with life, production, the socialist mode of the construction of the country*". (Article 4)

In enforcement of the law, in 1964 was compiled for the first time "*The Educational Work Program*" and in 1966 was compiled "*The Regulation of General and Vocational Schools*."

The strongly emphasized idea in all these documents and in the press of the time, was the need to combine "*the teaching work with educational work in one process of comprehensive training and education of children and youth*". (National Education 1964, No. 1, Page 128).

A special role in this direction was needed to be carried on by the homeroom teachers. This was limited not only by the fact that their responsibility in the education process was crucial, but also because until that moment, there were emphasized problems in their performance. In the press of the time it is highlighted that "Our teachers (homeroom teachers) many times they fall into formalism in their educative work with the students. This responsibility is reduced into some formal meetings of the class, into compiling of standard education working plans in the class, in a "*campaign*" way of work, mainly superficial, without specific goals, without actual content... In most of the times the educational work is done in a spontaneous way, randomly, many times it becomes uniform and same despite the different ages of the students" (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 128).

Ascertain that in many cases the educational working plans were all almost the same (the "Teacher" journal, 1964, No.13, Page 4). Fundamental weaknesses were found even in the organization and development of weekly meetings with the class by the homeroom teacher, meetings that were mostly monotonous and non-relevant. In many cases the meetings of the class were even considered as a trial. (the "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

Special attention was given on the content of the educative work. Different authors strictly believed that the personality of the student is shaped during the whole process, activity and their social life: at school, at home, outside-outdoors. They emphasized that *"these factors must be driven in the best way in order to create an educative balanced unity"*. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129). For this purpose, it had to be compiled a system of the educative work in general.

Precisely to define better the content of the educative work in schools it was compiled the *"Educative Work Program"*. This document defined the basic characteristics of the educative work, the qualities that needed to be taught to the students; it recommended the activities that needed to be organized for each class and at the same time it had specific directives for the homeroom teachers. (National Education, 1964, No.1, Page 129).

It was recommended that this program needs to be executed in compliance with the concrete conditions of every school, but the main condition was that *"in the educative work, the teachers should be focused on the clear directives on education given by the party"*. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129).

In many schools, it was observed a gap in between the teaching work and the educative work. Therefore, in the new program it was demanded that the educative work and the teaching work must create a unity and together to aim the creation of the new man. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129).

The homeroom teacher was recommended to use a variety of methods, forms and activities in the educative work, starting with the class meetings, continuing with the educative work of all the class combined with the individual educative work with each student, to the "5 minutes" appointments with the class at the end of each lesson.

For the meetings with the class, it was recommended that the homeroom teacher should give special importance to the process of preparation as well as continuity of the work even after the meeting.

The homeroom teacher should give importance to the clarifying and convictive work with the student, taking organizational precautions to achieve the targeted goals, persistence and discipline for the accomplishment of specific duties as well as delegation of some responsibilities to the students. The homeroom teacher should be very careful in order to assist the students so they will be able to *"walk on their feet"*. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 132-33).

The homeroom teachers should work systematically during all the scholastic year starting since the first grade.

The Educative work program gave special importance to the work *"in the psychologic front"*. *"This-stated there- is a working front that touches directly the content of the educative work"*. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 136). Therefore, it was required psychologic preparation, high morale, persistence and patience.

Whereas the *Educative Work Program* has to do more on the content of the educative work in schools as well as some methods and forms of its organization, the other document, *Regulation of General and Vocational Schools*, addresses issues more based on the administrative character.

In article 12 of this regulation it is stated that: *"every class should be leaded by the homeroom teacher, who is assigned by the Director of the school. The home room teacher, continues article 12, is responsible to coordinate the educative work of the teachers, to collaborate with the pioneer or youth organization for the communist education of the students, to follow and take care of the behavior and their progress, to maintain closed relations with the parents and help them in their children's education."*

The homeroom teacher works based on a trimonthly or semester plan of education work. He/she organizes meetings with students of the class when needed. (Regulation of General and Vocational Schools, Tirana 1966, Page 10).

In regard to the actions undertaken for the student's promotion and punishment, in the power of the home room teacher is acknowledged only the right to accord the disciplinary action of remark in front of the class. (Regulation of General and Vocational Schools, Tirana 1966, Page 18).

In the periodic press of that period, especially in the education area, the discussion on the above decisions and documents, as well as the specific problems of the Albanian education, hold a considerable position. Many articles and texts are written before, during and after these decisions have been published. We will focus on those problematics that are tightly related with the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher.

Since the first year of the 6th decade (1960), it is reemphasized the role and responsibility of the homeroom teacher in the framework of the whole Albanian education system. There it is specially highlighted that the role of the homeroom teacher it is not limited in just producing statistics or evidences of the student's progress or just the organization of some class meetings. *"In the whole learning process – educative of a class, the homeroom teacher plays a very important role: he/she will unite and balance the work of the other subject teachers, will transmit to the class the directives from the School Directorate, will organize their implementation in collaboration with all the other teachers, the youth organization, parents and the School Directorate.* (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 50).

Herein, the homeroom teacher work must be concentrated towards the student's progress in the learning process, as well as towards their education. He/she should know the group of the class as well as each individual separately. For this purpose, he/she should keep a special diary. (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 51).

For the first time, importance is given to the work of the homeroom teacher with the classes compound by boarder students. It is a duty of the homeroom teacher that for these children he/she *"should keep closed relationships with the caretakers and vice director of the dormitory; he/she as well should keep continuous contact with the parents of the students by writing to them letters, to inform as well as guide them in relation with their child"*. (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 55).

The homeroom teacher is advised to rely on the *"archives of the class"*, the group of students with high results and excellent behavior, to accomplish with a high quality the educative work and achieve great results in the class. (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 50).

Special importance is given to the qualitative organization of the class's meetings, the better usage of the newsstand of the class, organizing patronage groups, etc. But special focus is put on the relationship and collaboration in between parents and teachers. *"The homeroom teacher informs on the student's behavior as well as on the progress, guides them on the ways of studying at home, on the entertainment time and ways, on the household, sleep, etc."* (National Education, 1960, No. 6, Page 54). It is required that this collaboration must be extended during the whole scholastic year, not just at the last month of the year.

The homeroom teacher is required to work with enthusiasm and coordinate his/her work with the neighborhood around the school and its organizations. (The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2).

He/she is asked to organize together with the students, helpful/useful social works. In the press channels are given examples of these activities, among which are mentioned *the collection and delivery of medicinal herbs* (The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2), *cleaning of the surroundings of the school, cleaning different areas of the neighborhood or the city etc.* (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). Throughout these activities it was aimed the education of the students with the passion for work, the feeling of hygiene, as well as to save the state enough money. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

The teacher possessed the "leverages" that could "use" for the successful execution of his/her responsibilities. Suchlike, was the student trustee, who had to be considered as the connection in between the class and the homeroom teacher. (The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2). Furthermore, the homeroom teacher was recommended to "use" the active part of the class's parents, compound by 3-4 parents. The active part of class's parents constituted the core of the *Class's Parents Council*. This organization could help the homeroom teacher by becoming his/her coordinator in the relations with the other parents. The members of this organization could pay visits in the families of the students with learning, discipline or frequentation problems, or even by helping the homeroom teacher in organizing general meetings with the class's parents. (The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2).

By all means it was required that the work with the parents should be coordinated "*in order that the requests should be equal, adapted, according to the age and as much consequent as possible*" (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). In the education press are given many positive examples on the successes or results of the homeroom teachers of the time. These are often used as models for the other homeroom teachers. According to a model presented by a group of teachers, at the beginning of the scholar year they group the class based on the weaknesses and based on this they build their educative plan for the whole year. In this direction they have in mind the "organizational measures, the ideological work, the out of the class work, working with parents as well as other thematic. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). Anyhow most important for these teachers remains the progress, discipline and attendance, besides the personal example of the teacher. For this there are used also proverbs as "Words teach you, examples educate you." (The Teachers Journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

One of the ways that is still recommended massively in between the concrete examples, is the patronage form and the placement of the patrols; the first, to help weaker students; the second, to control the compliance of the daily regime decided in the class meeting. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.12, Page 3).

The collaboration and relationship of the homeroom teacher with the other colleges that teach at the homeroom class, remains a very preferred way of the homeroom teacher work. He/she had to talk to them in regard to the weaknesses of each student, had to ask them on giving extra assignments if needed, to specific students, to activate them as much as they could during the lessons, etc. Most impressive are the visits of the homeroom teacher in specific teaching hours of other teachers, to observe the standing of the students, their behavior, the activation, the quality of the response, presence, etc. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.12, Page 3). This was necessary so that all the teachers would have the same tactic with the students of the class." (The "Teacher" journal. 1964, No. 19, Page 3; No.8, Page 2).

The student's booklet is considered as important documentary way of the communication in between the homeroom teacher and parents. The booklet was specifically used to show the student's progress.

Many teachers practice successfully the visits in the families of the students with different problems, like low frequentation and absences, low results, absence long periods of time for medical reasons, as well as other joyful occasions. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No. 12, Page 3).

In this framework are seen also the conversations with the parents regarding different issues. Parents are invited in the class meetings, in order to know better the situation in the class, the level of progress, weaknesses, accomplishments, frequentation problems, behavior and discipline. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No. 12, Page 3).

In several special occasions and activities parents are asked to contribute voluntarily through their work, experience and knowledges, or even help with materials according to the type of the activity.

An interesting way how to mobilize the students on the preparations for different activities, have been the invitations for special guests during these activities in the class. The presence of these guests was used as a chance for the students to better clean the class, decorate it properly, prepare the activity with greater desire, passion and responsibility and be more active during its implementation. (The "Teacher" journal, 1964, No. 19, Page 3).

Inside the publications, it is stated that the students gradually start to appear with uniforms and "pioneer scarfs". One of the successes of the homeroom teachers is the fact that "boys and girls sit on the same bench together". (The "Teacher" journal, 1964, No. 13, Page 4).

The 60s of the XX century mark the intensification and enlargement of the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher in the Albanian education system.

- This feature is part of the politic aspect (*The Thesis of the CC of PPSH and Council of Ministers of 1960*), as well as the legal one (*Law on the organization of the education system in the Republic of Albania 1963*), enriched by other important documents with professional character (*The Educative Work Program 1964*) as well as administrative (*Regulatory of General and Vocational Schools 1966*).
- On an ideological outlook, it is evident for the first time the concept of "*the creation of the new man with the Marxism-Leninism outlook*".

- As we have emphasized previously, during these years it was demanded that the educative and learning work in the school should create a sole unity.
- In this framework, the homeroom teacher duty was to coordinate the educative work of the teachers, to collaborate with the youth or pioneer's organization, on the communism education of the students, to follow and take care of the behaviors and their progress, to maintain closed relationships with the parents and assist them in the education of their children.
- In the specialized media of the time there were offered models, forms, ways and examples on how the homeroom teacher must and could achieve an objective like this. Besides the already known ways from the 50's, new ways were introduced also.
- The reliance on the soviet school, in the pedagogy and soviet model, are not mentioned anymore.
- Despite the ideologization and politicization of the Albanian education system, and specially the educative work in the Albanian school, the core of the homeroom teacher work on taking care for the progress of their students, on frequentation, discipline and holistic education, even in the 60s remains unchanged, constant.

References

- National Education*, 1950, no. 8, page 6, 7-12
People's Education, 1950, nr. 7, page 49, 50
People's Education, 1950, no. 8, page 7-12
People's Education, 1951, no. 8-9, page 51, 52, 53-54
People's Education, 1953, no. 5, page 35, 35-36
Education and Popular Culture, 1955, No. 11, p 58, 59
People's Education, 1957, no. 6, page 27, 28, 29
National Education, 1957, no. 6, page 27
People's Education, 1958, no. 4, page 25- 38
National Education, 1958, no. 12, page 53
People's Education, 1958, no. 12, page 53, 55- 56, 56-57, 58
National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 50, 51, 55, 54.
National Education, 1960, No.7, Page 28
National Education 1964, No.1, Page 128, 129, 132, 133, 136
The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2
The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3
The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.12, Page 3
The "Teacher" journal. 1964, No.8, Page 2
The "Teacher" journal, 1964, No.13, Page 4
The "Teacher" journal. 1964, No.19, Page 3
Regulation of General and Vocational Schools, Tirana 1966, Page 10, 18

Religious Tourism and Sufism in Morocco

Dr Driss Bouyahya

Moulay Ismail University Meknes, Morocco

Abstract

This study aims to uncover the relationship between Sufism and religious tourism. In other words, it attempts to shed light on the standards that make people, from different parts of the world, travel in precise times for religious reasons. In addition, this study tries to highlight the effects of that kind of travels on people's daily demeanours. Thus, this study was conducted in Fez city, Morocco, at zawya of Sidi Ahmed Tijani. The relevant data was collected qualitatively and quantitatively. The results showed that tourists who come to the zawya of Sidi Ahmed Tijani are practitioners of religious tourism since they travel from their homelands to Morocco, more precisely in Fez in order to fulfil their religious needs. Also it is shown that Tijani tourists experience a sort of cathartic process during their visits.

Keywords: Religious tourism, Sufism, Tariqa Tijaniyya, Catharsis

Introduction

Religious tourism is not a new phenomenon. Religion has long been an integral push factor for undertaking trips which is commonly referred to as the oldest non-economic travel (Jackowski & Smith, 1992). Every year millions of pilgrims travel to major pilgrimage destinations around the world; be they ancient or modern. Religiously or spiritually motivated travel has become widespread and popularized in recent decades, and hence, it occupies a significant segment of international tourism. However, religious tourism is one of the most understudied areas in tourism (Vukonic, 1998).

The aim of this study is to contribute to the growing literature on religious tourism by reviewing concepts and practices related to pilgrimage and other forms of religious travel. By the way, in this paper, the terms (religious tourism and religious travel) are used interchangeably. In addition, the paper zeroes in on the pilgrim/tourist dichotomy and the intersections of religion and tourism from a perspective that has been little studied.

The present study examines the relationship between Sufism and religious tourism in Morocco. Sufism as a religious and spiritual tourism seems to be a worthwhile topic to be investigated in this paper, since Morocco is a Muslim country wherein many Sufis can be found regardless the brotherhoods they belong to. Moreover, in Morocco there are many religious locations such as shrines and *zawyas*; these are holy places where Saints are buried. They are desired destinations for some people who aim to satisfy their religious needs through worshipping, praying and donating. Since Sufism contributes to enhancing tourism in Morocco, the main purpose behind this study is to discover the link between Sufism and tourism in Morocco focusing on *Tijani-Sufi* order in Fez.

The objective of this study is to explore the religious tourism and its relationship with Sufism focusing on *Tijani-Sufi* order. It aims to provide some evidence of what makes *zawiya tijaniyya* a desirable destination of religious tourists and what activities they during their visits. This research seeks to address the following questions. First, does religious tourism exist in Morocco? Second, when and why do *Tijani* members come to Fez? Third, what do *Tijani* members seek in this Sufi order (*Zawiya Tijaniyya*)?

Some hypotheses stem from the aforementioned questions. They are outlined as follows: 1/ Religious tourists come to Morocco to have religious and spiritual experiences, and 2/ *Tijani* members practice some special rituals of their brotherhoods in order to siphon off their worries and seek spirituality when they come to Fez.

Literature Review

The review of the literature is divided into four sections; the first is an overview of what is meant by religious tourism as a general form of traveling. The second part will provide an explanation of Sufism as a form of religious activity. The third part

is about *Tijaniyya* being a Sufi-order since it is the case study of this research paper. While the last section deals with the Catharsis theory by Aristotle and how it is applicable for the visitors of the *zawiya Tijaniyya*.

Religious tourism

The main step in scrutinizing spiritual tourists within the context of religious tourism must be to establish who they are and what their motivations are for embarking on their journeys. In fact, it is concepts of identity that are often at the heart of why people choose to travel. Religion is deemed as a type of archaic behavior and mode of knowledge (Halligan, 1996)¹. In this respect, pilgrimage has existed as long as the first religions, and thus, pilgrims were tourists from the start and pilgrims invented tourism. In this context, Paul Kritwaczek (2002)² claims that pilgrimage is "a voyage of personal discovery; to explore the many guises in which the teachings of the first, and greatest, sage of ancient times lived on after his earthly life was over" (p. 27).

Broadly speaking, the relationship between Sufism and tourism could be seen ambiguous unless having a clear image about what is meant by religious tourism. There are various definitions that have been provided to explain the meaning of religious tourism. Kurmanaliyeva, Rysbekova, Duissenbayeva and Izmailov (2014) suggest that

Religious tourism acts as a unique kind of cognitive tourism since it satisfies gnoseological interest of travelers and tourists, giving them the opportunity to observe, live through a religious cult process ceremonies and rituals, to purchase religious attributes, souvenirs (p. 959).

Thanks to this contribution, religious tourism can be defined as an act of tourism through which the travelers seek to fulfill cognitive needs related to religious interests and matters.

To illustrate more, Kurmanaliyeva et.al (2014) add "religious tourism frameworks usually presuppose visiting religious centers, functioning cultures and memorable ones, and also museums and exhibitions. Trips are made to cultural acts, holidays, and festivals taking place in a certain season"(p. 959).

In this respect, religious tourism is an act of traveling to a place in order either to accomplish a religious task, such as pilgrimage or simply to visit sacred places, attending conferences and lectures that are related to a specific religion. It may also be considered as a personal need to situate one's self in a social space in order to be recognized spiritually and religiously. Hence, religious tourism owns a kind of socio-cultural potential of influencing the motivational state of a person, which has the need of cultural and religious objects required for the spiritually ideological existence (Kurmanaliyeva et al).

Historically, pilgrimage has been depicted as a physical journey in search of truth and what is holy (Vukonic, 1996). This search for truth, enlightenment or a real experience with the holy leads people to set a trip to sacred sites that have been ritually remote from the profane space of daily life. Consequently, modern religious pilgrimages are a refuge for those who seek mysticism and spirituality and escape the modern civilization's strains. This explains the increasing numbers of tourists who are in a quest for the answers to basic inquiries of human existence, including "what is the meaning of my life?" (Olsen & Guelke 2004; Clark 1991).

In the same vein, some scholars state that a growing number of people experience feelings of dislocation and rootlessness, mainly those immersed in Western postmodern social life (Mac Cannell, 1976; Lowenthal, 1997 cited in Olson & Timothy, 2006). There are several motives and incentives for people to travel to a large variety of holy sites. Pilgrims and/or tourists go not only for religious and spiritual purposes and to have an experience with the sacred in the traditional sense, but also these holy sites are marked and marketed as heritage or cultural attractions to be consumed (Timothy & Boyd, 2003). Others may target to educate their family members about their religious beliefs or for nostalgic reasons. In this respect, tourists/pilgrims also visit sacred places seeking authentic experiences, either through watching religious leaders and pilgrims perform rituals or by experiencing a "site's sense of place" or sacred atmosphere (Shackley, 2002).

Pilgrim/tourist dichotomy

¹ Halligan, M. (1996). *Cockles of the Heart*. Port Melbourne: Minera

² Kritwaczek, P. (2002) *In Search of Zarathustra*. New York: Vintage Books, p. 27

Nowadays, there is a blurring of the lines between pilgrimage and other forms of travel traditionally viewed as part of tourism. This has led to an increase in religiously and spiritually motivated travel to a wide range of sacred sites around the world. Therefore, several vistas of research have been opened into the area of religion and tourism. Nevertheless, most research and writing on the topic has focused on four distinct themes of inquiry: 1/ the pilgrim/tourist dichotomy, 2/ the characteristics and travel patterns of religious tourists, 3/ the economics of religious tourism and 4/ the negative impacts of tourism on religious sites and ceremonies (Olsen & Timothy, 2006). However, this study uncovers another aspect and/or theme: spiritual purgation or catharsis in religious tourism.

The primary focus of research and debate among scholars examining religious travel has been on the tourist and the pilgrim, the main players in the relationship between religion and tourism (Cohen, 1998). Most researchers today do not distinguish between pilgrims and tourists or between pilgrimage and tourism. There is an important notion that examines pilgrimage as a form of tourism because a 'pilgrim' is deemed as a tourist (religious tourist) who is motivated by spiritual or religious factors. Therefore, pilgrimage is typically accepted as a form of tourism (Fleischer, 2000), for it exhibits most of the same characteristics in terms of travel patterns and the use of transportation, services and infrastructures.

On the contrary, the opposing perspective refutes the fact that pilgrims are tourists. In this vein, travelers who are motivated by profound spiritual or religious impetus (i.e. pilgrims) are seen as somehow different from those motivated by pleasure, education, curiosity, altruism, and relaxation. Mainly, it is various religious organizations that hold to this point of view.

Some other researchers, like Smith (1992), state that rather than viewing pilgrims and tourists as two distinct groups, it is better to place them both on a continuum with pilgrims at one end and tourist at the other. Similarly, while tourists may appear different from pilgrims, they can be moved by religious emotions just as well as pilgrims (Eade, 1992). In other words, people can switch from being a pilgrim to a tourist and vice versa without the individual being aware of the change from one to the other.

In a nutshell, the difficulty of distinguishing between pilgrims and other tourists can be seen in the official statistics of many countries, where existing figures tend to combine pilgrimage and religious tourism with cultural or heritage tourism (Russell, 1999). To avoid any controversy and ambiguity, this study will use both pilgrim and religious tourist interchangeably. This way, we will adopt the "golden mean" in dealing with the pilgrim/tourist dichotomy.

Sufism

The concept of Sufism has been the concern of many scholars and researchers; that is, many definitions have been postulated to explain what Sufism is, and a set of them are cited

in Bouasria (2015). Sufism has been defined as a vehicle for the spread of Islam (Trimingham 1971), an ascetic piety (Ling 1994), an organizational basis of resistance against colonialism (Evans-Pritchard 1949), a mean of psychiatric treatment (Crapanzano 1973), and a force of reform (Gilsenan 1973). The organizational structures that follow Sufism are called *tariqa*, meaning "way", "order" or "path" (p.20).

According to Encyclopedia Britanica, Sufism is the "mystical Islamic belief or practice in which Muslims seek to find the truth of divine love and knowledge through direct personal experience of God"¹. In this regard, Sufism consists of a variety of mystical paths which are designed to ascertain the nature of humanity and of God and to facilitate the experience of the presence of divine love and wisdom on earth. The substance of Sufism is truth and the selfless experiencing and actualization of the truth. Sufism is a school for the actualization of divine ethics. It encompasses an enlightened inner being, not intellectual proof; revelation and witnessing, not logic. In other words, divine ethics refer to ethics that transcend mere social convention, a way of being that is the actualization of the attributes of God.

Many scholars argue that Sufism is a branch of Islam. Sufism is a spiritual discipline of Islam that is a vehicle for many Sufis to be close to their God spiritually in order to get the absolute knowledge and then to become a divine and a wise person Saladdin (2008). In the same vein, he adds that

The word truth, or haqiqah- Haq, is a key word in the philosophy of

¹ www.encyclopediaBritanica.org. Retrieved on June 30th, 2016

Sufism, as I will show later. For a Sufi, there is one truth which is the only God, and there is one God who is the only Truth. Sufism is simply a path to that goal, to become one with Truth or the Unity of Being. At that point the Sufi becomes God, which is the sacred goal for a Sufi. (p.2)

Saladdin's definition of Sufism is more of a philosophical stance. In other words, the path to the absolute truth refers to God. This absolute truth, for him, does enable the Sufi to become a Godlike. However, this claim might be acknowledged by Muslims since it literally means to be a partner with God which is a terrible guilt in Islam that is referred to as 'Shirk' (heresy).

As an attempt to defend his claim, Saladdin argues that "the Sufi's challenge is to overcome the self in order to let God be, i.e. to become God" (p. 3). In this respect, the explanation of the goal which is considered sacred by Sufis 'to become God' has been altered to the total self-denial; it means nothing is important but God who is the only truth that remains. In this sense, there is no claim of partnership with God; therefore, there is no sin committed in term of Islam.

Moreover, Nasr (1970) argues that "Sufism is a divine trust originating in the mercy of God and placed within Islam [...] Sufism gives to man the means to know himself and thus to know God" (p.2). This definition seems to be similar to the previous scholar's contribution. In other words, he defines a Sufi as a Muslim who devotes him/her self and seeks for pity from God. Also he emphasizes that Sufism is a powerful medium that leads to divine knowledge through knowing the inner self which is the center of the existence. Bouasria argues that it is "the mystical and esoteric branch of Islam" (p.20). What makes it mystical and esoteric is that it addresses the spiritual side of Muslims in order to get the internal religious nourishment. In fact, this remains the ultimate goal of Sufism.

Furthermore, Sufism in Morocco, is a blessing and absolute happiness and an experience that is offered to the worshippers in order to provide them with a spiritual rapture. It is also a reforming act to prevent extremism and all its negative and tragic consequences (Gurraoui, 2016). Similarly, Chtatou (2016) states "Sufis are focused on their search for a way inside themselves that will lead them to God. They believe that the path to Him can be found through mediation and purification". (p.19). In other words, Sufi people focus mostly on the inner side of the self which is the center of being and the only way towards God. They mediate and attempt to purify themselves in order to reach that goal.

It is argued that Sufism is a set of spiritual and religious practices that a Sufi person does in order to purify one's soul and to get a divine knowledge from God. According to Bouasria (ibid), a Sufi is the practice of Sufism; he/she is someone who has the will to purify his/her soul under the guidance of a teacher who is mostly called a master, or sheikh. Along with Nasr, Sufism's main objective is to guide the man to be separated from the world of materials to the world of spirit in which the inside is more important than the outside. Moreover, a Sufi is somebody who always travels looking for mystical and divine knowledge by attending Sufis philosophers' lectures and mediating (Saladdin, 2008).

Although Sufism is an allusive concept constantly in flux, the aforementioned definitions agree that Sufism, being a branch of Islam, is a way of worshipping God, purifying the soul, and seeking wisdom, the divine knowledge and the absolute truth. Yet, this way may differ from one group to another according to the brotherhood a Sufi belongs to and the path or order adopted. A path or order in Sufi-culture is called *tariqa*; it is a well-structured way of Sufism that differs from one brotherhood to another, such as "Boutchichiya", "Darqawiya", "Wahhabiya", "Tijanniya" and "Kettaniya".

Tijani-Sufi order

Since this research paper is targeting the members of Tijani-order, it is useful to provide an explanation of what Tijaniyya as a Sufi way or *Tariqa* is and how it has evolved. When speaking about *Tariqa Tijaniya*, it is worth mentioning the beautifully decorated *zawiya* of Sidi Ahmad Tijani in Fez. It/he is widely visited from all over the Arab world as well as Africa (Abeddour, 2011). What can be interpreted from Abeddour's input is that the decoration of the *zawiya Tijaniyya* is one of the factors that make it largely visited by people from many parts of the world especially from the Arab world and

Africa. However, many reasons can illustrate the visit of Sufis to zawya Tijaniya, such as attending ceremonies, chanting 'Dikr' and networking.

Skiredj (2001) defines, "Tijaniya way is a spiritual membership, which consists of praises and thanks to Allah. It is simple and does not require from the individual to lead a strict monastic life, to spend his whole time in fast and prayer, to avoid women or go to countercurrent of the natural customs of the life" (p. 35). Skiredj's definition of Tijaniya seems to be an attempt to deny some assumptions about Sufism and its practitioners who most of the times exaggerate in their worshipping as they free themselves from the materialist world and start their devotion to God. Tijaniya order, therefore, does not require a sacrifice act per se.

It would be unfair to talk about Tijani path without providing an overview about the founder and the master of Tijaniyya order who is Sheikh Sidi Ahmed Tijani. According to Skiredj, Sidi Ahmed Ben M'hamed Ben El Mokhtar Tijani was born in 1150 of the Hegira at Ain Madi (Algeria) and he died in 1230 of the Hegira in Fez (Morocco). He studied the Quran and religious sciences with the professor Muhamad Ben Hammou Tijani; he was specialized in Sufism through various professors.

Among Sufi Sheikhs, Sidi Ahmed Tijani is considered the most worth to be the intermediary between the disciple and God. He said as cited in Skiredj (2011) "No Sufi Sheikh could claim that he did you some favors. I am your real intermediary and provider. Therefore, abandon all what you did take as Sufi ways" (p. 20) (Translation mine). In other words, to be a Tijani member is to take Sheikh Sidi Ahmed Tijani as the one and the only guide or master and to abandon the others. Moreover, Skiredj states "visiting other Sufi saints is also forbidden in Tariqa tijaniyya [...] we should love, venerate, and respect them but not to visit them" (p.24) (Translation mine). One of the conditions of Tijaniyya is to never visit a tomb or zawiya of any Sufi Sheikh except Sidi Ahmed Tijani. They should be respected, venerated, and loved because they are religiously knowledgeable and wise.

Besides, Skiredj (2001) provides other practices that the Tijani disciples should follow. First, the 'wird' has to be recited individually in the morning or the evening. That is, twice a day. It consists of the recitation of 'Astaghfirou Allah' 100 times; it means to ask Allah forgiveness. Also, 'Salat el Fathi' 100 times; it is a special version of the prayer on the prophet. Second, 'al-wadzifa' it is done collectively in the zawiya. It entails the asking for God's forgiveness 30 times, 'Salat el F Fathi' 50 times, 'La ilaha illa Allah' 50 times, and the 'Jawharat Al Kamal' or the pearl of perfection 12 times. The 'al-wadzifa' is done in the zawiya in every 24 hours so that Tijani members can get involved. Third, the 'Haylala'; that is, to say "there is no God but Allah". It has to be recited collectively every Friday, between the prayers of El Assr and El Maghghreb, by the Tijani members in the zawiya. It can be also recited individually from 1000 to 1600 times. Hence, the prayers on the Prophet are essential and of paramount importance in Tijani order.

Theoretical framework

This section tackles a theoretical framework which is significant in this paper to provide an explanation of the topic investigated. A theory, moreover, adds value to the study and makes it worth.

Catharsis theory

The Catharsis theory by Aristotle who by which he explained the strong impact of the tragic character portrayed in drama or poetry on the audience's state of minds.

"Purging the spirit of morbid and base ideas or emotions by witnessing the playing out of such emotions or ideas on the stage" (Aristotle, 2001. p. 1458). According to Aristotle, Catharsis refers to the experience of cleansing and healing of the spectators' emotions while and after watching a tragedy, this experience has a positive influence on their state of minds. Although this research paper is far from these subjects such as drama, poetry and so on, catharsis theory seems to be applicable in Sufism as an act of purifying and cleansing the soul of its practitioners. Moreover, this theory is of a great assistance in this research paper because it will be a crucial tool to examine the effects of the Sufi rituals done by Tijani members during their visit to the zawya Tijaniya on their emotions and psyche.

In the same vein, Scheff (2001) defines "Catharsis is a process of emotional discharge which brings relief to emotional tension" (p.47). In this respect, catharsis is as a process in which the person releases and gets rid of all emotional tension and pressure. In fact, it is also a theory that siphons off one's worries, tension and pressure

Furthermore, Powell (2007) defines catharsis as a concept derived from the Greek word that has been translated as 'cleansing' or 'purification'. He adds that "Catharsis has been recognized as a healing, cleansing, and transforming experience through history, and has been used in cultural healing practices, literature, drama, religion, medicine, and psychology" (p.1) Similarly, catharsis is applied not only in drama, poetry, and music as Aristotle claims, but it also used in many other fields, religious practices and experiences. Most of these definitions emphasize two essential components of catharsis: The emotional aspect (strong emotional expression and processing) and the cognitive aspect of catharsis (insight, new realization, and the unconscious becoming consciousness) that culminates in a "positive change". Powell's contribution to the definitions of catharsis is vital because he acknowledges that Catharsis is more than a scene side effect on the spectator's emotions; rather it is a positive change on a person's spirit and mind during and after experiencing a cathartic activity. In other words, the spectators acquire more awareness and consciousness of both the internal and the external side of their life. The visit of Tijani members to zawya Tijaniyya and the rituals they perform may also be considered as cathartic since they come with their strong will to realize purgation and the inner cleansing of their souls. Consequently, the rituals are often considered as part of a person's healing from the devastating effect of guilt (Powell, 2007).

Methodology issues

This research paper examines the relationship between Tijani Sufi order and religious tourism in Morocco. It explores how this Sufi brotherhood could be a form of catharsis and purgation for some Tijani tourists. In this respect, I opt for purposive sampling. This type of sampling seems to be fruitful while collecting and analyzing data. Therefore the target population of this research are the members of Tijaniyya precisely the tourists who come to Fez to visit zawya Tijaniyya where the master Sidi Ahmed Tijani is buried and where they practise religious tourism and may have cathartic experiences.

In academic contexts, a research has to be given credibility and validity. Therefore, in order to achieve this purpose in this study, the suitable design that would yield reliable results is the qualitative approach. However, it is significant to explain what is denoted by credibility, validity, and reliability in a qualitative research. In this respect; Golafshani (2003) states "the credibility of a qualitative research depends on the ability and efforts of the researcher" (p.4). In this respect, reliability and validity are conceptualized as trustworthiness, rigor, and quality in qualitative paradigm.

The focus in this research is on meanings transmitted by the way my interviewees respond through to my questions. In order to explain relationships and to explore individual experiences rather than the numbers and statistics that quantitative approach seeks for, the appropriate design to be used in this study is qualitative. According to Golafshani (2003), a qualitative research adopts a naturalistic approach and aims to understand phenomena in a specific setting that it related to the context of the research.

Qualitative data are rich and worth in this study for many reasons, such as the freedom to express themselves through the language they prefer; English, French, or Arabic. First, the major quality which characterizes the interview is the interaction between the researcher and the respondents. This enriches the research by unexpected data that would make the researcher oriented to new perspectives.

The research instruments in qualitative study and the instruments that used to collect data are diverse; there are interviews, focus group, and discussion group. However, I opt to use interviews. The interviews allow respondents to freely present their life situation in their own words, and open for a close personal interaction between the researchers and their subjects (Kvale, 2006).

Second, semi-structured interviews are sometimes done in an informal, conversational, or 'soft' manner that allows the participants to explore issues they feel are important (Longhurst, 2010). This format of interviews is probably the most commonly used in qualitative method. Third, the interaction between the participant and the reporter will be presented; thus, this method provides the interviewer an opportunity to learn more about the experience of the interviewee and to develop rapport with him or her to be able to ask follow up probing questions based on their responses.

Findings and discussion

This section is divided into two parts. The first deals with the findings. That is, it presents the data collected in the practical part through interviews, and then it analyzes them. The second deals with the discussion, it revises the research questions,

the research hypotheses and compares them with the findings according to the theoretical framework dealt with in this study.

The practical part of this research is conducted on Fridays, May 13th, 20th and 27th, 2016, in the zawya of Sidi Ahmed Tijani, Fez. I have chosen to go on Fridays because many Tijani members come those days to the zawya, and it is easier to collect data from different individuals, that is, different points of view. I have interviewed 9 tourists, out of which four are males while five are females. The participants who were interviewed for this study are aged between 30 and 50 years old. This part covers the practices that Tijani tourists do in the zawya and the reasons behind their visits, and it scrutinizes their cathartic experience during and after visiting the zawya. Subsequently, it is necessary to provide a vivid background about the respondents who participated in this study.

Item	Name	Age	Education	Country
1	Khadija	30	Islamic Education	Belgium
2	Fatim	42	Islamic Education	Senegal
3	Natasha	39	Islamic Education	Senegal
4	Mariam	45	Islamic Education	Mauritania
5	Aisha	34	Islamic Education	Nigeria
6	Mouhammado	47	Islamic Education	Senegal
7	Ibrahim	34	Islamic Education	Nigeria
8	Tariq	32	Islamic Education	Mauritania
9	Hassan	34	Islamic Education	Egypt

According to the chart above, it is worth mentioning that the correspondents do share many features. First, they are all foreigners; it proves that they are willing to travel in order to fulfill their religious needs or interests. Here they are pilgrims rather than tourists. Second, the fact that the participants come from different countries demonstrates that Tijani path is popular worldwide. This sample is a real diaspora. Third, all the participants have studied Islamic education; this explains that they have background knowledge about Islam. Therefore, all of the participants mentioned above can be considered as intellectual pilgrims who seek both cultural and spiritual catharsis.

Based on the various nationalities of the visitors to zawya Sidi Ahmed Tijani, this research attempts to discover the visitors' practices during their visit, reasons behind the visit, and to evaluate whether there is a sort of release and catharsis in the process. It is necessary to mention that the questions I raised in these interviews were prepared before, but there are some questions I added while conducting the interviews. This study is based on a sample of 9 Tijani tourists/pilgrims who have provided interesting answers.

The first question was about the frequency of their visits. The majority of the respondents come occasionally; they come in Sha'ban, which is the month before Ramadan and on the birthday of the prophet. Also, they come in the period of pilgrimage before taking the direction to Mecca. Then I wondered why in Sha'ban and not in Ramadan which is the holy month for Muslims all over the world. The answers to this question were various. Many of the participants including Tariq (32 years old), Hassan (34 years old), and Mariyam (45 years old) answered that it is the right time to come and visit the zawya and take 'al-Baraka' (Benediction/Divine grace) of their sheikh Sidi Ahmed Tijani in order to start Ramadan with a fully pure soul.

Moreover, one of the reasons according to Mouhammado (47 years old), is the issue of 'al-Omra'; he explained that "It is the perfect time for me to be here in the zawya because afterward I will pay a visit to Mecca". Ibrahim (34 years old) agreed with Mouhammado, he also considers his visit to Sidi Ahmed Tijani as the first path of his al-Omra to Mecca. However, Mariam (45 years old) acknowledges "I do not have a fixed schedule to come and visit the zawya, I consider it as my second home; I come whenever I feel that I have to. I am here now, and after a month or less you will find me here again".

Natasha (39 years old) illustrates that "Ramadan requires us to be home with our families, that is why I prefer to come in Sha'ban", Fatim (42 years old) agrees with Natasha's answer, and states that "I am a mother, I have many duties towards

my family so I cannot come here in Ramadan when my presence as a mother is necessary". Besides, Khadija (30 years old) said "it is my second visit to Sidi Ahmed Tijani, the first time I came was last year in Sha'ban too, I like the atmosphere here and I am planning to come more often Insha'Allah" while Aisha (34 years old) states "I think it is the right time to come to Sidi Ahmed Tijani. First, because to be ready spiritually for Ramadan. Second, to meet my sisters in Islam since most of them come in this month too".

The following question was about the rituals and practices that the Tijani pilgrims do in Sidi Ahmed Tijani. Most respondents replied that they pray, remember God through '*Dhiker*', and ask for His forgiveness, sometimes together and sometimes individually. They also recite Quran, sing religious hymns mostly in group and visit the tomb of Sidi Ahmed Tijani.

One of the respondents' answers was to rectify a terminology controversy. In other words, Khadija claims "by the way 'rituals' is not the right term, we do not have rituals, we worship. You may say this word when you are addressing many other memberships but not Tijaniyya. What we do in the zawya is exactly what we do in our homes, and it is exactly what everybody who claims to be Muslim has to do. Many people believe that Tijaniyya has some practices that are against Islamic religion but they are wrong. They do not know about our brotherhood, they should learn about it then judge it". According to her intonation while speaking, it seemed that she was defending her point of view and her identity.

Among the questions I have raised was: Who is Sidi Ahmed Tijani for you? The participants' answers to this question were almost the same; all of them have a deep respect towards this saint, but each of them expresses that respect in a particular way that does differ from one to another. According to Khadija, Sidi Ahmed Tijani is a guide to Tijani members. He has more knowledge and wisdom than they have. As his saying: "if you want to follow me, you should follow the Sharia", that is, Tariqa Tijaniyya is only based on Quran and Sunnah. Similarly, Aisha's respond was "Sidi Ahmed Tijani is our father; he is the second and the spiritual father of all Tijani members". Mouhammado, on the other hand, certifies that "He is a lay person like you and me but he is versed in Sharia and Islam. In addition, Hassan argued that Sidi Ahmed Tijani is not a prophet as many people claim; rather, he is the master of Tijani members that guides them and provides them with the right way of worshipping. While the answer of Natasha was that "we, as members of Tariqa Tijaniyya, consider Sidi Ahmed Tijani as an idol that guides us towards the straight path. Many people who do not belong to this brotherhood claim that our visit to Sidi Ahmed Tijani is to ask him for his benediction instead of asking our God. This is totally wrong; we love, we respect Sidi Ahmed Tijani because of his wisdom and knowledge but we do not worship anyone but Allah".

The following question was: What does attract you when you come to Fez in general and to zawya of Sidi Ahmed Tijani in particular? The answers to this question seem to be identical among the participants. They have agreed that it is not a matter of attraction; rather it is about the faith. Mariam said that "it is the faith that makes me come here frequently". Khadija also kept repeating "c'est la foi, c'est la foi" meaning it is the 'faith'. Even the interview was conducted in English; she said so in French to stress her faith in Islam and Zawiyya.

The most important point in this study is to scrutinize whether the participant experience a sort of cathartic feeling during and after their visit to Sidi Ahmed Tijani. For this purpose, the last question I raised was: How do you feel during and after your visit? Do you feel yourself released when you come to the zawya?

Ibrahim said "absolutely yes", and then he added "here is the place that I love the most, I love our Sheikh Sidi Ahmed Tijani and I am thrilled to be in here". Aisha supports Ibrahim's idea, "it is such a peaceful place, where one feels released from daily stains". Moreover, Khadija responded while smiling "I feel so happy and pleased to be here. In fact, it is the best place to get rid of stress we live in our homelands". Also, Mouhamadou said something very interesting; that is, there is always a big difference of him before he came to visit the zawya and after his visit, he emphasized that his soul becomes pure and clean. In addition, Fatim's answer was confirming that she feels better when she is in zawiya. She said that "it is the case of all believers from any part of the world; the more you are closer to your God, the more released and content you become. This is what happens to me when I am here; I come to have that feeling". Thus, all the participants of the interview do confirm that the reason behind their visit is to release, purify their souls, and to feel content of themselves.

Sufism, as explained by the Sufi pilgrims, is a spiritual journey to discovering one's inner self which leads to knowing God. In other words, Sufism allows for the expression of spirituality; it is also a process that makes one learn how to follow the very deep path inside one's self. While visiting Zawiyya Tijaniyya, these Sufi pilgrims' goal is to get closer to God in order to embrace his presence in their daily life.

Discussion

Based on the findings of this research, Tijani members frequently visit the zawya of Sidi Ahmed Tijani for religious and spiritual catharsis; they come in order to free their minds from anything and focus on worshipping God. They also come to visit the tomb of Sidi Ahmed Tijani, who is considered as a spiritual father, guide, and teacher. According to the Tijani Sufi pilgrims interviewed, they believe that Sidi Ahmed Tijani is the one who preached Islam in Africa the reason why he is widely visited by Africans. The pilgrims' visit to Sidi Ahmed Tijani shrine epitomizes their pride and honor to pertain to this Sufi order. Besides, some of the interviewees consider the zawya as the first path while they are directing Mecca for al-Omra. These data answered the first research question – Does religious tourism exist in Morocco? - The answer is yes, it does. Moreover, these data confirmed the validity of the first research hypothesis that tells: Religious tourists come to Morocco for religious and spiritual experiences. Tijani members pray, remember God, read verses of the Quran, and recite religious hymns. Also, they visit Sidi Ahmed Tijani's tomb. Moreover, some of them attend lectures and conferences when they occur. All these practices are parts of a spiritual and religious process.

Concerning the second research question: When and why do Tijani members come to Fez? According to what has been mentioned in the review of literature about Tijani-Sufi order and the correspondents' answers, the zawya is always opened to everybody so they can come whenever they want to. However, the majority of the foreign Tijani members prefer to come in occasions, such as Sha'ban¹ and the prophet's birthday commemoration (Miloud).

The second research hypothesis claims that Sufis use incentives and marketing to attract more tourists. This hypothesis seems to be weak while talking about Tariqa Tijaniyya because, according to the interviewees' responses, their visits have nothing to do with attraction rather it is an act to express their faith to their religion and to celebrate their sense of belonging to Tijani brotherhood. In addition, their visits are to satisfy their emotional and spiritual needs, such as to release, and to purify their soul. This emotional satisfaction and purgation is the so called "catharsis experience".

I opt for catharsis theory because it is of great help to account for, to describe and to explain the audience's emotional change during and after watching dramatic scenes especially tragic ones. However, the correspondents' answers show that this catharsis process is also experienced and applied by Tijani members during and after their visit to zawiya Tijaniyya

The third hypothesis in this research states that Tijani members practice some special rituals to the Tijaniyya brotherhood when they come to Fez. Indeed, they have few special practices such as 'wird', 'al- wadzifa', and 'Haylala', coral religious hymns recitation, distributing milk and other meals occasionally as a way to commemorate the birth of the prophet. Nonetheless, there are some other practices that are common among all Muslims, such as praying and reading. Even though, they refused to refer to these practices as rituals because according to a Belgium tourist, the term "ritual" is very offensive to their brotherhood, but it is rather a 'practice'.

Sufism in Morocco, mainly Tijaniyya brotherhood, is a way to purifying the pilgrims' heart from bad manners. It aims at 1/ seeking the pleasure, 2/ love and peace with one's self, and 3/ harmony with all creations (mankind, animals and nature). Religious tourists and/or pilgrims come to Morocco to live and experience the process of purification and an inner trip through a variety of practices, such as visiting Zawiyas and shrines, reciting and singing religious hymns. Thus, Sufi tourism in Morocco has become a desirable destination par excellence to many tourists from different corners of the globe.

Conclusion

This study has attempted to explore the relationship between Sufism and religious tourism in Morocco. It aims to find out whether the religious tourism exists in Morocco. It also seeks to discover when and why Tijani members come to zawiya Sidi Ahmed Tijani and what they do during their visit. From the discussion above, it is clear that religious tourism is a kind of tourism that refers to the act of leaving one's homeland to accomplish religious tasks such as pilgrimage especially in Mecca, spreading religion that is referred to as 'da'wa' (proselytizing) in Islam; this kind of traveling is well known in Pakistan

¹ It is the month before Ramadan which is one of the sacred months in the Muslim calendar where Muslims fast for the whole month from dawn to dusk.

and the surrounding countries. Also attending lectures and conferences about religion overseas are deemed types of religious tourism.

According to data description and analysis, many people who belong to Tijani-Sufi order come from different countries to Morocco in order to visit Sidi Ahmed Tijani's tomb and to perform other religious practices. This is a tangible proof that Sufism is a form of religious tourism in Morocco more precisely in Fez. Furthermore, when Tijani Sufi tourists come to Fez, stay in the zawiya, meet other members, visit Sidi Ahmed Tijani's tomb, read Quran, and pray, they are in fact experiencing a cathartic process that enables them to feel released, content and emotionally satisfied. Religious tourism is one of the most flourishing aspects of tourism that has been well-taken care of in Morocco. Hence, the country has diversified the forms of tourism to meet the different needs and wants of the tourists. Importantly, Sufism in Morocco distinguishes it from other countries because it is the most desired destination for tourists who seek spiritual purgation and tranquility.

References

- Abeddour, Y. (2011). *Sufi Tourism in Morocco: The Impact of Sufism on Tourism*. Morocco World News. <http://www.morocoworldnews.com/2011/08/7467/sufi-tourism-in-morocco-the-impact-of-sufism-on-tourism>. Retrieved on June 20th, 2016
- Aristotle. (2001). *The Basic Works of Aristotle*. McKeon, R. (Ed). New York: Modern Library. In Powell, E. (2007). *Catharsis in Psychology and Beyond: A Historical Overview: The primal psychotherapy*.
- Bouasria, A. (2015). *Sufism and Politics in Morocco: Activism and Dissent*. New York: Routledge.
- Clark, N. (1991). "Developments in Human Geography: niches for a Christian contribution", *Area* 23(4): 339-345
- Cohen, E. (1992). 'Pilgrimage & Tourism: Convergence & Divergence'. In Morinis, A. (1992). *Sacred Journeys: The Anthropology of Pilgrimage*. West Port: green Wood Press
- Crapanzano, V. (1973). *The Hamadsha: A Study in Moroccan Ethno psychiatry*: University of California Press, Berkeley, Los Angeles, and London. In Bouasria, A. (2015) (Eds). *Sufism and Politics in Morocco: Activism and Dissent*. New York: Routledge
- Cresswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publication Inc.
- Eade, J. (1992). *Pilgrimage & Tourism at Lourdes, France*. Paris: Pergamon
- Evans-Pritchard, E. E., & Firth, R. (1949). 179. *Anthropology and Colonial Affairs*. *Man*, 49, 137-138. Cited in Bouasria, A. (2015). *Sufism and Politics in Morocco: Activism and Dissent*. New York: Routledge.
- Fleischer, A. (2000). The tourist behind the pilgrim in the holy land, *Hospitality management* 19: 311-326
- Gilsenan, M. (1973). *Saint and Sufi in modern Egypt: An essay in the sociology of religion*. Oxford: Clarendon Press. Cited in: Bouasria, A. (2015). *Sufism and Politics in Morocco: Activism and Dissent*. New York: Routledge.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). *Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research*. Tronto, Ontario, Canada: University of Tronto.
- Guerraoui, S. (2016). *Sufism in Morocco 'a powerful weapon' against extremism*. Casablanca: The Arab Weekly. <http://www.thearabweekly.com/?id=4504>. Retrieved on June 1st, 2016.
- Jackowski, A & Smith, VL. (1992). "Polish Pilgrim-tourists", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19: 92- 106

Kurmanaliyeva & Rysbekova, Sh & Duissenbayeva, A & Izmailov, I. (2014). *Religouis Tourism as a Sociocultural Phenomenon of the Present "The Unique Sense Today is a Universal Value Tomorrow. This is the way Religions are Created and Values are Made"*: 3rd Cyprus International Conference on Educational Research. Lefkosa: North Cyprus.

<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042814044620>. Retrieved on May 21st, 2016

Kvale, S. (2006). *Dominance through interviews and dialogues*. University of Aarhus, Denmark: Sage Publication.

Ling, M. (1994). *A Sufi Saint of the Twentieth Century: Shaikh Ahmad al-'Alawi: His Spiritual Heritage*. The Islamic Texts Society. In (Eds), Bouasria, A. (2015). *Sufism and Politics in Morocco: Activism and Dissent*. New York: Routledge.

Longhurst, R. (2010). *Semi-Structured Interviews and Focus Groups* (2nd edition). In Clifford, N (Ed). Kings College London, UK: Sage publications.

Mac Cannell, D. (1976). *The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class*. Berkely: University of California Press

Nasr, H. (1970). *The Influence of Sufism on Traditional Persian Music*. Tehran: The Magazine Salash & The Journal Ma'ârif-islami (Islamic Studies). Translated by Chittick, W. (1972).

Olsen, D. H. & Guelke, J. K. (2004). "Spatial transgression and the BYU Jerusalem Center Controversy", *Professional Geography* 56(4): 503-515

Olsen, D. H. & Timothy, D. J. (2006). *Tourism, Religion and Spiritual Journeys*. New York: Routledge

Powell, E. (2007). *Catharsis in Psychology and Beyond: A Historical Overview: The primal psychotherapy*. <http://primal-page.com/cathar.htm>. Retrieved on May 16th, 2016.

Russell, A. (1999). "Religious travel in the New Millennium", *Travel & Tourism Analyst* 5: 39-68

Saladin, A. (2008). *What is Sufism?* Canada: Brock University: Forum Philosophicum.

Scheff, T.J. (2001). *Catharsis in Healing, Ritual, and Drama*. Berkeley, Los Angeles: University of California Press.

Shackley, M. (2001). *Managing Sacred Sites: Service Provision and visitor Experience*. London: Continuum

Skiredj, A. B. Ab (2001). *The Guide of the Tijani Disciple*. Rabat: Imprimerie Yadip.

---- (2011). "*Nourou As- Siraj*" *La lumière de la lampe (Guide pratique du Moqadem Tidjani)*. Rabat: Imprimerie Yadip.

Smith, V.L. (1992). ' Introduction: The Quest in Guest'. *Annals of Tourism research* 19(1): 1-17

Timothy, D. & Boyd, S. (2003). *Heritage Tourism*. New York: Pearson Education.

Trimingham, J. S. (1971). *The Sufi Orders in Islam*. New York: Oxford University. In Eds, Bouasria, A. (2015). *Sufism and Politics in Morocco: Activism and Dissent*. New York: Routledge.

The Early Retirement Age Increment in Case of Republic of Srpska Pension Fund

Nikolina Bošnjak

Ph.D candidate at Faculty of Economics,
University of Rome "La Sapienza", Italy,

Zvezdana Bošnjak

Faculty of Economics, Univeristy of Belgrade, Serbia,

Abstract

The worldwide trends of increased life expectancy and decreasing fertility are considered to be the main driving forces of pension funds sustainability crisis. Different countries are facing its pension fund's financing problems on different ways, but in general there is evident trend of retirement age rising, especially among developed countries. The Republic of Srpska is currently having one of the lowest pensionable age limits in Europe. At the same time its pension fund is for years operating with significant negative financial result. In this paper we will estimate and analyse the effects of retirement age limit rising in Republic of Srpska in order to observe will the rising of early retirement age on 62 years old bring only short-term or long-term results.

Keywords: Pension sustainability, Retirement age, Parametric reforms effects

Introduction

The pension funds worldwide are facing sustainability problems. The main driving trends of pension crisis are considered to be increasing life expectancy, declining fertility and earlier retirement (Barr & Diamond, 2009). The countries have for decades led debates about adequate reform measures that could ensure the financial sustainability of pension system and at the same time not threaten the living standard of elder people. The pension reforms that have been launched by many countries in last few years usually include introduction of savings in pension systems, the changes in the way the pension entitlements are calculated and, inevitably, the increment of retirement age (OECD, 2013). The trend of retirement age rising is still seen as an effective solution for growing pension funds' unsustainability. Therefore the German Central Bank recently proposed the rise of retirement age from 67 to 69 years old, while there are similar tendencies in UK. The problem with adaptation of these proposals is the political willingness. The elder people make the majority of electoral in ageing societies and the most of the developed countries already have got across and become the gerontocracies (D'Amato & Galasso, 2002).

In the Republic of Srpska, by current Law, the retirement is allowed with 57 years old for males and 55 for females and it will gradually increase on 60/58 years old until 2025 (The Law on Pension and Disability Insurance in Republic of Srpska 2011). This way the Republic of Srpska is one of the countries with the lowest retirement age in Europe, while at the same time its pension fund faces growing discordance between contributions and net pension costs. The Republic of Srpska is for a long period of time having a problem with high unemployment which was around 25,2% in 2015¹ (Republic of Srpska Institute of Statistics, 2015). All this inspired us to analyze effect retirement age increment on pension fund sustainability, in order to be able to give adequate suggestion to policy planers in Republic of Srpska.

¹ According to 2016 labor force survey.

The effects of retirement age increment will be estimated using the classical actuarial projection model previously adapted to Republic of Srpska Pension and Disability Insurance Fund (hereinafter Fund PIO RS). In this paper we will state the basic concepts and limitations of actuarial projection model for Fund PIO, while the main accent will be on the calculation of retirement age increment effects and their comparison with the earlier obtained projections with current retirement age assumption.

1. Pension and Disability Insurance Fund of Republic of Srpska

The Republic of Srpska is highly autonomous entity of Bosnia and Herzegovina. It has its Constitutions, Laws, Government, Institutions and it conducts its independent economic and social policy. The Fund PIO conducts the pension policy of Republic of Srpska, and according to Laws of Republic of Srpska (The Law on Pension and Disability Insurance in Republic of Srpska 2011) it is organized as public pay as you go pension scheme. The scheme is based on the principles of mutuality and solidarity, while participation is mandatory for all employees, self-employed and registered farmers on the territory of Republic of Srpska.

The revenues of Pension Fund are coming from wage contributions, voluntary insurance contributions, other Fund's activities and budget transfers. Current contribution rate in Republic of Srpska is 18.5% on gross wage (The Law on contributions in Republic of Srpska, 2012) and contributions are main source of Pension Fund incomes, while significant budget transfers are covering war veteran pension benefits that are not acquired on the basis of contribution payment and insurance service.

The Pension Fund of Republic of Srpska provides its participants the right on pension benefit in case of old age, disability and in case of pensioner death, pension benefit is assigned to its dependent family members. There are two conditions that insured must satisfy in order to be eligible for an old age pension benefit. Those conditions are the age of insured and pension (insurance) service.

The insurer is qualified for an old age pension when:

- she is 65 years old and has 15 years of insurance service
- she is 60 years old and has 40 years of pension service (for males)
- 58 years old and has 35 years of insurance service (for females).

These norms are still not used, because of transition period until 2025 that was designed for passage to these rules together with the creation of Pension and Disability Law from 2011. These transitive norms are given in Table 1 that follows.

Table 1 - Conditions for old age pension according to 2011 Pension and Disability Law in Republic of Srpska (transition period)

Year	Art. 41 and 177 (transition period)			Art. 42/1 and 178/1 (transition period)		Art. 42/2 and 178/2 (transition period)	
	Age in years and months		Years of insurance service	Age in years and months		Age in years and months	
	Sex			sex	Years of pension service	sex	Years of insurance service
	male	Female		male		female	
2012	65	60/4	15	-	40	-	35
2013	65	61	15	56	40	54	35
2014	65	61/8	15	56/4	40	54/4	35
2015	65	62/4	15	56/8	40	54/8	35
2016	65	63	15	57	40	55	35
2017	65	63/8	15	57/4	40	55/4	35
2018	65	64/4	15	57/8	40	55/8	35
2019	65	65	15	58	40	56	35
2020	-	-	-	58/4	40	56/4	35
2021	-	-	-	58/8	40	56/8	35
2022	-	-	-	59	40	57	35
2023	-	-	-	59/4	40	57/4	35

2024	-	-	-	59/8	40	57/8	35
2025	-			60	40	58	35

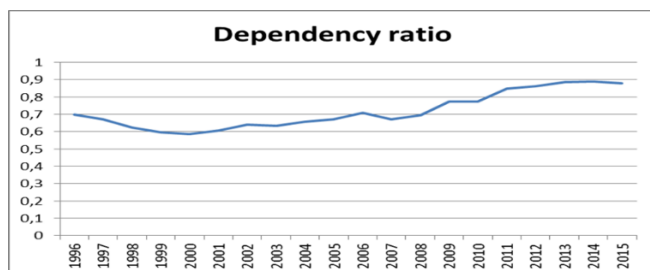
(Source: The Law on Pension and Disability Insurance in Republic of Srpska 2011)

The pension benefit amount depends on the level of wage earned during working period and on length of contribution period. Since 2011 Law on Pension and Disability Insurance the old age pension benefit amount is calculated using point method, where pension benefit amount is obtained when personal insured person’s points are multiplied with value of general point valid at that moment (The Law on Pension and Disability Insurance in Republic of Srpska 2011).

1.1. The sustainability projections

The current Law on Pension and Disability Insurance passed in 2011 as a result of the Government Working group for Pension Reform in 2010 analysis of different pension reform possibilities (The Working Group for Pension System Reform, 2010). In this document, the long term projections of sustainability of Fund PIO were made for the first time. The Projections of dependency ratio and net financial result were not optimistic, so the increment of retirement age and the change of pension benefit entitlement rules were suggested as a reform steps. After the imposition of new, 2011, Law the Government did not carried out the long term analysis of Fund PIO sustainability, while dependency ratio continued to worsen (Figure 1)

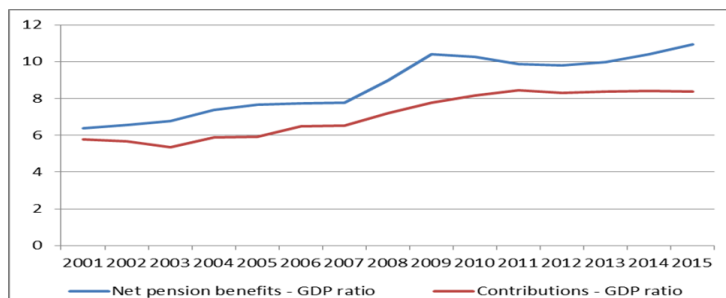
Figure 1 – Dependency ratio for Fund PIO RS from (1996 – 2015)



(Source: Authors)

The growing number of pensioners in respect to employees who support their pensions brings unsustainability to Pay-as You-go pension system. As a result of this, the Fund PIO is having growing negative net financial result which is presented as a gap between net pension benefit costs and contributions on Figure 2.

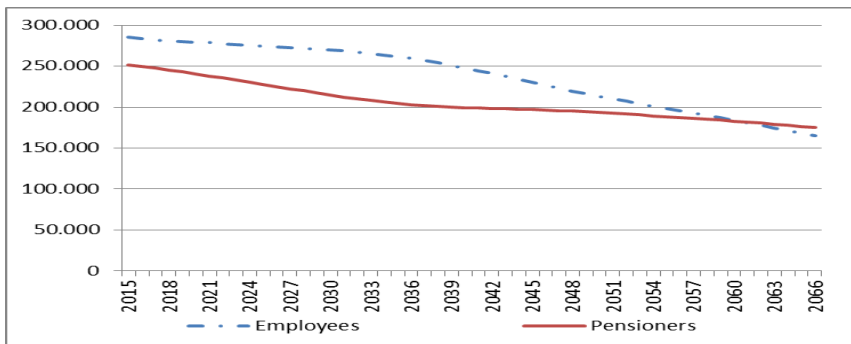
Figure 2 - Net pension benefits and contribution revenues as share of GDP, 2001-2015



(Source: Authors' calculation and official data sources¹)

As far as it is known to the authors, the first projections of Fund PIO sustainability and the first actuarial model adopted for Fund PIO of Republic of Srpska were developed in 2016 (Bosnjak, 2016). This actuarial projection model is the classical actuarial open group model, adapted to scarce cross-section data on registered employees and pensioners in Fund PIO RS. In original article, the base year for projections was 2014, while dataset contained the cross-sectional information on age, sex, value of salary or pension, date of employment or retirement and type of contract for all employees and pensioners from end of December 2014. Further, due to nonexistence of mortality tables for republic of Srpska, as in original article we used the mortality tables of Republic of Serbia (Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia, 2014), while the model assumes that the whole population of Republic of Srpska will develop according to official projections made for the purpose of 2010 Strategy of pension reform, which assume that fertility rate in Republic of Srpska in projected period will decrease from 1,3 to 1. Using the same methodology presented in article we had repeated the calculations with the updated dataset from end of December 2015, thus using the 2015 as base year for projections. These updated projections are presented on Figure 3.

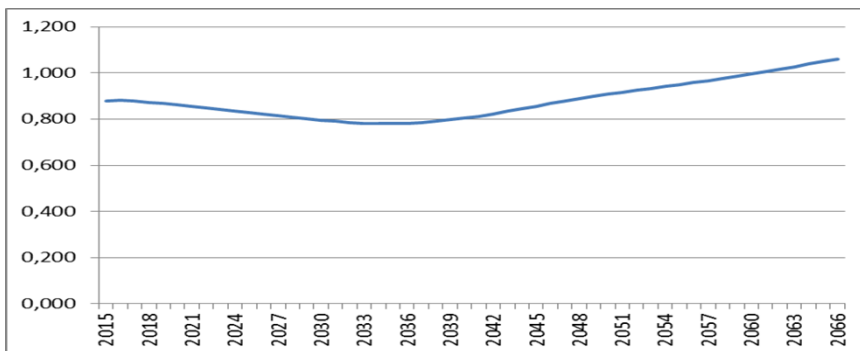
Figure 3 – Projected number of employees and pensioners in Fund PIO RS (2015-2066)



(Source: Authors)

As we can see from the Figure 3, the gap between number of employees and number of pension benefit users will gradually decrease leading to unsustainability growth which is visible through dependency ratio projections on Figure 4.

Figure 4 – Dependency ratio projections (2015-2066)



¹ (The Audit's Reports of The Pension and Disability Insurance Fund of Republic of Srpska), (The Pension and Disability Insurance Fund of Republic of Srpska), (Central Bank of Bosnia and Herzegovina database)

(Source: Authors)

As we can see the projections indicate that the sustainability will worsen in future. There is ongoing debate about reform steps that could improve the future expectations and ensure the long-term sustainability of Fund PIO. In following part, we will present and analyze two frequently addressed suggestions.

2. Pension reform suggestions

Generally, there are multiple measures and their combinations that have been proposed as pension crisis solutions by different researchers and policy planners for different situations. The scientists agree that there is no unique and the best solution for pension system design given that there are multiple objectives that one pension system has to meet. Barr and Diamond (Barr & Diamond, 2009) state that those objectives are consumption smoothing, insurance, income redistribution, poverty prevention, fairness, neutrality, sustainability, etc. Many of these objectives cannot be fulfilled at the same time, so society and pension planners have to make choice on which fundamentals will they build their pension system.

The same choices must be made when we speak about pension system reform. The society has to decide on which objectives does it want to focus on and to undertake reform steps into that direction. The newest steps in pension system reform of developed countries are exposed in OECD pensions at a Glance overview of pension systems (OECD, 2013), where it is stated that in last few years almost all countries have undertaken some reform steps. Most commonly those were parametric reforms like retirement age increase, inclusion of new population cohorts into pension insurance scheme (like agriculture workers, self-employed, housewives...) or change of pension benefits value calculation methodology.

2.1. The retirement age rising

Given that we are operating with actuarial projection model which is adapted only for calculation of future number of employees and pension benefit users and on the basis of previous discussion regarding the pensionable age development trends, we can come out with simple suggestion for parametric reform that is imposing itself. We simply suggest the lifting of age limit for old age pension retirement from 60 years for males and 58 for females to 62 years old for both sexes and 40 years of pension insurance service or 65 years old and 15 years of pension insurance service. This would prolong the period of contributions accumulation and thus improve the life standard of pensioners.

Although highly unpopular, this measure is necessary in order to stabilize the pension fund's financing gap and provide the higher pensions. Other, wealthier and more developed European countries have increased the pensionable age even above 62/65 years old and many of them are to gradually set retirement age to 67-70 years old in next decade. The opponents of this reform measure often claim that the higher retirement age is preventing the employment of young people, since the work places are being "occupied" by older, nonproductive workers for longer periods. Nevertheless, many researchers have been studying this problem and they claim that the common belief that early retirement will set free the work places for younger workers and reduce the youth unemployment is not consistent with empirical evidence.

Peter Diamond (Diamond P. , 2006) in his study found that the evidence over many decades' shows that early retirement does not reduces unemployment. The same results are presented for youth unemployment in Gruber and Wise conference report (Gruber & Wise, 2010), which is the collection of researches for set of developed countries on the effects of early retirement policies on youth employment. These and many other researches support the idea that the size of economy and number of work places is not fixed, but that it grows and develops. Also there are findings that the higher number of older workers in economy is connected with job creation, due to older workers experience and increment of labor force supply (Diamond P. , 2006).

In order to analyze the effects of retirement age increment on employees and pensioners expected numerosity, we will have to modify the relevant retirement probabilities which will be directly influenced by retirement age change. Therewith, we will also have to modify and recalculate the probabilities of old age retirement, disability retirement and family pension retirement due to our proposal that early retirement should be raised on 62 years old for both sexes. This reform suggestion will influence the future number of pension benefit users and employees, too.

2.2. The projections under new retirement age

In this section, we will apply the proposed increment of early retirement age on our projection model in order to observe its effects and their dynamics. As we mentioned it is necessary to modify the old age retirement probabilities in accordance with the parametric reform we suggested. The calculation methodology of new retirement probabilities and their value are explained here, while the calculation methodology of pension benefit users' numerosity projections and employees remains the same. Here we present the influence of retirement age of 62 years old on dependency ratio and financing gap of Fund PIO of Republic of Srpska.

The most important change in calculation of projected number of pension benefit users according to new early retirement age of 62, we had suggested, is to estimate new old age retirement probabilities. We calculated those probabilities as ratios between adjusted average number of retired persons in last three years and registered insured persons in 2015 for each age and sex group separately. The data we use is the same data we used for dependency ratio projections, while the methodology is the same as in Bosnjak paper (Bosnjak, 2016), apart from the adjustment of average number of newly retired to the change in retirement age we suggest. This adjustment is done on such way that number of people retired in age from 55 to 61 was reduced on 5% of total average number of retired males for males and 1% of average number of retired females for females. We have chosen to leave the possibility of earlier retirement for certain number of persons because there are some groups of protected professions, who are allowed to retire earlier as miners, physical workers, etc. The percentages of workers who we "allowed" to retire earlier than 62 is taken from official employment by industry sectors 2015 data, and they represent the percentage of employed in mining sector in total number of employed persons in Republic of Srpska (Republic of Srpska Institute of Statistics, 2016). The Table 2 gives us overview of used data and obtained modified probabilities of old age employment.

Table 2 – The modified probabilities of old age retirement calculation

Age at retirement	Adjusted average number of newly retired		Distribution of insured persons in base year (2015)		Modified probabilities of old age retirement	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
45	0	0	3450	2606	0	0
46	0	0	3667	2625	0	0
47	0	0,333333	3536	2692	0	0,000124
48	0,333333	0,333333	3751	2909	8,89E-05	0,000115
49	1	0	3842	3014	0,00026	0
50	9,666667	1	4008	3128	0,002412	0,00032
51	4,333333	0,333333	3731	2931	0,001161	0,000114
52	1,333333	1,666667	3860	3152	0,000345	0,000529
53	1,666667	8,333333	4015	3201	0,000415	0,002603
54	7,666667	85,66667	3901	3146	0,001965	0,02723
55	24	1	3953	3194	0,006071	0,000313
56	25,6	2	3813	2869	0,006714	0,000697
57	25,6	3	3648	2599	0,007018	0,001154
58	25,6	4	2938	2112	0,008713	0,001894
59	56,2	5	2862	1891	0,019637	0,002644
60	56,2	6	2407	1579	0,023349	0,0038
61	56,2	7	2058	1389	0,027308	0,00504
62	238,3333	335,3333	1615	975	0,147575	0,343932
63	200,6667	161	1270	788	0,158005	0,204315
64	215	135,6667	956	495	0,224895	0,274074
65	2495,333	373,6667	787	393	0,950806	0,950806
66	109	24,66667	307	96	0,355049	0,256944
67	56,33333	15,66667	165	41	0,341414	0,382114
68	37,33333	8,333333	129	25	0,289406	0,333333

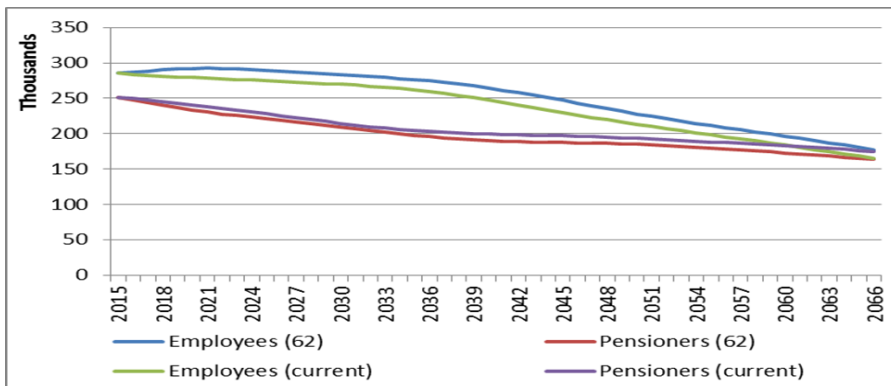
69	18,33333	8,666667	76	15	0,241228	0,577778
70	20,33333	5,333333	40	14	0,508333	0,380952
71	12	6	25	12	0,48	0,5
72	10,33333	5,333333	20	8	0,516667	0,666667
73	7,666667	0,333333	17	3	1	1

(Source: Authors)

As we already said, the projections calculation methodology remains the same. The only change is the modification of old age retirement probabilities according to new early retirement rule. Here, in Table 44 we give the results of our modified projections of total number of employees and pensioners for each pension benefit type.

The Figure 5 gives us the overview of projections of employees and pension benefit users both, with current early retirement age and the one we suggested of 62 years old. The detailed values of projected numbers are given in Table 3, while this graphical representation enables us to compare the effect of introduction of early retirement age of 62 with current early retirement age.

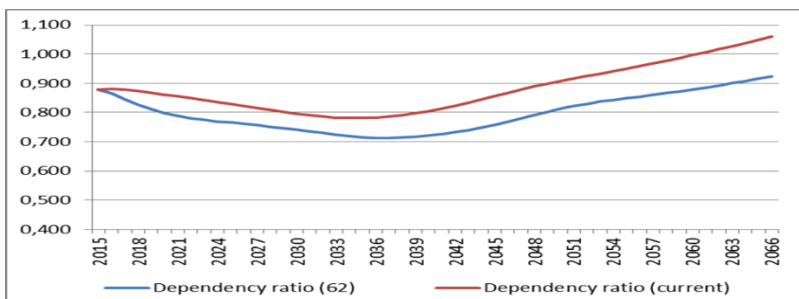
Figure 5 - The employees and pension benefit users' projections with current and 62 early retirement age



(Source: Authors)

In order to observe the effect of introduction of early retirement age of 62 on pension fund's sustainability, we should also observe new dependency ratio movement. Figure 6 gives us both, the "old" dependency ratio projections and "new" – with early retirement age of 62, dependency ratio projections.

Figure 6 - The dependency ratio projections with current and 62 years old retirement age



(Source: Authors)

From those figures we can conclude that raising early retirement age on 62 year old both, for males and females would have instantaneous positive effect on pension fund's sustainability. This positive effect is present during the whole projections period and it is transmitted through the growth of employees' number and decrease of pensions benefit users number in future. This number of employees rise and the number of pension benefit users shrink is the best visible on Figure 5. The combination of these two effects results with substantial dependency ratio stabilization, which is represented on Figure 6.

Table 3 – The projections of employees and pensioners number with early retirement age of 62 years old

Year	Employees			Pension benefit users				Dependency ratio
	Males	Females	All	Old Age	Disability	Family	All	
2015	164012	121634	285646	133408	36583	81195	251186	0,879
2016	163502	123417	286919	130513	36124	81224	247861	0,864
2017	163407	125138	288545	127470	35698	80831	244000	0,846
2018	163406	126675	290081	124407	35285	80208	239899	0,827
2019	163287	128107	291394	121775	34924	79607	236307	0,811
2020	162923	129225	292148	119476	34574	79059	233109	0,798
2021	162416	130028	292444	117565	34254	78489	230308	0,788
2022	161644	130517	292161	115881	33921	77988	227790	0,780
2023	160794	130717	291511	114482	33600	77592	225675	0,774
2024	159767	130716	290482	113152	33276	77101	223529	0,770
2025	158713	130558	289272	111801	32950	76632	221384	0,765
2026	157647	130308	287954	110233	32625	76224	219082	0,761
2027	156627	130127	286754	108674	32310	75832	216817	0,756
2028	155588	129881	285469	107000	32005	75496	214501	0,751
2029	154540	129645	284185	105190	31689	75210	212089	0,746
2030	153529	129438	282967	103393	31390	74886	209669	0,741
2031	152461	129214	281675	101480	31104	74595	207179	0,736
2032	151422	129033	280456	99538	30835	74269	204642	0,730
2033	150351	128858	279210	97628	30574	73942	202144	0,724
2034	149267	128646	277912	95929	30336	73589	199854	0,719
2035	148011	128317	276328	94358	30085	73211	197654	0,715
2036	146689	127876	274565	93130	29837	72784	195751	0,713
2037	145185	127253	272438	92209	29588	72331	194128	0,713
2038	143589	126408	269997	91557	29350	71840	192747	0,714
2039	141863	125402	267265	91079	29108	71310	191497	0,717
2040	140063	124277	264339	90857	28865	70735	190457	0,721
2041	138177	123010	261187	90828	28630	70118	189576	0,726
2042	136235	121625	257860	90942	28397	69471	188810	0,732
2043	134286	120136	254422	91193	28165	68799	188157	0,740
2044	132283	118589	250872	91584	27928	68109	187621	0,748
2045	130258	116930	247188	92189	27685	67413	187287	0,758
2046	128168	115114	243283	92820	27434	66717	186970	0,769
2047	126057	113293	239350	93432	27173	66027	186632	0,780
2048	123958	111474	235432	94024	26907	65350	186281	0,791
2049	121914	109633	231546	94452	26640	64692	185783	0,802
2050	119955	107873	227828	94705	26379	64057	185141	0,813
2051	118076	106188	224264	94740	26118	63450	184307	0,822
2052	116298	104573	220871	94556	25860	62873	183289	0,830

2053	114595	103076	217671	94241	25611	62334	182186	0,837
2054	112932	101616	214548	93703	25363	61830	180895	0,843
2055	111342	100231	211573	93071	25113	61361	179546	0,849
2056	109777	98867	208645	92462	24868	60930	178260	0,854
2057	108192	97429	205621	91726	24617	60533	176876	0,860
2058	106618	96021	202640	90958	24356	60169	175484	0,866
2059	105044	94578	199622	90226	24099	59835	174161	0,872
2060	103422	93071	196493	89370	23837	59526	172734	0,879
2061	101797	91586	193383	88471	23564	59238	171272	0,886
2062	100137	90078	190215	87582	23281	58964	169827	0,893
2063	98432	88534	186966	86667	22992	58700	168359	0,900
2064	96705	86980	183685	85703	22699	58439	166841	0,908
2065	94978	85426	180404	84698	22401	58176	165275	0,916
2066	93246	83867	177113	83661	22100	57903	163665	0,924

(Source: Authors)

At this point, it is important to mention that the methodology we suggested for adaptation of Bosnjak (Bosnjak, 2016) actuarial model for Fund PIO RS projections to retirement age of 62 relies on quite simple assumption. The only modification we have taken into consideration is the modification of old age retirement probability, where we have taken the retirement age of 62 in consideration. In reality, it is quite probable to expect that the certain number of persons will switch to disability retirement since being unable to retire earlier with old age pension benefit. Therefore, it is realistic to assume that the positive effect of retirement age growth will be smoothed due to disability retirement growth.

This incorporation of potential disability retirement growth as a reaction on retirement age rise is a guideline for further research on this topic.

Conclusion

The pension funds worldwide are facing sustainability problems due to increased life expectancy, low fertility and early retirement age. The different societies have approached these problems from different sides, but in most of developed countries the first step was a retirement age increment.

The Republic of Srpska is currently having one of the lowest retirement age boundaries in European countries. The females are allowed to retire if 55 years old and males if 57 years old and having 35/40 years of pension insurance service, respectively. Our suggestion for pension reform in this paper was simple increment of pensionable age on 62 years old for both sexes. We have tested this suggestion using actuarial projection model previously adapted for Pension and Disability Insurance Fund of Republic of Srpska.

The obtained projections of future number of employees and pension benefit users show us unambiguously that retirement age rising will improve the Fund PIO sustainability by increasing the number of employees and reducing the number of pension benefit users.

Still, these results demand for further research given that we have not taken in consideration the possibility that retirement age increment will modify disability retirement probabilities, too. It is quite probable that certain number of people will still retire before age of 65 using the right on disability retirement.

References

Barr, N., & Diamond, P. (2009). Reforming pensions: principles, analytical errors and policy directions. *International social security review*, pp. 5-29.

Bosnjak, N. (2016). The actuarial projection method for pension fund's dependency ratio in case of Pension and Disability Insurance Fund of Republic of Srpska. *International Statistical Conference in Croatia* (pp. 72-77). Zagreb: Croatian Statistical Association.

Central Bank of Bosnia and Herzegovina database. (n.d.). Retrieved September 1, 2015, from http://statistics.cbbh.ba:4444/Panorama/novaview/SimpleLogin_en.aspx

D'Amato, M., & Galasso, V. (2002, Dicembre). Assessing the political sustainability of parametric social security reforms: The case of Italy. *Giornale degli Economisti e Annali di Economia*, pp. 171-213.

Institute of Statistics of Republic of Srpska. (n.d.). *Institute of Statistics Republic of Srpska*. Retrieved from <http://www.rzs.rs.ba/>

OECD. (2013). *Pensions at a Glance 2013: OECD and G20 Indicators*. OECD Publishing.

Republic of Srpska Institute of Statistics. (2015). *Statistical yearbook of Republika Srpska*. Banja Luka.

Republic of Srpska Institute of Statistics. (2016). *Wages, Employment and Unemployment, Statistical Bulletin Vo. 8*. Banja Luka: Republic of Srpska Institute of Statistics.

Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia. (2014). *Complete Life Tables for the Republic of Serbia 2010-2012*. Belgrade, Republic of Serbia: Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia.

The Audit's Reports of The Pension and Disability Insurance Fund of Republic of Srpska. (n.d.). Retrieved from The Supreme office for the Republic of Srpska Public Sector Auditing: <http://www.gsr-rs.org/>

The Law on contributions in Republic of Srpska. (2012). Republic of Srpska: The Official Gazette of Republic of Srpska 116/12.

The Law on Pension and Disability Insurance in Republic of Srpska 2011. (n.d.). Republic of Srpska: The Official Gazette of Republic of Srpska 134/11.

The Pension and Disability Insurance Fund of Republic of Srpska. (n.d.). Retrieved 2015, from <http://www.fondpiors.org>

The Working Group for Pension System Reform. (2010). *The Proposal of the Strategy for Pension System Reform in Republic of Srpska*. Banja Luka, Republic of Srpska: The Government of Republic of Srpska.

The Public Expenditures and Economic Growth: DSGE model for Bosnia and Herzegovina

Nikolina Bošnjak

Ph.D candidate at Faculty of Economics,

University of Rome "La Sapienza", Italy

Faculty of Economics,

University of Banja Luka, Bosnia and Herzegovina

Abstract

The DSGE (Dynamic Stochastic General Equilibrium) methodology attempts to explain the behavior of aggregate economic phenomena, such as economic growth, business cycle, and the effects of monetary and fiscal policy, using macroeconomic models derived from microeconomic foundations. DSGE models study the economy evolution (dynamics) over time. They take into consideration the fact that economy may be affected with random (stochastic) shocks. Still, they include all markets in the economy and assume that those markets balance out rapidly (general equilibrium). DSGE models have become the main tool of macroeconomic analysis, and until now, a huge number of different DSGE models have been developed. They are used for forecasting, different economic policies analysis and giving policy advices. Due to data scarcity and lack of knowledge, indevelopment and many other reasons, until now there was no application of DSGE models to Bosnia and Herzegovina case. That is why we were motivated to calibrate a small size DSGE model for Bosnia and Herzegovina. In this research we will calibrate a small open economy DSGE model for Bosnia and Herzegovina and use its results to give some advices for economic growth of Bosnia and Herzegovina improvement. The special attention will be given to Public expenditures and TFP influence on Bosnian macroeconomic variables.

Keywords: The Public Expenditures and Economic Growth: DSGE model for Bosnia and Herzegovina

Introduction

Since the J.M. Keynes published "The Means to Prosperity" in 1933 and Great Depression ended, the economists have widely accepted the Keynes theory of public expenditures being the main driving force of economic growth and prosperity during the periods of economic downturn. This Keynes theory was empirically tested by many researchers and on different samples and in different periods. On the one side, numerous empirical studies find the negative relationship between public spending and economic growth. Barro (Barro, 1991) used the sample of 98 countries in period from 1960 to 1985 and showed the significant negative correlation between economic growth and public expenditures. Ghura (Ghura, 1995) obtained the same result on the sample of 33 African countries. The research based on production function, conducted by Ram (Ram, 1986) disclosed that there is negative influence of public expenditures on economic growth in 115 countries. Lee (Lee, 1995) used different model for his research, the model of endogenous growth of open economy and analyzed 89 developed and undeveloped countries. The results he obtained suggested that public expenditures were correlated with economic growth slow down.

On the other side, many authors showed that there is positive relationship between public expenditures and economic growth. Harko (Harko, 2009) found the existence of positive relationship between public expenditures and per capita GDP in 21 Asian countries. Alexiou (Alexiou, 2007) have discovered the positive correlation between public expenditures-GDP ratio and per capita real GDP level in Greek economy.

All these empirical findings provoked us to analyse the Bosnia and Herzegovina case and to find out is there any connection between Public expenditures and Economic Growth in Bosnia and Herzegovina. This topic was already researched

(Bosnjak & Zlatkovic, 2015), using the Structural Vector Error Correction Model. The results were quite interesting and they suggested that the Public Expenditures positive shock will result with short-run decrease of GDP in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

In this research we will go a step further and analyse the same topic, but using different methodology. We will use a small, open economy DSGE model and calibrate it to Bosnia and Herzegovina data in order to observe the impulse response function's results and answer our question.

1. Small open economy DSGE model

The DSGE model we developed and calibrated is a small open economy DSGE model that starts from a basic RBC model developed by Kydland and Prscott (Kydland & Prescott, 1982). This small size model will satisfy the purpose of this research, but we should have in mind that for any further analysis of economic policy of Bosnia and Herzegovina, we should use a DSGE model that would include market frictions as nominal wages and prices rigidity, consumption habit formation, investment adjustment costs, etc.

We will adjust this model to fit small open economy following Gali and Monacelli (Galli & Monacelli, 2005) small open economy model, modeling international output and inflation rate as exogenous shocks to the economy.

1.1. Households optimization problem

In our small open economy model, we assume that representative household that seek to maximize its discounted utility, inhabits the country. Its utility is given with:

$$u = E_t \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t [\ln C_t - \theta N_t] \quad (1)$$

Where household utility is depends on amount of goods consumed in certain period – C_t and hours of leisure – L_t . Leisure, or a free time, are just a fraction of a total available time, and it is perceived as a positive in our utility function. But in order to earn enough money that they can spend on consumption of goods households have to spend one part of their total time in work. This part of time – $N_t = 1 - L_t$ is perceived as negative in their utility function, and represents total hours worked, or employment.

In our utility function there are also parameters - θ , that is elasticity of labor and β , which is discount factor.

Households earn labor income W_t and receive return on stock of their capital invested into firms – $R_t K_t$. On the other side they consume – C_t amount of goods, which they buy at a certain price level - P_t pay real lump-sum taxes T_t and invest in firms – I_t .

Where Permanent Inventory Method of capital accumulation gives investments equation:

$$K_{t+1} = (1 - \delta)K_t + I_t \quad \rightarrow \quad I_t = K_{t+1} - (1 - \delta)K_t \quad (2)$$

When we consider all this, households are maximizing their discounted utility, subject to their budget constraint:

$$W_t N_t + R_t K_t = P_t C_t + T_t + K_{t+1} - (1 - \delta)K_t \quad (3)$$

Our Lagrangian function is:

$$L = E_t \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t [\ln C_t - \theta N_t + \lambda_t (W_t N_t + R_t K_t - T_t - K_{t+1} + (1 - \delta)K_t - P_t C_t)] \quad (4)$$

Time separation of utility function and focus on only two periods enables us to obtain the first order conditions and to derive the Labor supply equation and standard Euler equation:

$$\frac{W_t}{P_t} = \theta C_t \quad \text{where} \quad \frac{W_t}{P_t} \text{ is real wage level} \quad (5)$$

$$\frac{P_{t+1}}{P_t} C_t^{-1} = \beta [R_{t+1} + (1 - \delta)] C_{t+1}^{-1} \quad (6)$$

1.2. Technology and Firms optimization

We assume that production in economy is same for all firms and is given by a standard Cobb-Douglas production function with two production factors – labor and capital. Therefore, production function that we use is given with:

$$Y_t = A_t K_t^\alpha N_t^{1-\alpha} \quad (7)$$

Here A_t is level of technology used in economy and α is output elasticity of capital, or capital's share of output, and stands that $0 < \alpha < 1$. This production function satisfies all standard hypothesis of perfect competition – diminishing returns of production factors and firm's constant returns to scale.

The capital accumulation is given in Equation (2), while we assume that all firms use the same production function and produce differentiated goods but with usage of same technology which is exogenous and follows an stochastic autoregressive process of a first order AR(1), whose log-linearized version is:

$$a_t = \rho_a * a_{t-1} + \epsilon_a \quad (8)$$

Where, $\rho_a < 1$ and $\epsilon_a \sim \text{iid. } N(0, \sigma^2)$

Firms take price level P_t and consumption C_t as given and maximize their profits given production function.

$$\max_{N_t} \{Y_t - W_t N_t - R_t K_t\}, \text{ such that: } Y_t = A_t K_t^\alpha N_t^{1-\alpha} \quad (9)$$

After the formation of Lagrangian expression in respect to production factors – capital and labor, and determination of its First Order Conditions we obtain:

$$w_t = (1 - \alpha) \frac{Y_t}{N_t} \quad \text{and} \quad R_t = \alpha \frac{Y_t}{K_t} \quad (10)$$

1.3. External sector

Since we derive model for small open economy, the external sector is considered to be exogenous. Law of one price equals the domestic price level with foreign price level. The inflation is defined as a rate of change of price levels, and after log-linearization it is given with:

$$\pi_t = p_{t+1} - p_t \quad (11)$$

In our model domestic inflation - π_t is considered to be dependent on a foreign inflation that is exogenous and, thus, modeled according to AR(1) stationary process. After log-linearization, we obtain the following expression for domestic inflation:

$$\pi_t = \rho_\pi * \pi_t + \varphi * y_t + \epsilon_p \quad (12)$$

The log-linearized expressions for Export, which depends on external demand for domestic goods, and Import, which represents the domestic demand for consumption of foreign goods, are:

$$e_t = \varepsilon * \pi_t + y_t^* \quad \text{and} \quad m_t = \mu * p_t + c_t \quad (13)$$

The world output is exogenously determined outside the model and represented as AR(1) process:

$$y_t^* = \rho_{y^*} * y_{t-1}^* + \epsilon_{y^*} \quad (14)$$

1.4. Fiscal authorities

Since monetary authority of Bosnia and Herzegovina – The Central bank of Bosnia and Herzegovina is on currency board regime the absence of active monetary policy is evident. In that case fiscal policy becomes the main economic instrument. In this model tax revenues are proportionate to output, and State through taxes redistributes and consumes one friction of domestic output - τ

$$T_t = \tau Y_t \quad (15)$$

For the meter of simplicity, we consider a balanced budget rule in this model, where Government expenditures are equal to taxes, so our budget constraint is:

$$G_t = T_t = \tau Y_t \quad (16)$$

In addition, we model government expenditures as exogenous, and their log-linearized expression is:

$$g_t = \rho_g * g_{t-1} + \epsilon_g \quad (17)$$

1.5. Market Equilibrium

Condition for clearing of markets is given in following equation:

$$Y_t = C_t + I_t + G_t + (E_t - M_t) \quad (18)$$

Where part of domestic output is sold on the foreign market and part of domestic consumption is settled with the foreign goods. According to this, we can divide expenditure on an open economy output on four terms: Domestic household consumption, Investment, Government consumption and net trade balance, which is a difference between amount of Export and Import.

1.6. The model log-linearization

After the solution of model and log-linearization¹ of these equations, we obtain following expressions, which make our DSGE model:

$$\begin{aligned} y_t &= a_t + \alpha k_t + (1 - \alpha)n_t \\ \vartheta i_t &= y_t - c_t(1 - \vartheta) + \tau(c_t - g_t) + \gamma e_t - \mu m_t \\ k_t &= (1 - \delta)k_{t-1} + \delta i_{t-1} \\ n_t &= y_t - c_t + p_t \\ c_t &= \beta \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta} - \delta\right) (y_{t+1} - k_{t+1}) - \pi_{t+1} - c_t \\ e_t &= \varepsilon \pi_t + y_t^* \\ m_t &= \sigma p_t + c_t \\ \pi_t &= p_{t+1} - p_t \\ \pi_t &= \rho_\pi * \pi_{t-1} + \varphi y_t + \epsilon_p \\ y_t^* &= \rho_{y^*} * y_{t-1}^* + \epsilon_{y^*} \\ a_t &= \rho_a * a_{t-1} + \epsilon_a \\ g_t &= \rho_g * g_{t-1} + \epsilon_g \end{aligned}$$

Where parameter ϑ is given with: $\vartheta = \frac{\alpha\beta}{\frac{1}{\beta} - 1 + \delta}$ and description of variables is following:

¹ For the log-linearization of nonlinear solution of stochastic model we used a two-step method, which is consisted of: 1. Logarithmic approximation of equations in the model and 2. Total differentiation of these equations around the steady state.

c_t – total domestic household consumption

n_t – employment level

p_t – domestic consumer price level

π_t – domestic inflation

y_t – domestic output

e_t – export

m_t – import

g_t – government consumption

i_t – investments

y_t^* – international output

2. DSGE model calibration of Bosnia and Herzegovina

After development of the model and its log-linearization we will calibrate the model to correspond to Bosnia and Herzegovina data. First we will shortly describe the economy of Bosnia and Herzegovina and data used in this research.

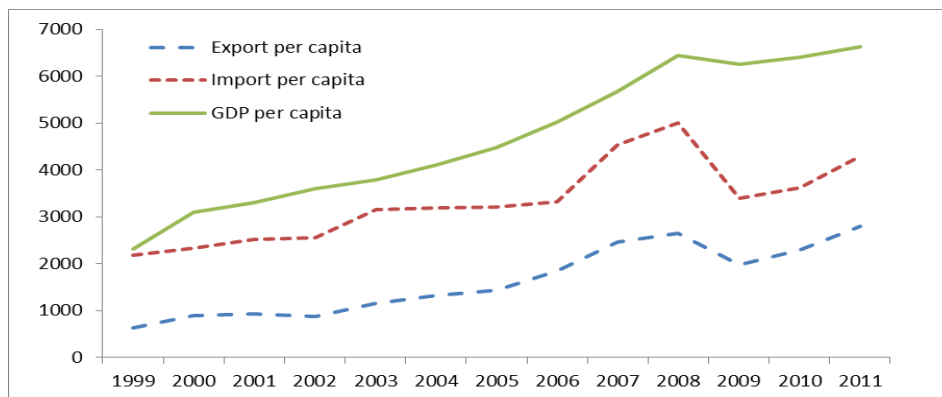
2.1. The economy of Bosnia and Herzegovina

After the signing of Dayton Agreement, in December 1995, which ended a 3,5 year long civil war, Bosnia and Herzegovina obtained its independence but it had to face dual challenge: recovery after the war and transition from socialism to capitalism. Bosnian economy and infrastructure were destroyed during the war, and big resources coming from foreign aid supported intensive growth of GDP in first years after the war. After this initial jump GDP continued to rise with stable and dynamic path of economic growth, with average annual growth rate of approximately 6% in period from 2000 to 2008. Nevertheless, because of low starting point of Bosnia and Herzegovina GDP even this growth rate of GDP was insufficient for B&H to catch up to the economies of EU member nations.

Another, bigger, problem was that this type of dynamic growth was a result of very strong growth of domestic expenditures and investments that were financed by the increase foreign donations, credit lines and foreign remittances.

Since economic growth of B&H in was not a result of successful implementation of structural, institutional and economic reforms its sustainability was questionable. When the first effects of World Economic Crises reflected on the Bosnian economy in 2008 they caused decrease foreign investments, foreign remittances and exports. Foreign investments grew after 2001 and in average were around 6,5% of GDP till 2008. In 2009 they had sharply dropped to 0.8% of GDP and slightly recovered in following years, reaching 2% of GDP in 2011. Foreign remittances were around 40% of GDP after war, and in the following years, their share in GDP slowly decreased. This happened probably due to GDP growth, since their nominal level was growing until 2008 when World Crises caused their sharp fall, which continued in following years, until personal remittances share in GDP reached its minimum of 10% in 2011. All this together with decrease of foreign demand for Bosnia and Herzegovina goods, followed by decrease of exports and sharp jump of trade deficit led to sharp fall of GDP. The movement of Bosnia and Herzegovina per capita GDP, Export and Import can be seen on Figure 1.

Figure 1 – Per capita GDP, Export and Import of Bosnia and Herzegovina



(Source: Central Bank of Bosnia and Herzegovina database)

With external debt to GDP ratio up to 55% of GDP, and public debt around 40% Bosnia and Herzegovina is, comparing to other transitional economy countries from its region, still not being overburdened with debt. The problem is that those credits are not used for investment into real economy sector. They are mostly used for financing of domestic final consumption, which decreased slowly from 138% of GDP in 1999 to 101% in 2009 and remained constant in following years. This constant problem of overconsumption is mostly caused by final consumption of households, which ranged from 103% of GDP in 2002 to approximately 80% in last four years period. Although Bosnia and Herzegovina is constantly spending more than it produces it is almost on the last position in Europe when we observe Final Consumption per capita (only Albania citizens are spending less) (European Commission).

Bosnia and Herzegovina is constantly having negative trade balance that in period from 2000 to 2008 in average was around 43% of GDP while it dropped to 26% in 2009 because of slowing down the economic activity caused by Economic Crises. Bosnia and Herzegovina mostly exports base metals and base metal products, machines, devices, mechanical and electric devices, mineral origin products, chemical industry products and furniture.

In structure of import the highest shares are taken by mineral origin products (mostly oil), machines, devices, mechanical and electric devices, food products, chemical industry products and base metals.

The deficit of trade balance is high, it is only partially covered with positive services trade balance and income, and current transfers balance, leaving Bosnia and Herzegovina current account balance with average deficit around 9% of GDP in last 6 years.

Bosnia and Herzegovina is thought it's all post war history having a structural problem of high unemployment rate, which have decreased slowly from 40% in 2000 to approximately 24% in 2008 and 2009. This high unemployment rates are not only placing pressure on country budget, but they are causing conflicts due to uneven distribution of income between employed and unemployed persons. Higher inequality in income results in high crime rates, higher degree of corruption, higher macroeconomic instability and even lower live expectancy. All this are obstacles to recovery and sustainable growth of Bosnia and Herzegovina economy.

Now, according 2012 data, Bosnia and Herzegovina, with GDP per capita PPP of 9 235 US \$ is the poorest country in Europe, and it is struggling to overcome all political and structural problems that play main obstacles on its way to economic recovery.

2.2. Public Expenditures in Bosnia and Herzegovina

In Bosnia and Herzegovina through Public Expenditures State consumes around 45% of GDP. Comparing the share of public expenditures in Bosnia and Herzegovina with other transitional economy countries, we can easily notice that public

expenditures in Bosnia and Herzegovina are at slightly higher level than in other more developed neighbor countries. When we take into consideration a quite modest economic growth of Bosnia and Herzegovina's economy, it opens a question of effectiveness of Bosnian fiscal and economic policy.

When we consider structure of Bosnia and Herzegovina public expenditures we can see that the biggest share of Public Expenditures in Bosnia and Herzegovina goes to Social benefits - around 35,1% , than around 29,1% goes to Employee compensations, 24,4% to Use of goods and services and 4,2% to Subsidies. All this shares are calculated using data from Table 1 (Central Bank of B&H).

Table 1 - BH Government Finances, Structure of Consolidated Revenues and Expenditures

	Taxes	Social contributions	Grants and other revenue	Consolidated revenues	Employee compensations	Use of goods and services	Interest	Subsidies	Social benefits	Grants and other expense	Consolidated expenditures	Net acquisition of nonfinancial assets
2003	3,223.6	1,877.8	919.6	6,021.0	1,783.5	1,518.4	107.2	154.8	1,749.7	366.7	5,680.4	237.9
2004	3,401.8	2,002.8	975.5	6,380.2	1,776.2	1,414.8	84.4	184.4	1,965.4	471.4	5,896.7	229.5
2005	4,002.4	2,100.6	1,019.1	7,122.1	1,834.7	1,601.4	96.4	217.0	2,212.2	397.8	6,359.5	351.8
2006	4,947.1	2,536.2	1,103.1	8,586.4	2,222.7	1,986.0	108.0	310.4	2,426.5	492.4	7,546.0	489.6
2007	5,536.5	2,908.9	1,387.3	9,832.7	2,534.7	2,220.9	110.8	378.2	3,030.6	553.5	8,828.8	745.8
2008	5,946.3	3,568.7	1,388.1	10,903.1	3,022.3	2,462.0	123.6	439.6	3,945.1	607.0	10,599.6	842.8
2009	5,351.9	3,638.6	1,352.0	10,342.5	3,155.2	2,489.4	123.9	418.5	3,951.0	526.5	10,664.5	748.0
2010	5,640.2	3,813.0	1,409.4	10,862.6	3,169.8	2,593.1	122.7	476.6	3,770.3	707.8	10,840.3	634.2
2011	6,032.2	4,036.4	1,288.5	11,357.1	3,336.9	2,088.2	161.4	402.8	4,330.3	589.1	10,908.7	771.1

Source: <http://www.cbbh.ba>

When compared with other transitional countries from its region (Croatia, Serbia, Montenegro, FYR Macedonia, Bulgaria, Romania and Slovenia) with 29,1% of Public Expenditures being spend on public employee compensations, B&H is having the highest share of Employee compensations in Public Expenditures. When observing EU 27 average share of 22% of Employee compensations in Public expenditures we can conclude that Bosnia and Herzegovina is spending far too much on its public sector. Bosnia and Herzegovina is also spending too much on Intermediate consumption. Its share of 24,4% of Public expenditures are highest in region, and it is double of EU 27 average of around 12%.

Together with this Bosnia and Herzegovina spends the highest share of Public expenditures – 35,1% on Social benefits. Taken together around 88, 6% of Public expenditures in Bosnia and Herzegovina is used for current spending, and is having no effect on future growth of B&H economy. All this speaks about inefficiency of B&H public sector.

2.3. Data description and model calibration

Data used in this analysis are taken from Central Bank of Bosnia and Herzegovina yearly reports and World Bank database (World Bank). Originally we had annual data on GDP, Inflation, Employment, Household final consumption, Gross capital formation, Real wage level, Export of goods and services, Import of goods and services and Public expenditures Bosnia and Herzegovina. All data were given for period 1999-2011, in current LCU prices. Using Inflation, we obtained all data constant 1998 BAM prices, and dividing them with estimated population of Bosnia and Herzegovina we got per capita values of our observations.

We set α – the capital share of output to be equal to 0.33, that is consistent with labor share of output of 0.66 or 2/3 of their total available time spend on working.

β , the discount factor is assumed to be 0.99, which corresponds to riskless annual return of 4%.

The rate of capital depreciation – δ is 0.025, which is standard estimated depreciation rate, used in DSGE models.

We set τ , the fraction of GDP consumed by the state through taxes and public expenditures to be 0.44 in case of Bosnia and Herzegovina, since Government of Bosnia and Herzegovina spends around 44% of its GDP through Public expenditures.

For calibration of other parameters, we used GMM – Generalized Method of Moments in Eviews5 software. We also had to use HP filter in order to create a monthly data and to increase the number of observations to be able to apply the GMM. For estimation of parameter ϵ we used GMM over log per capita exports data and log inflation data. As a proxy for world output we used log per capita EU 27 GDP data.

The calibration with GMM method over log import, log inflation and log Household consumption data gave us the value of σ parameter.

For estimation of γ and μ parameters, we used log data on investments, household consumption, government expenditures, GDP, export and import.

The exogenous variables propagation parameters - ρ_{y^*} , ρ_g and ρ_{π} were estimated using EU 27 GDP per capita, public expenditures and inflation rate data, respectively.

In Table 2, we have given values of all estimated parameters used in model calibration for Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Table 2 – Parameters calibration

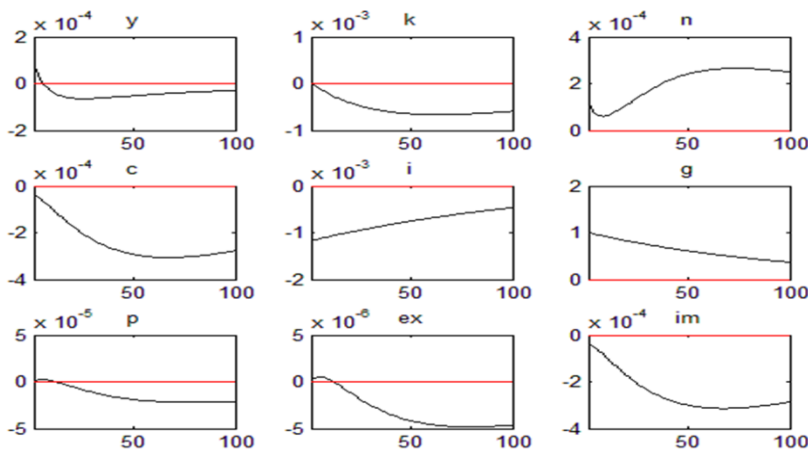
$\alpha = 0.33$	$\beta = 0.99$	$\delta = 0.025$
$\tau = 0.44$	$\epsilon = 0.22$	$\sigma = 0.38$
$\gamma = 0.42$	$\mu = 0.86$	$\rho_{y^*} = 0.99$
$\rho_g = 0.99$	$\rho_{\pi} = 0.98$	$\rho_{\alpha} = 0.9$

(Source: Author)

3. Model simulation results

Using Dynare for Matlab, and parameters calibrated for Bosnia and Herzegovina, as given in Table 2, we obtain the results of stochastic simulation of our DSGE model. Those results under Government expenditure shock are shown on Figure 2, and observing them we can notice some interesting results.

Figure 2 – Simulated IRFs under Government expenditures positive shock



The Impulse Response Functions show us the response of the each variable of the system, when system is threatens with unit shock. The interesting result, when we observe IRF's under Public Expenditures shock is that after initial small jump, the GDP of Bosnia and Herzegovina will decrease. Thus, we obtained the same results as in Bosnjak and Zlatkovic (2015). The Growth of Public Expenditures will negatively affect the GDP.

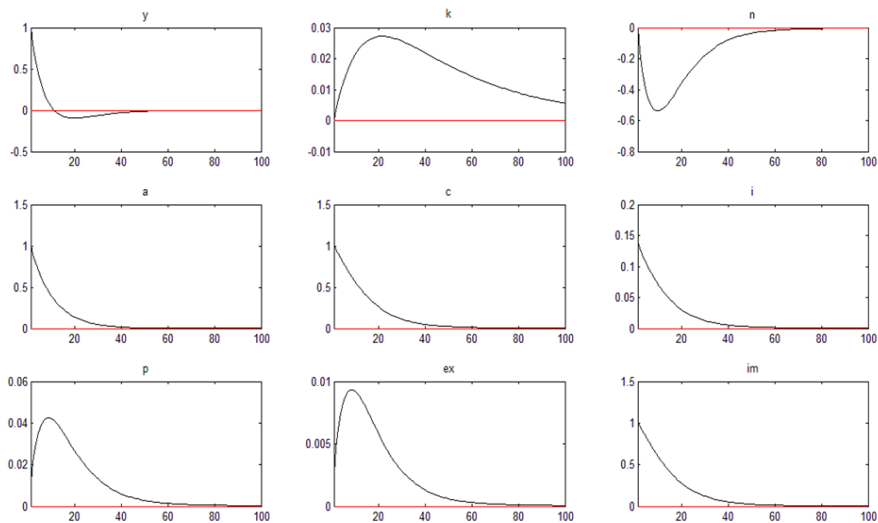
Gross Capital Formation (Investments) IRF shows that Investments have a negative response on a positive Public expenditures shock and in long run it returns to its steady state. The similar situation is with Consumption, too.

When it comes to employment, we will have a positive response of employment in short-run. Thus, the growth of Public Expenditures will improve the employment and we can comment that it will create new work places, but without the creation of new output.

Export and Import have the same sign of response on positive Public expenditures shock in both models. They both have negative effects.

The same kind of analysis is done on IRFs under Total Factor Productivity shock. We can observe the Impulse Response Functions of all variables in the DSGE model under TFP shock on Figure 3.

Figure 3 – Simulated IRFs under TFP shock



Comparing results of this theoretical model, with previously obtained results from empirically based SVAR model (Bosnjak & Zlatkovic, 2015) we may notice that in general IRFs obtained by DSGE model simulation show reactions of much higher intensity on impact, while empirically generated IRFs reactions are much smoother on shock's impact.

Observing the IRFs of GDP we can conclude that in case of DSGE model simulation GDP jumps instantaneously under TFP shock and after showing even small negative effects returns to its steady state after 40 periods.

Employment reacts negatively, but after initial jump returns to its steady state. The Household final consumption will have immediate positive response that will diminish gradually. This return to a steady state can be explained with fact that we have used a simple DSGE model without consumption habit formation, so it is probably not able to catch the real behavior of final consumption effects.

Investments have a positive reaction on TFP shock in both models, and the same is with Import and Export. They both increase, but Import's effects overpass the Exports effects causing the growth of trade balance deficit in long run.

Observing the overall responses of macroeconomic variables under TFP shock, we can conclude that small open economy DSGE model that we calibrated for Bosnia and Herzegovina in general fits well the empirically based SVAR model in Bosnjak and Zlatkovic. The differences that are noticed are caused with the simplicity of the standard DSGE model, which does not contain consumption habit formation, investment adjustment costs, price rigidities and other market frictions. The standard DSGE model specified on this way is satisfying all needs of this analysis, but for some further analysis of possible economic policies effects or predictions of macroeconomic variables movements it would be useful to develop and calibrate the larger DSGE model that would include different market frictions.

Conclusion

The Government of Bosnia and Herzegovina is redistributing and spending around 45% of its GDP. This share of Public expenditures in GDP is not large comparing to other countries expenditures. The problem arises when we consider Public expenditures structure, where the largest part of public expenditures are spend on current transfers such as employee compensations, social transfers and goods and services expenditures. This structure of Public expenditures is a decent explanation why Bosnia and Herzegovina is still undeveloped although its Public expenditures are at level of more developed countries.

The complex structure of Bosnia and Herzegovina Government, the duality of public institutions and lack of coordination among them are prohibiting conduction of unique and effective economic policy. This inefficiency of Bosnia and Herzegovina public sector and its high level of consumption are considered to be an important obstacle to Bosnia and Herzegovina economic growth. Because of that, they are a subject of big public attention in recent years.

That is why in this research we have focused on the analysis of response of Bosnia and Herzegovina economy on decrease of Public expenditures and TFP shock, which implies that some structural and organizational improvements had occurred.

In this paper, we wanted to verify can standard small size DSGE model well fit the behavior of Bosnia and Herzegovina macroeconomic variables, and does it coincides with SVAR analysis results. The results we obtained state that in general, long run terms DSGE model gave us same results as SVAR model. However, there are differences when we observe the instantaneous reactions. The DSGE model IRFs in short term can be significantly different from SVAR IRFs. The explanation of this can be found in DSGE model specification that does not include some standard New Keynesian assumptions – the prices staggering, nominal wage rigidities, investment adjustment costs, consumption habits formation and others.

Still DSGE model that we have used in this thesis gave us useful results that in combination with SVAR model results enabled us to bring out some conclusions about Bosnia and Herzegovina economy. As we already mentioned we are mostly interested in effects of Public expenditures and TFP shock on other macroeconomic variables.

The Public expenditures negative shock will, according our findings, lead to long run positive effects on GDP. These positive effects will be followed with consumption and investment fluctuations and theirs decrease in short run. Those negative impacts on total output are overpassed by trade balance deficit decrease that is evident from both models results. Therefore, we can conclude that cuts in Public expenditures are highly recommended for Bosnia and Herzegovina economic growth.

The Total Factor Productivity shock will have positive effects on Bosnian GDP, which will diminish after a while and return to its steady state. Nevertheless, the effects on overall economy are not so bright. The growth of output will increase already oversized Final consumption. The additional problem for Bosnia and Herzegovina economy represents the fact that this consumption increase will be mostly done through trade balance deficit growth. Bosnia and Herzegovina is already having problems with high trade balance deficit; therefore, its growth due to TFP shock would only increase Bosnian economy instability.

Based on DSGE model for Bosnia and Herzegovina economy, the overall recommendation for policy makers in Bosnia would be that they should focus on Public expenditures decrease, and growth of public sector efficiency. Only after

conduction of public sector reforms the attention should be focused on organization and usage of new technologies in production.

References

- Alexiou, C. (2007). Unraveling the "Mystery" Between Public Expenditure and Growth: Empirical evidence from Greece. *International Journal of Economics*, Vol.1, No.1 , 21-31.
- Barro, R. J. (1991). Economic Growth in a Cross-Section of Countries. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* No.106, 407-443.
- Bosnjak, N., & Zlatkovic, M. (2015). The Influence of Public Expenditures and Total-factor Productivity on the Economic Growth of Bosnia and Herzegovina. In B. Krstic, & Z. Paszek, *The Determinants of Competitiveness* (pp. 161-182). Nis: Faculty of Economics, University of Nis.
- Central Bank of B&H. (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://www.cbbh.ba/Content/Read/8>
- Central Bank of Bosnia and Herzegovina database. (n.d.). Retrieved September 1, 2015, from http://statistics.cbbh.ba:4444/Panorama/novaview/SimpleLogin_en.aspx
- European Commission. (n.d.). *European statistics*. Retrieved from <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat>
- Galli, J., & Monacelli, T. (2005). Monetary Policy and Exchange Rate Volatility in a Small Open Economy. *Review of Economic Studies*.
- Ghura, D. (1995). Macro Policies, External Forces and Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Economic Development and Cultural Change* Vol.43, No.4, 759-778.
- Harko, A. N. (2009). Size of Government and Growth Rate of Per Capita Income in Selected Asian Developing Countries. 28. *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics*.
- Kydland, F. E., & Prescott, E. (1982). Time to Build and Aggregate Fluctuations. *Econometrica*.
- Lee, J. W. (1995). Capital Goods Imports and Long-run Growth. *Journal of Development Economics*, Vol. 48, 91-110.
- Lozev I., (2010): A small open economy model with financial accelerator for Bulgaria: The role of fiscal policy and the currency board, Bulgarian National Bank
- Ram, R. (1986). Government Size and Economic Growth: A New Framework and some Evidence from Cross-Section and Time Series Data. *The American Economic Review*, Vol.76, No. 1, 191-203.
- World Bank. (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://data.worldbank.org/>

Regional Security Complex: The Macedonian Context

Fatmir M. Xheladini

Abstract

The traditional concepts of security analysis addresses concerns that deal with security at the state level leaving ample room for the concerns regarding security aspects that are not addressed through these lenses appropriately. The challenges that international system of security is facing range in variety from ones that are different in form to the time sequence that they appear in a different space and geographical location. These may include factors that are objective and subjective and as such they characterize the nature of relationships between states. Behavior of the states may at times include an action that conceptualizes within a geographical framework based on attributes that states poses. Given this, Buzan has presented the idea of security complex that is defined as a group of states in which perceptions and key concerns over security are interrelated. In this context the security complex is tied together through geographical, political, historical economic and cultural issues amongst others. Hence regional issues have an important role in the building of security logic for countries individually or in a group and may impact the formulation of policies internally or externally. Based on these considerations in this article we analyze the security issues of Macedonia and how they reflect upon the wider security agenda of the countries in the region in a two-way reflection.

Keywords: Regional Security, Macedonia, Security.

Introduction

Since it started the process of seeking its independence from the Yugoslav Federation, Macedonia has undertaken some essential transformation that have had two way implications in terms of its security paradigms. In its quest for independence the potential fears of security impact have been both internal as well as regional.

The regional implications have played an important role in consolidation of the statehood as its potential internal destabilization may have had an impact on regional stability. On the other hand, the volatility in the region may have had an impact on its internal security as well.

Each of these challenging transformations constituted strategic and fundamental opportunities that have taken Macedonia on the brink of membership in NATO and the European Union. These achievements have reduced the dilemma of its ability not only to constitute a proper functioning democracy but also through these important memberships to provide a larger umbrella for its security challenges and economic performance. Both of these processes can be considered threats if the state institutions are unable to respond, and as opportunities if the state institutions and the political elite find the courage and means to move forward through the given framework to become members in the aforementioned organizations.

The importance of gaining membership in the aforementioned institutions becomes evident due to the perceived external security dilemmas that it faced in the early 1990's. These dilemmas were seen as important segment of policy choice in the establishment of the country in the international and regional organizations. The path that Macedonia underwent in achieving its international recognition was impacted by issues that at times were generating enmity and amity amongst the surrounding countries. Different issues were regarded differently from the regional countries based on the historical perceptions of each not excluding Macedonia itself. AS result of these issues Macedonia failed to gain a membership in the United Nations and subsequently other international organizations due to the veto by Greece. Although Bulgaria recognized the existence of the state it failed to make recognition of the Macedonian language and a distinct ethnic group. These challenges pressed the leaders of the country in direction of policy making that external security issues it faced to become domestic as well. The inclusion of all citizens in the building of state security is necessary, especially in a multiethnic state as Macedonia.

Theoretical aspects

Security Complex Theory has a special significance because it tends to apply a medium level of analysis, linking together two other levels, micro and macro level. The combination of the two would provide a more comprehensive and suitable analytical approach for certain countries or regions based on their historical experience or geographical location. In this regard it can be stated that between levels there is a mutual interaction where local security concerns can be transformed into international ones and vice versa. At times when international system becomes decentralized new actors and issues generate influences into the system.

These changing dynamics have given rise to the debate of widening and broadening the security concepts as opposed to what they were known in a more traditional or classical concepts. As the debate ranged so the approaches that sought to give an analytical tool to the concerns and issues that needed to be analyzed in a changing international environment of the post-cold war era.

In its initial stages, Security Complex Theory, or what is known in a more classical manner focuses on the state as the main actor of the international system. But as a result of the intensification and broadening of the concept of security, this theory was reprocessed again by its creators, creating two categories; homogeneous and heterogeneous complexes. Homogeneous complexes - formed while maintaining the basic logic of classical theory. While heterogeneous complexes - go beyond the logic of classical theory and argued that regional logic can integrate different types of actors who interact in two or more sectors (Buzan, Waever, & Wilde, 1998, pp. 16-17).

Regional Security Complexes allow us to focus upon groupings of states whose actions dominate the security considerations of other member states. To further enhance this approach, Buzan and Waever in their work define a regional security complex as "...a set of units whose major processes of securitization, de-securitization, or both are so interlinked that their security problems cannot reasonably be analyzed or resolved apart from one another" (Buzan & Weaver, 2003, p. 44).

For the purposes of our paper we further expand on the above definition to better understand the dynamics of impact of each of the members or actor by having the focus on the external factors determine the actions of the other with the description that is given by Lake and Morgan that drives the regional security complex in a way that "...the members are so interrelated in terms of their security that actions by any member, and significant security-related developments inside any member, have a major impact on the others." (Lake & Morgan, 1997, p. 12)

Regional Security complex theory as such has a variation of approaches that have blended together to form a multidimensional inputs between a more neorealist and constructivist composition. While the structural approach has a neorealist approach it indicates the beginning of a regional motivation to the global structure. The geographical implication to constructing the global level approach still maintains a sense of regionalism in getting the actions higher up. On the other hand, the constructivist approach has a tendency to shift its focus on the process that may affect the character of security relations. Thus the political process that constitutes the security issues essentially has subjective aspects that determine the potential relations between the actors. (Buzan & Weaver, 2003, p. 4)

To have a better understanding of the regional security complex it is valuable to look at the variety of the states that constitute the group of states and what dynamics of interplay between those states is occurring. The democratic peace theory contends that democratic states do not tend to go to war rather solve their problems in peaceful means gives another window to the approach that needs to be viewed. Hence the political culture of the region may affect the means through which security concerns of each state are constructed. Hence Regional security complex theory makes a distinction from stable developed countries and unstable underdeveloped ones (Buzan & Weaver, 2003, p. 21).

For the purposes of the paper the concept of collective security becomes evident. The concept first highlighted by Deutsch, incorporates the fact that the disagreements and the choice to solving them is by excluding violence and use of force. As suggested the Concept of collective security provides that the group of subjects who integrate to the extent that between them is mutual conviction that members of one or another society-group will not impose their interests by force, but in other ways. Hence the concept of security community means that in the international arena, states may share similar values, norms and symbols with which they still retain their separate identity. In addition to this conclusion goes the fact that in international relations, states are linked through interactions of different sectors including security, and can share common interests, reciprocity to build trust or otherwise constantly deal with mutual fear and mistrust (Deutsch, 1957).

As in earlier statements regions are an important segment of international system and further from the classical theories the Regional security complex considers the regions not only in geographical and material terms but also as interlinked to the degree that the fear of one state affects the other one through a web of issues that may not be considered separate.

The region, in contrast, refers to the level where states or other units link together sufficiently closely that their securities cannot be considered separate from each other. This degree of interdependence differs from one region to the other and the nature of political system that dominates in the region. The impact and influence of global politics in the regional context makes the complex an important security structure in which the action of a unit within the region may spur fear in another unit. The crossing of the global and the state unit interplay creates a level worthy of analysis. This intersection of security dynamics requires additional outlook on the reasons and sources that create the interdependence in terms of security between these units (Buzan & Weaver, 2003, p. 43).

The paper has in consideration that Macedonia as such falls further into a sub complex. The concept goes further in the extension of the regional security complex where the security interdependence is intensive from the inside. A sub complex is engaged from within but also has a segment which constitutes a security complex larger than what can be understood from the interactions of the subgroup (Buzan & Weaver, 2003, p. 51).

Macedonian Context

The perceived external security dilemmas that it faced in the early 1990's, served as a justification for the leadership of the country to undertake actions that incorporated policies that were having influence not only in the foreign- regional relations but also those of internal actors.

Macedonia failed to gain a membership in the United Nations and subsequently other international organizations due to the veto by Greece. Although Bulgaria recognized the existence of the state it failed to make recognition of the Macedonian language and a distinct ethnic group. The issues pertaining to the succession with Serbia included a range of segments but most pressing from a regional contexts being that with the Church. On the other hand the large Albanian community was feeling not completely included in the new shaping of the state and as such posing a range of concerns from inside. These challenges pressed the leaders of the country in direction of policy making that external security issues it faced to become domestic as well.

From the moment of its independence the row has extended to include not only the denomination of the country but also the symbols that initially Macedonia used to strengthen its national identity. The contest is not new and it has resurfaced continuously since the end of 19th century as a contented issue of resurgent nationalisms in the Balkans when the demise of Turkish rule was coming to a close. When Macedonia proclaimed its independence and was applying for membership in International Organizations the problem resurfaced as the opposition to its membership in these organizations was blocked (Craven, 1996).

The identity security dilemma for Macedonia has derived from the dispute of the existence of identity of Macedonian ethnic group as a separate identity. The contest with Greece over the name Macedonia which is also a major region in northern Greece has touched upon the neighborly relations of Macedonia with almost all of its bordering neighbors. Although the name issue that is contested by Greece is well known as a state problem, the disputed existence of Macedonian language by Bulgaria is equally exerting pressure to the Macedonian ethnic political elite. The Bulgarian and Serbian perception are connected to the context of the ethnic origin of Macedonians and its church. The Bulgarian and Serbian claims to the origins and belonging of the Macedonian identity has exerted considerable pressure on internal stability of the country whereas the name issue with Greece has kept Macedonia away from important memberships in NATO and EU. (Engstrom, March 2002, vol.1 nr 3).

These segments of external pressure from the regional context have exerted pressure to the Macedonian political actors to take a course that in effect generate policies impacting internal stability of Macedonia. The origin of the problem has been from the external factors but the political elite in its quest to consolidate the state from inside has taken measures that have regenerated resentments from the groups inside the country. The pressure is visible when it comes to making decisions at domestic level as well as when those pertain to foreign policies. As consequence independence of Macedonia was based around the construction of single ethno cultural state through which civic liberties were pushed aside and ethnic resentment was evident throughout (Ragaru, January 2008).

Conclusions

From what has been presented above we can see that in the case of Macedonia security concerns of one state are becoming issues of another one. Issues that concern one country at times generate political moves of securitization or de-securitization that cannot be analyzed or solved separately. From this perspective we may say that regional security sub-complex as in the case of Macedonia is so much interrelated in terms of security between the various members that important security issues in one country can have impact on the other country.

We can see that regional implications for Macedonia have played an important role in its quest for independence and after it. These implications have played a role be that in social or cultural issues that are interrelated between the countries in question. The political choices that have been made by the Macedonian political elite have played an important role in constituting the opportunities of gaining a membership in larger regional organizations but as well in its economic performance.

References

- Buzan, B. (1991). New Patterns of Global Security in the Twenty First Century. *International Affairs*, 431-435.
- Buzan, B., & Weaver, O. (2003). *Regions and Powers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Buzan, B., Waever, O., & Wilde, J. D. (1998). *Security: A New Framework For Analysis*. London: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Craven, M. C. (1996). What's in a Name? *Australian Yearbook of International Law*.
- Deutch, K. W. (1957). *Political Community and the North Atlantic Area*. International Organization in the Light of Historical Experience. Princeton: Princeton university press.
- Engstrom, J. (March 2002, vol.1 nr 3). The Power of Perception, the Impact of Macedonian Question on Inter-ethnic relations in The Republic of Macedonia. *The Global Review Of Ethnopolitics*, 3-17.
- Lake, D. A., & Morgan, P. M. (1997). *Regional Orders: Building Security in a New World*. University Park : Pennsylvania State University.
- Ragaru, N. (January 2008). *Macedonia: Between Ohrid and Brussels*.
- Waever, O., Buzan, B., Kelstrup, M., & Lemaitre, P. (1993). *Identity, Migration and the New Security Agenda In Europe*. New York: St. Martins Press.

The Evolution of the Role of the National Parliaments in the Treaties of the European Union

Pranvera Beqiraj (Mihani)

Faculty of Political Sciences and Law, "Aleksander Moisiu" University, Durres

Abstract

This paper elaborates the evolving role of national parliaments in the different stages of the European integration process. The Review begins with the first stage (the foundation of the European Union) where national parliaments showed no or little interest in the matters of Community, and then the impact of Single European Act, following the first changes in the Maastricht Treaty, through the two Declarations attached to it and then the Protocol to the Treaty of Amsterdam. Finally the paper focuses on the changes and innovations presented in the Lisbon Treaty which will enhance the role of national parliaments in the European Union governance. For this purpose, the paper analyzes chronologically the rights that national parliaments had before the Lisbon Treaty and the new role of national parliaments after the Lisbon Treaty came into force.

Keywords: *treaties, Lisbon Treaty, role, national parliaments*

1. Introduction

The national parliament's involvement in the European Union (EU) governance has been a long debated issue in the different stages of the European integration, especially the extent to which national parliaments should be more involved.

The gradual expansion of powers has been reflected in the scholarly debate. Following accounts of how parliaments were the "victims" of European integration due to a process of "deparliamentarization" (Moravcsik, 1995; Norton, 1996; Weber-Panariello, 1995) in the 1990s, national parliaments have been portrayed as more active players in the context of EU integration after the Treaty of Amsterdam (e.g. Auel and Benz, 2005; O'Brennan and Raunio, 2007), although some still raise the question as to whether national parliaments are "losers or late-comers" (Maurer and Wessels, 2001) or indeed whether they are "destined for irrelevance" (Raunio, 2010).¹

During the first stage, national parliaments showed little interest in the Community affairs. According to Norton, initially, their stance was that of non-engagement.² Within national parliaments no significant structural or procedural changes were made. This is mainly explained by the nature of the European Community. Following the so-called Luxembourg compromise in 1966, Council law-making was based on unanimity, and thus each government could veto initiatives. The Community had competence only in commercial and agricultural policies. The Community was thus mainly an intergovernmental organisation and as such a matter for the governments. National legislatures felt that their sovereignty was not under threat.³

2. National parliaments before the Maastricht Treaty

Since the 1980s, the marginalization of national parliaments in the domain of EU affairs has not seemed irreversible, as domestic chambers started to exhibit greater specialization in EU matters, became more active and attempted to establish stronger contacts with members of the European Parliament (Norton 1995). A number of factors can explain this change in parliamentary attitude to the EU. First, as a number of authors argue, this was a direct consequence of the accession of the Eurosceptic United Kingdom and Denmark (Norton 1995, Raunio 1999). Both countries joined the EU in 1973, but

¹ Arribas, G.V., Bourdin, D. What Does the Lisbon Treaty Change Regarding Subsidiarity within the EU Institutional Framework?, pg. 4

² Lord Norton (2011). National Parliaments and the Lisbon Treaty, <https://nortonview.wordpress.com>

³ Rituzzo, F. (2003). National Parliament and the European Union: Part of the Problem or Part of the Solution to the Democratic Deficit in the European Constitutional Settlement, pg. 103 (as cited in Daukšienė, I. Matijošaitytė, S. (2012). The Role Of National Parliaments In The European Union After Treaty Of Lisbon, pg. 32

by the first half of the 1980s other national parliaments had started to adopt some elements of their scrutiny systems or at least acquaint themselves with the stringent Danish and British procedures for dealing with EU affairs. ¹

Second, the adoption of the Single European Act (SEA) brought profound changes in the stance of the national parliaments in the Community affairs. Following the White Paper on Completion of the Single Market and the Single European Act, engagement – at least at national level – became the norm. Having a European Affairs Committee, for example, became a standard. ²

From national parliament's point of view, the SEA brought four profound changes. Each of them strengthened the supranational character of the European Community. First, it resulted in an extension of the policy competence of the European Community into sectors previously preserved for national governments. Second, as a consequence of the extension of its policy reach and the need to put in place the legal framework for the completion of the single market there was a significant increase in the regulations and directives emanating from the European Community which increased the workload of national parliaments and alerted them to third major change. The third change was that not only had policy-making power flowed upwards to the European level, but that the SEA also affected a shift in the power relationship between the national institutions of the Member States and the institution of the Community, the latter being given much greater power. The extensive use of qualified majority voting in the Council meant that national governments could no longer block Council decisions. Finally, the SEA strengthened the legislative powers of the directly elected European Parliament. This change was yet another signal that national parliaments ran the risk of being increasingly sidelined in the law-making process. ³

3. The changing role after the Maastricht Treaty

The development of the political and the economic and monetary union (EMU) with the Treaty of Maastricht brought new powers to the EU level. This was accompanied by an increasing role of the European Parliament in the legislative process with the introduction of the co-decision procedure. The European Parliament gained equal status with the Council in certain policy areas by increasing its power in law-making process. Although this could have resulted in a further marginalization of national parliaments, the Maastricht Treaty for the first time explicitly recognized the role of national parliaments in the European integration, also due to the deeper discussion on the issue of the democratic deficit in the EU at this stage.

Two declarations, Declaration 13 and 14 were attached to the Maastricht Treaty.

Declaration No.13 is the first European Document that in particular treats the role of national parliaments. ⁴ It encourages greater involvement of national parliaments in the activities of the European Union". According to the Declaration which was set up following proposals by the UK and France, the governments should ensure that "national parliaments receive Commission proposals for legislation in good time for information and possible examination". Though not being legally binding, the Declaration had political consequences. Above all it intensified the debate between national parliaments and European Parliaments on the effectiveness of parliamentary accountability in EU affairs. ⁵

The Declaration No.14 regulates the Conference of the Parliaments⁶ as "the Conference of the Parliaments will be consulted on the main features of the European Union, without prejudice to the powers of the European Parliament and the rights of the national Parliaments. The President of the European Council and the President of the Commission will report to each session of the Conference of the Parliaments on the state of the Union". The need for enhanced contacts between the European Parliament and national parliaments was also mentioned, a topic that was further addressed in Declaration No.14, which dealt with the recommendations of the Assizes. The key idea was to develop the Assizes as a parliamentary forum for discussing EU issues of relevance to the European Parliament and national parliaments, with

¹ Strelkov, A. (2015), National Parliaments in the Aftermath of the Lisbon Treaty Adaptation to the 'New Opportunity Structure', pg.58

² Lord Norton (2011). National Parliaments and the Lisbon Treaty, <https://nortonview.wordpress.com>

³ Rituzzo, F. (2003). National Parliament and the European Union: Part of the Problem or Part of the Solution to the Democratic Deficit in the European Constitutional Settlement, pg. 103 (as cited in Daukšienė, I. Matijošaitytė, S. (2012). The Role Of National Parliaments In The European Union After Treaty Of Lisbon, pg. 35

⁴ Krekelberg, A. (2001), The Reluctant Acknowledgement of National Parliaments in the European Treaties: A Documentatibn, pg. 477

⁵ Ibid

⁶ Assizes

reports from the heads of the European Council and the European Commission providing the necessary input. This format for cooperation, however, has not been used since. ¹

The role of national parliaments in the Amsterdam Treaty was discussed under the necessity for democratization of European decision making procedures. After several proposals from different national actors, a protocol was inserted in the Treaty of Amsterdam: the Protocol on the role of National Parliaments in the European Union.

The protocol on the role of national parliaments annexed to the Treaty of Amsterdam encouraged greater involvement of national parliaments in the activities of the EU and required consultation documents and proposals to be forwarded promptly so the NPs could examine them before the Council took a decision.

Declaration No.13 annexed to the Maastricht Treaty and Protocol 13 annexed to the 1997 Treaty of Amsterdam both purported to involve national parliaments to a greater extent in EU matters. The Amsterdam Treaty changed the subsidiarity article number from 3b to Article 5, but not the text of the article, and included a new, legally binding protocol to the Treaty setting out the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality. This Protocol obliged the Commission to "consult widely before proposing legislation and, wherever appropriate, publish consultation documents", and to justify the relevance of its proposals with regard to the principle of subsidiarity. Separate justification was required for the financing of Community action in whole or in part from the Community budget. The Commission was also required to submit annual reports to the European Council, the Council of Ministers and the European Parliament on the application of Article 5. The new Protocol required that the reasons for concluding that a Community objective could be better achieved by the Community be substantiated by qualitative or, wherever possible, quantitative indicators. ²

Declaration No.23 annexed to the 2001 Treaty of Nice invited national parliaments to participate in the debate on the future of the Union and the Laeken Declaration of 2001 proposed specific questions about the role of national parliaments that the Convention on the Future of Europe, launched in February 2002, should tackle. The Convention Working Group on the role of national parliaments identified some basic factors influencing the effectiveness of scrutiny and acknowledged that national parliaments did not always make use of the powers they had to scrutinise their governments.³

Since the Treaty of Amsterdam, a six-week time period between the publication of an EU legislative proposal and the setting of the item on the Council agenda is in force, so as to allow national parliaments some time to scrutinize it *ex ante*.⁴

The Nice Declaration and specifically, the section 23 of the text - dealing with the future of the Union- listed the role of the national parliaments among the priority to be faced "for improving and monitoring the democratic legitimacy of the Union and its institutions in order to bring them closer to the citizens". Again in this direction, the Laeken declaration provided us with further insights about the role of the national legislators, which were called to contribute in strengthening the legitimacy of the European project. ⁵

As a result of concerns about a 'democratic deficit' of the EU, the issue of national parliaments was included in the Laeken Declaration ⁶ as one of the key priorities to be considered by the Convention on the Future of Europe (European Council, 2001). Following the negotiations in both the Convention and the subsequent Intergovernmental Conferences, stipulations on enhancing the role of national parliaments were first enshrined in the Constitutional Treaty and later taken over virtually unchanged into the Lisbon Treaty (Raunio, 2007; Kiiver, 2012: 20). ⁷ An early warning subsidiarity mechanism was included in the Protocol on on Subsidiarity and Proportionality attached to the 2004 Treaty Establishing a Constitution for Europe, which never came into force following its rejection by France and the Netherlands in negative referendums in 2005.
8

4. National Parliaments in the Lisbon Treaty

¹Strelkov, A. (2015), National Parliaments in the Aftermath of the Lisbon Treaty Adaptation to the 'New Opportunity Structur, pg. 60

² Miller, V. (2012), National Parliaments and EU law-making: how is the 'yellow card' system working?, pg. 3-4

³ Ibid, pg. 4

⁴ Article 3 of the Amsterdam Protocol

⁵ Romaniello, M. (2012), Empowerment of National Parliaments and the European Democratic Disconnect, pg.4

⁶ European Council (2001), Laeken Declaration on the Future of the European Union, <http://european-convention.eu.int/pdf/lknen.pdf>.

⁷ Christiansen, T., Högenauer, A., Neuhold, C. (2012) National Parliaments in the post-Lisbon European Union: Bureaucratization rather than Democratization?, pg. 6

⁸ Miller, V. (2012), National Parliaments and EU law-making: how is the 'yellow card' system working?, pg. 5

The Lisbon Treaty, which came into force in December 2009, contained many of the Constitutional Treaty provisions and it was the first time that national parliaments are mentioned in the actual main text of the EU's "constitution" – as opposed to Protocols and Declarations attached to previous Treaties¹ and are also provided with wider opportunities to participate in the activities of the European Union and influence the European legislative process.² Also, two Protocols attached to the Lisbon Treaty, refers more explicitly to the powers that are given to the national parliaments.

The Treaty of the European Union (TEU) states that national parliaments ensure compliance of the EU with the principle of subsidiarity (Art.5) and hold their governments accountable for their actions in the Council (Art.10). They can also contribute to the good functioning of the Union (Art.12) by taking part in the evaluation mechanisms for the implementation of the Union policies in the area of freedom, security and justice in accordance with Art. 70 of the Treaty on the Function of the European Union (TFEU); in the political monitoring of Europol and the evaluation of Eurojust's activities in accordance with Articles 85 and 88 of TFEU; in the revision procedures of the treaties in accordance with Art. 48 TEU and in the inter-parliamentary cooperation between national parliaments and the European Parliament. They will also be notified of applications for accession to the Union in accordance with Art.49 TEU.³

Thus, after the Lisbon Treaty, four main spheres can be relatively identified where national parliaments can participate in the EU activities: (1) the role of national parliaments in ratification and revision process of EU primary law; (2) the rights that national parliament has in the area of freedom, security and justice; (3) activities in exercising interparliamentary cooperation; (4) the role of national parliaments in EU legislation.⁴

Considering the role of national parliaments in ratification and revision process of EU primary law it must be said that the Treaty of Lisbon involves national parliaments into Treaty revision procedures. This way, national parliaments get important rights not only in ratifying amendments of the EU founding Treaties and bargaining for new provisions of the Treaties. Article 48 of the TEU distinguishes two kinds of treaty revision procedures: (i) ordinary revision procedure and (ii) simplified revision procedure. According to the first procedure, representatives of national parliaments are not only informed about proposals for the amendment of the Treaties, but also together with the Heads of State or Government of the Member States, members of the European Parliament and the Commission participate in the Convention where these proposals are discussed. In the simplified Treaty revision procedure, national parliaments have more binding rights. An individual veto right is stipulated for any one parliament or chamber to veto the application of the simplified Treaty revision procedure⁵

Policy implementation in a number of areas has come under more direct control of the national parliaments, which have acquired the right to evaluate policy implementation in the area of freedom, security and justice and to monitor the activities of Europol and Eurojust,⁶ as required in Articles 70, 85 and 88 of the TFEU.

The role of inter-parliamentary cooperation was enhanced. Protocol on the Role of National Parliaments in the European Union (No.1) in its Articles 9 and 10 refers to the interparliamentary cooperation. The European Parliament and national Parliaments shall together determine the organisation and promotion of effective and regular interparliamentary cooperation within the Union; and a conference of Parliamentary Committees for Union Affairs may submit any contribution it deems appropriate for the attention of the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission. That conference shall in addition promote the exchange of information and best practice between national Parliaments and the European Parliament, including their special committees. It may also organize interparliamentary conferences on specific topics, in particular to debate matters of common foreign and security policy, including common security and defence policy. Contributions from the conference shall not bind national Parliaments and shall not prejudice their position.

¹Tapio, R. (2009), National Parliaments and European Integration What we know and what we should know, pg. 3

² Tronchetti, F (2010). National parliaments as guardians of subsidiarity: A feasible task or an utopist chimera? Pg. 15 (as cited in Daukšienė, I. Matijošaitytė, S. (2012). The Role Of National Parliaments In The European Union After Treaty Of Lisbon, pg. 38

³ Piedrafita, S.(2013), EU Democratic Legitimacy and National Parliaments, pg. 3

⁴ Daukšienė, I. Matijošaitytė, S. (2012). The Role Of National Parliaments In The European Union After Treaty Of Lisbon, pg. 38

⁵ Ibid

⁶ Strelkov, A. (2015), National Parliaments in the Aftermath of the Lisbon Treaty Adaptation to the 'New Opportunity Structur, pg.63

But the main novelty of the Lisbon Treaty is the “early warning system”, with the national legislatures assigned the right to monitor whether initiatives for EU decisions comply with the principle of subsidiarity. ¹ This power ² is regulated by the Protocol on the Application of the Principles of Subsidiarity and Proportionality (No.2) annexed to the Treaty of Lisbon.

According to Article 7 of Protocol No.2, which describes the process of the so-called early warning system, a draft European legislative act must be reviewed within the eight-week time limit if one third – or one quarter in the area of freedom, security and justice – of the national parliaments oppose its subsidiarity arguments. The Commission, a group of Member States or the European institution from which the draft originates, may decide to maintain, amend or withdraw the draft and reasons must be given for each decision. This is the ‘yellow card’ procedure. ³

Furthermore, the Lisbon Treaty – contrary to the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe (2003) – establishes another procedure called the ‘orange card’⁴ which applies only to the draft European legislative acts falling under the ordinary legislative procedure (the former co-decision procedure). If more than half of the national parliaments oppose such an act on the grounds of subsidiarity arguments, the latter must be reviewed. The European Commission may then decide to maintain, amend or withdraw the proposal. If the European Commission decides to maintain its proposal, then it has to provide a reasoned opinion justifying why the Commission considers the proposal to be in compliance with the subsidiarity principle. On the basis of this reasoned opinion, and that of the national parliaments, the European legislator, by a majority of 55 per cent of the members of the Council or a majority of the votes cast in the European Parliament, shall decide whether or not to block the European Commission proposal. ⁵

As mentioned above, the Treaty of Lisbon also contained a Protocol on the Role of National Parliaments which enshrined EU commitments on the provision of documentation directly to national parliaments, the right to submit a reasoned opinion on conformity with subsidiarity and proportionality, an eight-week period for national parliaments to scrutinise proposals before consideration by the Council, and to better inter-parliamentary cooperation between national parliaments and the European Parliament. ⁶

This Protocol broadens the scope of the documents to be forwarded to the national parliaments to include all draft legislative acts, consultation documents, the annual legislative programme and any other instrument of legislative planning of the Commission, the Council’s agendas and minutes and the Annual Report of the Court of Auditors. “An eight-week period shall elapse between a draft legislative act being made available (by the EU institutions) to national parliaments in the official languages of the Union and the date when it is placed on a provisional agenda for the Council for its adoption or for adoption of a position under a legislative procedure”.

However, the expansion of the number of acts to be submitted to the national Parliaments fosters a greater potential for intervention by national Parliaments. At the same time, this expansion gives rise to the risk of inundating their structures with an enormous amount of documents. Complete and comprehensive information can therefore not always achieve effective parliamentary control of European policies and could produce an information overload. ⁷ But, selection and anticipation are possible.

5. Conclusions

As it is stated in the Art. 12 of the TEU, national parliaments can contribute actively to the good functioning of the EU. But, before the Lisbon Treaty came into force, previous Union’s treaties hardly recognised the role and participation of national parliaments in the EU governance. The role of national parliaments in the Maastricht treaty was only mentioned in the Declarations attached to it, thus not legally binding. While in the Treaty of Amsterdam their role was sanctioned in a specific Protocol.

¹ Raunio, T. (2009), National Parliaments and European Integration What we know and what we should know, pg. 4

² (Article 5(3) and Article 12(b) of the TEU)

³ Arribas, G.V., Bourdin, D. What Does the Lisbon Treaty Change Regarding Subsidiarity within the EU Institutional Framework?, pg. 2 - 3

⁴ Art 7(3) of prot nr 2

⁵ Arribas, G.V., Bourdin, D. What Does the Lisbon Treaty Change Regarding Subsidiarity within the EU Institutional Framework?, pg. 3

⁶ Miller, V. (2012), National Parliaments and EU law-making: how is the ‘yellow card’ system working?, pg. 5

⁷ Casalena, P. G. (2013) in Blanke /Mandianeli (eds), The Treaty of the European Union – a Commentary, pg. 33

With the Lisbon Treaty it was the first time that national parliaments were mentioned in the actual main text of the EU's "constitution" – as opposed to Protocols and Declarations attached to previous Treaties ¹ and are also provided with wider opportunities to participate in the activities of the European Union and influence the European legislative process. ² And for this reason the Treaty of Lisbon, leading to the strengthening of the role of national parliaments in the process of European integration, was due to innovative procedural changes referred to in the literature as the "treaty of national parliaments".

The Lisbon Treaty made significant changes, including setting out the right of national parliaments to be kept informed by the institutions of the EU; to co-operate with other national parliaments and the European Parliament; to ensure respect for the principle of subsidiarity; and to take part in the evaluation of justice and home affairs policies. ³ National parliaments can now uphold the principle of subsidiarity, under Protocol No. 1 to the TEU, by submitting a reasoned opinion to the EU institution which instigated the proposal, if they believe that the proposal breaches the principle. However, the final decision on whether or not a Commission proposal violates the principle of subsidiarity is taken by the European Parliament and the Council, and not by the national parliaments.⁴

Strengthening the role of national parliaments has since Laeken been seen as one of the ways of addressing the EU's fragile democratic legitimacy, and the reforms contained in the Lisbon Treaty have provided a number of measures towards this aim. ⁵ And this should be considered positively.

References:

Arribas, G.V., Bourdin, D. What Does the Lisbon Treaty Change Regarding Subsidiarity within the EU Institutional Framework?

Casalena, P. G. (2013) in Blanke /Mandianeli (eds), *The Treaty of the European Union – a Commentary*

Christiansen, T., Högenauer, A., Neuhold, C. (2012) *National Parliaments in the post-Lisbon European Union: Bureaucratization rather than Democratization?*

Daukšienė, I. Matijošaitytė, S. (2012). *The Role Of National Parliaments In The European Union After Treaty Of Lisbon*, European Council (2001), *Laeken Declaration on the Future of the European Union*, <http://european-convention.eu.int/pdf/lknen.pdf>.

House Of Lords, European Union Committee, 9th Report of Session 2013–14

Krekelberg, A. (2001), *The Reticent Acknowledgement of National Parliaments in the European Treaties: A Documentatibn*

Lord Norton (2011). *National Parliaments and the Lisbon Treaty*, <https://nortonview.wordpress.com>

Miller, V. (2012), *National Parliaments and EU law-making: how is the 'yellow card' system working?*

Piedrafita, S.(2013), *EU Democratic Legitimacy and National Parliaments*

Romaniello, M. (2012), *Empowerment of National Parliaments and the European Democratic Disconnect*

Strelkov, A. (2015), *National Parliaments in the Aftermath of the Lisbon Treaty Adaptation to the 'New Opportunity Structur*

Tapio, R. (2009), *National Parliaments and European Integration What we know and what we should know*
Treaties of the European Union

¹Tapio, R. (2009), *National Parliaments and European Integration What we know and what we should know*, pg. 3

² Tronchetti, F (2010). *National parliaments as guardians of subsidiarity: A feasible task or an utopist chimera?* Pg. 15 (as cited in Daukšienė, I. Matijošaitytė, S. (2012). *The Role Of National Parliaments In The European Union After Treaty Of Lisbon*, pg. 38

³ House Of Lords, European Union Committee, 9th Report of Session 2013–14, pg 56

⁴ Daukšienė, I. Matijošaitytė, S. (2012). *The Role Of National Parliaments In The European Union After Treaty Of Lisbon*, pg. 45

⁵ Arribas, G.V., Bourdin, D. *What Does the Lisbon Treaty Change Regarding Subsidiarity within the EU Institutional Framework?*, pg. 4

Differences on Emotional and Behavioral Problems Among 10-12 Years Old Children – Parents' Report

Evis Fili

European University of Tirana-UET

Abstract

Aim: To explore the differences in age and gender on emotional and behavioral broad band scales of children 10-12 years old. It was hypothesized that there will be differences between girls and boys and between ages.

Methods: We used CBCL (6-18 years) the 2001 edition (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001) to collect the data. Descriptive statistics, chi-square test, Pearson correlation, T-test, and ANOVA were used to explore and analyse the differences. The sample included 236 children (123 or 52.1% boys and 113 or 47.9% girls), with a mean age of 11 years (SD .835). From 236 parents participated in the study, 92 of them or 39.0 % were mothers, while only 144 of them or 61.0 % were fathers. The parents voluntarily completed the questionnaire. **Results:** There were found no differences on broad band scales of emotional and behavioral problems, regarding the age and gender of children.

Keywords: children, emotional and behavior problems, differences, parent.

Introduction

Behaviour problems are most often defined as internalizing problems, which are expressed through anxiety, depression and withdrawal and externalizing problems, expressed as hyperactivity and aggression (Achenbach, 1991; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000; Dearing et al, 2006). Externalizing behaviour problems include a group of behaviour problems which children express in the external environment (Campbell, Shaw, & Gilliom, 2000; Eisenberg et al, 2001). In literature, externalizing problems consist of disruptive behaviour, hyperactivity and aggressive behaviour (Hinshaw, 1987), while Campbell (1995, 2002) presents them through aggressive behaviour, noncompliance and hyperactivity.

Referring to the fact that externalizing problems at preschool age are considered as the most widespread mental health disorder, the empirical study of these problems has increased the interest and the attention of researchers (Campbell, 1995). This interest was reinforced by the correlation between the early onset of externalizing problems and behaviour problems in middle childhood and adolescence (Campbell, 1995; Tremblay, Pihl, Vitaro & Dobkin, 1994; Patterson, Reid & Dishion, 1992; Farrington, 1991).

Internalizing problems are considered to include behaviours such as withdrawal, anxiety, refraining and depressive behaviour, i.e. behaviours that affect the child's internal psychological environment more than his/her external world. In other words, this cluster of behaviour problems includes 'neurotic' and 'over controlled' behaviours (Campbell et al, 2000; Eisenberg et al, 2001; Hinshaw, 1987).

Various studies suggest that internalizing problems, although considerably less studied, may emerge during the first years of life (Luby, Heffelfinger, Mrakotsky et al, 2003), and such problems are relatively stable in time (Bongers, Koot, Van der Ende, Verhulst, 2003; Sterba, Prinstein, Cox, 2007). Internalizing problems are usually manifested through anxiety, withdrawal and sadness (Campbell, 1995; 2002)

Our study aimed to: (1) to explore the differences on emotional and behavioral problems [broad band scales] regarding the age and gender of children. It was hypothesized that there will be differences between girls and boys and between ages in several scales.

Methodology

The study sample

The sample included 236 children (123 or 52.1% boys and 113 or 47.9% girls), with a mean age of 11 years (SD .835) (range: 10-12 years). 86 of them (36.4%) were in the fourth grade; 72 of them (30.5%) were in the fifth grade and 78 or

33.1 % from the total number of children were in the sixth grade. In the chi-square test, no important differences were reported in the distribution of the percentages of gender and grade representation in this study.

From 236 parents participated in the study, 92 of them or 39.0 % were mothers, while only 144 of them or 61.0 % were fathers. In the chi-square test, there were important differences reported in the distribution of the percentages of parent's gender and their employment rates. The parents voluntarily completed the questionnaire.

Table 1

Descriptive data for children by gender, grade, place living and by gender and employment status for parents.

	Valid Nr.	Percentile	Chi-square test
Male	123	52.1	
Female	113	47.9	$\chi^2(1) = .424, p = .515$
Village	7	3.0	
City	229	97.0	$\chi^2(1) = 208.831, p = .000$
Grade 4	86	36.4	
Grade 5	72	30.5	$\chi^2(1) = 1.254, p = .534$
Grade 6	78	33.1	
Fathers	144	61.0	
Mothers	92	39.0	$\chi^2(1) = 11.458, p = .001$
Father employment	173	73.3	
Mother employment	89	37.7	$\chi^2(1) = 9.646, p = .002$

Table 2

Mean and Standard Deviation for family income, member of family, number of children; parents age and level of education and childrens age.

	Mean	SD
Children Age	10.97	.835
Parents age	40.36	5.89
Fathers education level	12.76	2.50
Mothers education level	11.61	2.81
Family income €	519.87	290.72
Family members	5.49	1.64
Children numbers	2.85	1.15

Instruments and data collection

The CBCL the 2001 edition (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001) contains 118 items items rated 0-1-2 (0 = *not true (as far as you know)*; 1 = *somewhat or sometimes true*; or 2 = *very true or often true*) plus 1 open-ended problem items, that describe the behaviour of children and adolescents between the ages of 6 and 18 years. Empirically based syndrome scales scored from the CBCL 6-18, are: Anxious/Depressed, Withdrawn/Depressed, Somatic Complaints, Social Problems, Thought Problems, Attention Problems, Rule-Breaking Behavior, and Aggressive Behavior. The CBCL scales have been shown to have a consistency of .890

The procedure of data analysis

The statistical package SPSS for Windows, version 19 was used to analyse the quantitative data collected. During the analysis a specific code was used for the identification of information for each child and parent. Descriptive statistics, chi-square test, Pearson correlation, T-test, and ANOVA were used to explore and analyse the differences, correlations of interest variables in the study on broad band of emotional and behavioural scales.

Results

To characterize the sample population, the outcome variable was stratified by demographic variables. Table 3 shows the difference in number, mean scores and standard deviations by age, gender and parenting style

Table 3

Number, Mean scores and standard deviations for broad band scales by age.

	10 years			11 years			12 years			Total children		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Internalizing	86	1.46	.80	72	1.47	.78	78	1.38	.71	236	1.44	.77
Externalizing	86	1.10	.43	72	1.06	.30	78	1.05	.22	236	1.07	.33
Total Problems	86	1.24	.63	72	1.16	.47	78	1.19	.56	236	1.20	.56

Table 4

Number, Mean scores and standard deviations for broad band scales by gender.

	Gender	N	M	SD
Internalizing	F	113	1.45	.75
	M	123	1.43	.78
	F+M	236	1.44	.77
Externalizing	F	113	1.08	.37
	M	123	1.06	.31
	F+M	236	1.07	.33
Total Problems	F	113	1.22	.58
	M	123	1.18	.54
	F+M	236	1.20	.56

Table 5

The inter correlation between broad band scales.

		INTER	EXTER	TOTAL
Internalizing	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
Externalizing	Pearson Correlation	.430**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		
Total problems	Pearson Correlation	.690**	.570**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The t-test analysis did not revealed differences in broad band scales regarding the gender. The results obtained through ANOVA indicated not significant differences. As shown in the Table 3, younger children (10 years old) had a very similar mean in almost all broad band scales as older children (11 and 12 years old), . The results obtained were: for internalizing $F(2) = .311, p = .733$; for externalizing $F(2) = .533, p = .587$; for total problems $F(2) = .393, p = .675$.

Discussion

The study suggests that there will be gender and age differences regarding the broad band scales. Our results did not show statistical differences between boys and girls in none of the scales. There were not found significant different in ages. The results from table 3 and 4, shows that all children gain similar results in almost all scales.

From the results, specifically the correlations obtained, while statistically significant in the direction, were moderate. There were positive and moderate to high relationship between internalizing and total problems, as well as between externalizing and total problems.

The average values of total are not markedly different to those found in other studies. The scores in this study are slightly higher, but consistent with previous research. The lack of significant differences was unexpected.

Although more research is needed to develop a better understanding of the emotional and behavioural problems among 10-12 years old children, the present study is an important endeavour in this direction. The aim is to provide a picture of children's emotional and behavioural problems. This would include investigating emotional and behavioural problems in different contexts as assessed by parents, teachers as well as by self-reports. Moreover, it would also encompass exploring various environmental factors to assess their influence on different types of emotional and behavioural problems. Furthermore, researchers can also obtain urban and rural samples to have a better understanding of the types of problems that children face in different physical environments. Each of these goals will ultimately assist in the development of a broader picture of emotional and behavioural problems among our children in this age group.

Acknowledgements

The author gratefully acknowledges the participants in the study.

References

- Achenbach, T.M., Rescorla, L.A. (2000). *Manual for ASEBA Preschool Forms & Profiles*. Burlington, VT: Research Center for Children, Youth, and Families, University of Vermont
- Bongers, I.L., Koot, H. M., Van der Ende, J. & Verhulst, F. C. (2003). The normative development of child and adolescent problem behavior. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 112*, 179-192. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.112.2.179>
- Campbell, S. B. (1995). Behavioral problems in preschool children: A review of recent research. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 36*(1), 113-149. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1995.tb01657.x>
- Campbell, S. B. (2002). *Behavior problems in preschool children: Clinical and developmental issues*. New York/London: Guilford Press.
- Campbell, S.B., Shaw, D. S. & Gilliom, M. (2000). Early externalising behaviour problems: Toddlers and pre-schoolers at risk for later maladjustment. *Development and psychopathology, 12*, 467-488
- Dearing, E., McCartney, K., & Taylor, B.A. (2006). Within-child associations between family income and externalizing and internalizing problems. *Developmental Psychology, Vol.42*(2), 237-252.
- Eisenberg, N., Gershoff, E.T., Fabes, R.A., Shepard, S.A., Cumberland, A.J., Losoya, S.H., Guthrie, I.K., Murphy, B.C. (2001). Mother's emotional expressivity and children's behavior problems and social competence: Mediation through children's regulation. *Developmental Psychology, 37*:475–490
- Farrington, D.P. (1991). *Childhood aggression and adult violence: Early precursors and later-life outcomes*. In *The Development and Treatment of Childhood Aggression*, edited by D.J. Pepler and K.H. Rubin. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, pp. 5–29.
- Hinshaw, S.P. (1987). On the distinction between attention deficits/hyperactivity and conduct problems/aggression in child psychopathology. *Psychological Bulletin, 101*, 446- 463, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.101.3.443>
- Luby, J. L., Heffelfinger, A. K., Mrakotsky, C., Brown, K. M., Hessler, M. J., & Wallis, J. M. (2003). The clinical picture of depression in preschool children. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 42*, 340–348.
- Patterson, G. R., Reid, J. B., & Dishion, T. J. (1992). *A social learning approach: IV. Antisocial boys*. Eugene, OR: Castalia Publishing Co.
- Sterba, S. K., M. J. Prinstein, and M. J. Cox. (2007). Trajectories of internalizing problems across childhood: heterogeneity, external validity, and gender differences. *Developmental Psychopathology, 19*(2): 345-66
- Tremblay, R. E. (2000). The development of aggressive behavior during childhood: What have we learned in the past century? *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 24*, 129–134.
- Tremblay, R. E., Pihl, R.O., Vitaro, F., & Dobkin, P.L. (1994). Predicting early onset of male antisocial behavior from preschool behavior. *Archives of General Psychiatry, 1*, 732-739.

Parents Perception About the Correlation of Emotional Intelligence Trait and Empirical Scales of Emotional and Behavior Problems Scales of Children 10-12 Years Old

Evis Fili

European University of Tirana-UET

Abstract

Aim: To explore the parent perception about the correlation of emotional intelligence trait and empirical scales of emotional and behavior problems scales of children 10-12 years old. It was hypothesized that there will be positive relationship between scales. **Methods:** We used two questionnaires for collecting the data, the TEIQue-Child Form questionnaire for the emotional intelligence and CBCL (6-18 years) the 2001 edition (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001). Pearson correlation was used to explore the correlation between scales. The sample included 185 children (98 or 53% boys and 87 or 47 % girls), with a mean age of 11 years (SD .83). 62 of them (33.5%) were 10 years old; 57 of them (30.8%) were 11 years old and 66 or 35.7 % from the total number of children were 12 years old. From 185 parents participated in the study, 92 of them or 49.7 % were mothers, while 93 of them or 50.03 % were fathers. The chi-square test, reported no important differences neither for children nor for parents. **Results:** Correlation analysis mostly indicated low and negative but non-significant relationship between EI and EB empirical scales, for all children and by gender and age. There was low positive correlation only between empirical scales themselves.

Keywords: relationship, children, emotional intelligence, empirical emotional and problem behavior scale, parent.

Introduction

Mayer et al. (1999) defined emotional intelligence using a theoretical model focusing on emotional skills that can be developed through learning and experience, posited that emotional intelligence is comprised of three central abilities: 1) perceiving (i.e. the entering of affective information into one's perception), 2) understanding (i.e. the act of processing affective information), and 3) managing emotions (i.e. regulation and expression of emotions.). The construct of emotional intelligence (EI) - the ability to identify, process, and manage emotions, in both oneself and others (Goleman, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) - has received widespread attention, both within popular press and scholarly journals, ever since its inception in the 1990's.

Mayer & Salovey (1999) carried out a study which aimed at identifying the dimensional Emotional Intelligence as it represents a scalable capacity for individuals by applying a multi factor Emotional Intelligence standard, tested on 290 high school students, aging 11 to 18 years old. The findings were: girls exceeded boys in EI scores, elder adolescents (boy, girls) exceeded younger counterparts in the study.

Emotionally intelligent individuals, are less likely to experience negative emotions, and concomitantly, more likely to experience positive emotions (Mikolajczak, Nelis, Hansenne, & Quoidbach, 2008), they are more adept at directing their thoughts away from negative emotions and are less likely to engage in dysfunctional worry and excessive rumination (Salovey et al., 2000) and they engage in more active coping responses to stressful situations (Zeidner & Saklofske, 1996).

Regarding the emotional and behavior problems, research generally suggests two key entry points in the development of behavioral problems – early childhood and early adolescence with potentially different risk factors associated with each of them (Lahey, Waldman, McBurnett, 1999). Epidemiological data indicate that 15–20% of school age children suffer relatively serious behavioural and emotional problems which significantly compromise their everyday functioning in multiple domains. A review of various epidemiological studies of emotional and behavioral problems of children and adolescents (Angold & Costello, 1993) suggests that the problems are on the rise. In one interesting study Robert, Attkinson and Rosenblatt (1998) reviewed 52 epidemiological studies to estimate the prevalence of emotional and behavioral problems of children and adolescents concluded that a great deal of variation exists in the prevalence rates.

Problems result from interactions between characteristics of the child and situations within the family, peer group, school and community.

Several studies have shown that emotional abilities are of particular relevance to psychological health and wellbeing. In addition, it has been found that emotional problems are related to the tendency to get involved in deviant behavior and self-destructive.

Our study aimed to: (1) to explore the relationships of emotional intelligence and empirical emotional and problems behavior scales. It was hypothesized that there will be positive relationship between scales.

Methodology

The study sample

The sample included 185 children (98 or 53% boys and 87 or 47 % girls), with a mean age of 11 years (SD .83). 62 of them (33.5%) were 10 years old; 57 of them (30.8%) were 11 years old and 66 or 35.7 % from the total number of children were 12 years old. Only 7 out of 185 children lived in the village. The chi-square test, reported no important differences in the distribution of the percentages of gender and age representation in this study, while there were statistical differences between children living in city with those living in the village.

From 185 parents participated in the study, 92 of them or 49.7 % were mothers, while 93 of them or 50.03 % were fathers. In the chi-square test, there were not important differences reported in the distribution of the percentages of parent's gender. The parents voluntarily completed the questionnaire.

Table 1

Descriptive data for children by gender, age and place of living.

	<i>Valid Nr.</i>	<i>Percentile</i>	<i>Chi-square test</i>
Male	98	53	
Female	87	47	$\chi^2 (1) = .654, p = .659$
10 years old	62	33.5	
11 years old	57	30.8	$\chi^2 (2) = .659, p = .719$
12 years old	66	35.7	
Living in village	7	3.8	$\chi^2 (1) = 158.06, p = .00$
Living in city	178	96.2	

Table 2

Number and percentile of parents by gender, and mean and standard deviation for age, education level and family outcomes

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Children Age	11.02	.83
Parents age	39.86	5.98
Fathers education level in years	12.61	2.39
Mothers education level in years	11.52	2.88
Family outcome living in city	518.52	301.94
Family outcome living in village	478.57	221.47
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentile</i>
Father	93	50.3
Mother	92	49.7
	$\chi^2 (1) = .654, p = .659$	

Instruments and data collection

We used two questionnaires for collecting the data, the TEIQue-Child Form questionnaire for the emotional intelligence and CBCL (6-18 years) the 2001 edition (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001).

The TEIQue-Child Form questionnaire, contains 75 items responded to on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 2 = *disagree*; 3 = *neither*; 4= *Agree*; 5=*strongly agree*), and measures nine distinct facets (Mavroveli, Petrides, Shove, & Whitehead, 2008). For our study we used the total score of EI. The Child Form that has been specifically developed for children aged between 8 and 12 years. The TEIQue scales have been shown to have a consistency of .718. The CBCL the 2001 edition (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001) contains 118 items items rated 0-1-2 (0 = *not true (as far as you know)*; 1 = *somewhat or sometimes true*; or 2 = *very true or often true*) plus 1 open-ended problem items, that describe the behaviour of children and adolescents between the ages of 6 and 18 years. Empirically based syndrome scales scored from the CBCL 6-18, are: Anxious/Depressed, Withdrawn/Depressed, Somatic Complaints, Social Problems, Thought Problems, Attention Problems, Rule-Breaking Behavior, and Aggressive Behavior. The CBCL scales have been shown to have a consistency of .730

The procedure of data analysis

A specific code was used for the identification of information for each child and parent. Descriptive statistics, chi-square test, and Pearson correlation, were used to explore and analyse the correlations of interest variables in the study on total EI and empirically based syndrome scales. The statistical package SPSS for Windows, version 21 was used.

Results

To characterize the sample population, the outcome variable was stratified by demographic variable. Table 3 and 4 shows the mean scores and standard deviations by gender, age and for all children.

Table 3

Number, Mean scores and Standard deviations for EI and EB empirical scales by gender.

	Gender	Total children		
		N	Mean	SD
Anxious/Depressed	F	87	1.14	.44
	M	98	1.14	.43
	F+M	185	1.14	.43
Withdrawn/Depressed	F	87	1.08	.31
	M	98	1.14	.41
	F+M	185	1.11	.37
Somatic Complaints	F	87	1.13	.45
	M	98	1.09	.38
	F+M	185	1.11	.42
Social Problems,	F	87	1.05	.26
	M	98	1.10	.36
	F+M	185	1.08	.32
Thought Problems,	F	87	1.09	.39
	M	98	1.04	.25
	F+M	185	1.06	.32
Attention Problems,	F	87	1.08	.35
	M	98	1.03	.26
	F+M	185	1.05	.29
Rule-Breaking Behavior	F	87	1.00	.00
	M	98	1.01	.10
	F+M	185	1.01	.07
Aggressive Behavior	F	87	1.07	.29
	M	98	1.03	.17
	F+M	185	1.05	.24
	F	87	2.01	.77

Total EI	M	98	2.09	.79
	F+M	185	2.04	.78

Table 4

Number, Mean scores and Standard deviations for EI and EB empirical scales by age.

	Gender	Total children		
		N	Mean	SD
Anxious/Depressed	10 years	62	1.19	.54
	11 years	57	1.07	.26
	12 years	66	1.15	.44
Withdrawn/Depressed	10 years	62	1.10	.35
	11 years	57	1.16	.41
	12 years	66	1.09	.34
Somatic Complaints	10 years	62	1.15	.47
	11 years	57	1.12	.46
	12 years	66	1.06	.29
Social Problems,	10 years	62	1.06	.36
	11 years	57	1.02	.13
	12 years	66	1.14	.39
Thought Problems,	10 years	62	1.10	.39
	11 years	57	1.02	.13
	12 years	66	1.08	.36
Attention Problems,	10 years	62	1.10	.43
	11 years	57	1.05	.22
	12 years	66	1.02	.12
Rule-Breaking Behavior	10 years	62	1.02	.13
	11 years	57	1.00	.00
	12 years	66	1.00	.00
Aggressive Behavior	10 years	62	1.08	.33
	11 years	57	1.04	.19
	12 years	66	1.03	.17
Total EI	10 years	62	1.94	.67
	11 years	57	2.18	.76
	12 years	66	2.03	.88

Table 5

The correlation between EI and EB empirical scales.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
EI -1	Pearson Correlation	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)								
SOMAT-2	Pearson Correlation	-.048	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.516							
SOCIAL-3	Pearson Correlation	.052	.183	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.481	.013						

THOUGHT-4	Pearson Correlation	-011	-.052 .162* 1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.880	.478 .028		
ATTENTION-5	Pearson Correlation	-.010	-.049 .306** .542** 1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.888	.510 .000 .000		
RULE-6	Pearson Correlation	-.004	-.019-.017-.015-.014 1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.956	.795 .814 .841 .852		
AGGRESS-7	Pearson Correlation	.105	.056 .376** .450** .431** .294** 1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.154	.449 .000 .000 .000 .000		
ANX -8	Pearson Correlation	-.018	.248** .550** .401** .460** .147* .406** 1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.806	.001 .000 .000 .000 .046 .000		
WITHDRAWN-9	Pearson Correlation	.059	.133 .575** .213** .352**-.023 .371** .483** 1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.425	.071 .000 .004 .000 .757 .000 .000		

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Pearson correlations analysis did not revealed significant relationships between in EI and EB empirical scales. The results obtained indicated low and positive relationships only between empirical scales themselves.

Discussion

The main aim of this study was to explore the relationships of emotional intelligence total score and empirical emotional and problems behavior scales, according to parents perception. It was hypothesized that there will be differences between girls and boys and there will be positive relationships between scales.

From the results obtained from the correlations analyses, there was no statistical significance. The results obtained indicated low and positive relationships only between empirical scales themselves.

It was expected that the variables of emotional intelligence and behavior problems have a correlation on each other. These results are inconsistent with the significant number of studies that revealed that EI is negatively related to several indices of psychopathology (Malterer, Glass, & Newman, 2008) such as frustration or distress (Epstein, 1998); managing emotions (Karim, 2011); dysfunctional worry and excessive rumination (Salovey et al., 2000)

Our results are also inconsistent with the findings of Taghavi et al. (1999); Cicchetti & Toth (1998); Schmidt & Andrykowski (2004); Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, (2004).

These results showed that there is a need for further studies involving cultural variables in order to explore more in depth the issue.

Acknowledgements

The author gratefully acknowledges the participants in the study.

Bibliography

- Angold, A., Costello, E.J., & Erkanli, A. (1999). Comorbidity. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 40, 57–87
- Brackett, M. A., Mayer, J. D., & Warner, R. M. (2004). Emotional intelligence and its relation to everyday behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36, 1387-1402.
- Cicchetti, D. and S.L. Toth, 1998. The development of depression in children and adolescents. *Am. Psychol.*, 53: 221-241.
- Epstein, S. (1998). *Constructive thinking: The key to emotional intelligence*. New York: Praeger.
- Goleman, D. (2001). Emotional intelligence: Issues in paradigm building. In C. Cherniss &
- D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace*, (pp. 13-26), Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.
- Lahey, B.B., Waldman, I.D., & McBurnett, K. (1999). The development of antisocial behavior: An integrative causal model. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 40, 669-682.
- Malterer, M. B., Glass, S. J., & Newman, J. P. (2008). Psychopathy and trait emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 44, 735–745.

Mayer, J.D. & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D.J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Educational Implications* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27, 267–298.

Mikolajczak, M., Nelis, D., Hansenne, M., & Quoidbach, J. (2008). If you can regulate sadness, you can probably regulate shame: Associations between trait emotional intelligence, emotion regulation and coping efficiency across discrete emotions. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 44, 1356–1368.

Roberts, R. E., Attkisson, C. C., & Rosenblatt, A. (1998). Prevalence of psychopathology among children and adolescents. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 155, 715–725.
PMid:9619142

Taghavi, M.R., H.T. Neshat-Dost, A.R. Moradi, W. Yule and T. Dalgleish, 1999. Biases in visual attention in children and adolescents with clinical anxiety and mixed anxiety-depression. *J. Abno. Child. Psychol.*, 27: 223-223.

Schmidt, J. E., & Andrykowski, M. A. (2004). The role of social and dispositional variables associated with emotional processing in adjustment to breast cancer: an internet-based study. *Health Psychology*, 23, 259–266

Salovey, P., Rothman, A.J., Detweiler, J.B., & Steward, W.T. (2000). Emotional states and physical health. *American Psychologist*, 55, 110–121.

Zeidner, M., & Saklofske, D. S. (1996). Adaptive and maladaptive coping. In M. Zeidner & N. S. Endler (eds.), *Handbook of coping* (pp. 505–531). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Regular Econometric Model of Taylor for Albania

Av. Ergys Misha

Lawyer

Abstract

The Taylor's Rule Central Banks is applying widely today from Central Banks for design the monetary policy and for determination of interest rates. The purpose of this paper is to assess monetary policy rule in Albania, in view of an inflation targeting regime. In the first version of the Model, the Taylor's Rule assumes that base interest rate of the monetary policy varies depending on the change of (1) the inflation rate and (2) economic growth (Output Gap). Through this paper it is proposed changing the objective of the Bank of Albania by adding a new objective, that of "financial stability", along with the "price stability". This means that it is necessary to reassess the Taylor's Rule by modifying it with incorporation of indicators of financial stability. In the case of Albania, we consider that there is no regular market of financial assets in the absence of the Stock Exchange. For this reason, we will rely on the credit developmet - as a way to measure the financial cycle in the economy. In this case, the base rate of monetary policy will be changed through: (1) Targeting Inflation Rate, (2) Nominal Targeting of Economic Growth, and (3) Targeting the Gap of the Ratio Credit/GDP (mitigating the boom cycle, if the gap is positive, and the contractiocyte if the gap is negative). The research data show that, it is necessary that the Bank of Albania should also include in its objective maintaining the financial stability. In this way, the contribution expected from the inclusion of credit gap indicators in Taylor's Rule, will be higher and sustainable in time.¹

Keywords: Taylor Rule, Bank of Albania, Inflation targeting, Output gap, Credit gap.

Introduction

The literature suggest the Taylor's Rule to assess the monetary policy. Furthmore this Rule is applying widely today from Central Banks for design the monetary policy and for determination of interest rates.

According to Taylor (1993), monetary policy can be explained directly with a rule which link key interest rate of monetary policy with (1) deviation of inflation rate and (2) economic growth from their target level or potential level respectively. With the proposal of this Rule, the monetary policy could quantify in a measurable way while also explaining the position of the Central Bank from macroeconomic shocks or from the fulfilling of their primary objective such as (1) inflation, or seconday as could be (2) economic growth.

The main instrument of the monetary policy in Albania is short term nominal interest rate. The Central Bank use this instrument (interest rate) to achieve the desired/targeted inflation rate. Evethough, it is supposed that the Central Bank react also to the output gap, although a lower persistent than in the case of the inflation gap.

In the case we assess the Rule of Taylor for the monetary policy, this imply that the interest rate is changed according to the deviation of targeted variables such as (1) **Inflation** and (2) **Output**, from their desired value.

Methodology

The evaluation of the Model will be done will OLS methodology (*Ordinary Least Squares Method*). This method estimates the linear relationship that exists between independent variables and the dependent ones. **The dependent variable is the base interest rate of the monetary policy**, while independent variables will be defined in terms of target's monetary policy respectively: **Inflation targeting**, by lowering the difference between actual and targeted inflation (desired) (3%); **closing**

¹ (This paper is part of the theme "Achieving the price stability and maintain the financial stability, two main important objectives of the Central Banks" - from the study prepared for getting the scientific grade "Doctor of Economic Sciences" of the Author).

of the Output Gap, defined as the difference between actual and potential output and, in the main proposal that constitutes the main contribution of this paper; **closing the Credit Gap**, that is the difference between actual and potential loan level. The last independent variable, ie the **Credit Gap**, is presented by this paper as an extension of the mandate of the Bank of Albania, to include also the financial stability.

The main variables

The purpose of this section is to estimate the monetary policy rule in Albania, in view of an inflation targeting regime.

The dependent variable is the base interest rate of the monetary policy (**Interest Rate**). Bank of Albania started to use indirect instruments of monetary policy in January 2001. The data used for **Interest Rate** are (1) **the rate of refinancing of the Bank of Albania before this date**, and (2) **weekly repurchase agreement rates**, in the coming period, and lie on a quarterly basis in the period 1998-2015. The source of data is the Bank of Albania.

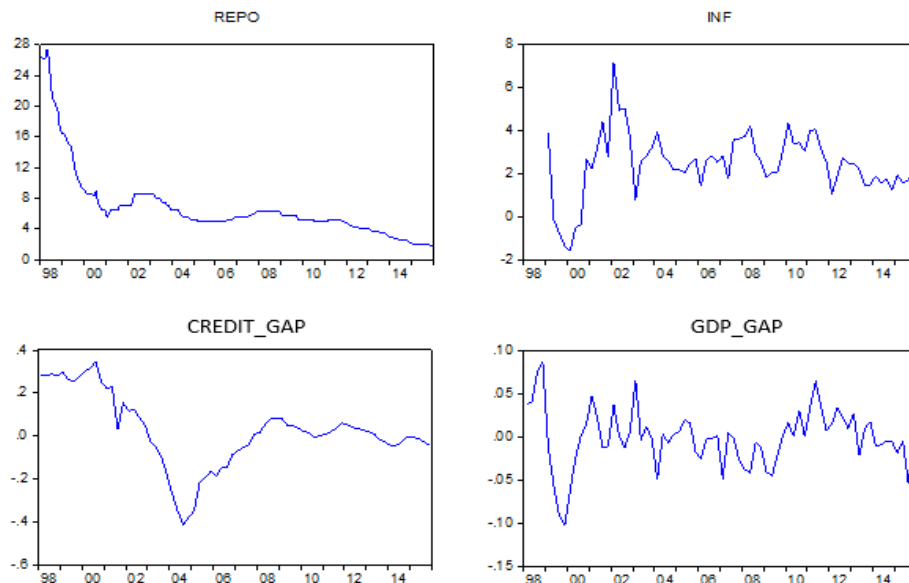
The first independent variable is **Inflation Rate** and the its difference to the targeted inflation rate. *Inflation rate is measured as the annual change in the Consumer Price Index, while targeted inflation rate is assumed to be 3 %, after the Bank of Albania has set the target inflation in the range of 3 +/- 1 %.* The source of data is the Bank of Albania.

The second independent variable is **Output Gap**, which in the Model is measured as the difference between the actual level of GDP (gross domestic product) and its potential level. The data about GDP are reported by Institute of Statistics on a quarterly basis. To assess the level of potential GDP, is used **HP filter** (Hodrick Prescott), which serves to separate into the two components (*long-term average and volatility on long-term average*) the GDP indicator.

Output Gap = Gross Domestic Product – Potential Gross Domestic Product

The third independent variable which will be used to assess the modified Taylor Rule is the **Credit Gap**, whose assessment will be presented below.

Evaluation of the Taylor rule with the usual method of Ordinary Least Squares, is made in the **EViews program**. The trend of indicators is presented graphically and identifies some periods.



Repo rate shows some accommodative and tightening cycles of the monetary policy. Generally, up to 2002, the moment when the inflation grew, it is characterized by the reduction of the base interest rate. After that period, in order to reduce

the inflation rate, tight monetary policy is implemented until the end of 2004. Further, the reduction of inflation and of the positive output gap, is accompanied by a reduction in the base interest rate until the end of 2006. The beginning of 2007 marks a rapid growth of credit to the economy which passed over the potential level, along with the rapid expansion of the economy. Overheating of the economy in this period was accompanied by high inflation and tighter monetary policy accordingly. The end of 2008 marked the first cycle of accommodative monetary policy. The increase of inflation rate above the level of 3 %, record a brief period of tightening monetary policy. Meanwhile, starting from June 2011, the monetary policy has entered into its longer accommodative cycle, with consecutive cuts of base interest rate.

Research Questions

In the first version of the Model, the Taylor's Rule assumes that base interest rate of the monetary policy varies depending on the change of (1) **the inflation rate** and (2) **economic growth**. Research questions for this model are:

- **What is the relationship between the movement of base interest rate of monetary policy and inflation?**
- **What is the relationship between the movement of base interest rate of monetary policy and the Output Gap?**

Consequently, **the first hypothesis** is: **The relative change of base interest rate of monetary policy depends on the relative difference in the inflation rate, economic growth and the sustainability of the base interest rate** (coefficient C(2) in Model).

To test the first hypothesis, following is the statistical presentation of the Taylor Rule Model, which aims to assess the relationship between Repo rate (dependend variable) and Inflation Rate (independed variable) and Output Gap (dependend variable):

$$R = c(1) + c(2)*R(-1) + c(3)*Inf + (1-c(3))*(inf+4)-3 + c(4)*GAP(-1)$$

Where: **R** – is the base rate of the monetary policy

Inf – is annual inflation rate

3% is the level of target inflation rate

Gap – is the difference between actual level of GDP and its potential level.

Coefficient C(1) is a constant which explains developments in the dependent variable which are not explained by the independent variables.

Coefficient C(2) assesses the sustainability of the base interest rate. How much does it change from 1% increase of base rate of the previous quarter.

Coefficient C(3) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and annual inflation rate. How much does it change from 1% increase of inflation rate. Meanwhile, the relationship between expected inflation (after one year) and the target level of 3 %, is estimated as 1 – coefficient C(3) (1 minus coefficient C(3)).

Coefficient C(4) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and Output Gap. How much does it change from 1% increase of the difference between GDP and potencial level of GDP.

Model evaluation results are shown in Table 1

Table 1

Evaluation of Taylor's Rule for Albania

Dependent Variable: REPO

Method: Least Squares

Sample (adjusted): 1999Q1 2014Q4

Included observations: 64 after adjustments

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C(1)	-0.833762	0.263234	-3.167376	0.0024
C(2)	0.944428	0.033816	27.92879	0.0000
C(3)	0.457651	0.044385	10.31101	0.0000
C(4)	0.064541	0.017136	3.766367	0.0004
R-squared	0.921573	Mean dependent var		6.096354
Adjusted R-squared	0.917652	S.D. dependent var		2.407029
S.E. of regression	0.690730	Akaike info criterion		2.158325
Sum squared resid	28.62645	Schwarz criterion		2.293255
Log likelihood	-65.06640	Hannan-Quinn criter.		2.211481
Durbin-Watson stat	1.241635			

The results of the Model suggest that there is a statistically significant relationship between the trend of the interest rate of monetary policy and developments of Inflation and the Output Gap. By replacing statistical model coefficients with corresponding values presented in Table 1, the Model presents as follows:

$$R = -0.83 + 0.94R(-1) + 0.45 \cdot \text{inf} + (1-0.45) \cdot (\text{inf} - 3) + 0.06 \cdot \text{GAP}(-1)$$

Coefficient C(1), which is a constant which explains developments in the dependent variable which are not explained by the independent variables, is assessed -0.83.

Coefficient C(2) assesses the sustainability of the base interest rate and its level is high, 0.94. This coefficient assess that the increase with 1 point percent of base interest rate in previous quarter, increase the actual base rate with 0.94 point percent, and this also supported by graphical presentation which shows that change of Repos is gradual and volatile in time.

Coefficient C(3) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and annual inflation rate and its level is 0.45. In this case, the increase with 1 point percent of inflation rate, increase the base rate with 0.45 point percent. From the other side, the increase of expected inflation (after one year) above the level of 3%, increase the base rate with (1-0.45), so with 0.55 point percent.

Coefficient C(4) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and Output Gap and its level is low, 0.06. This means that, the increase of economy with 1 point percent higher than its potential level, increase the base interest rate of monetary policy with 0.06 point percent.

Model results show that the connection that exists between the rate of the previous quarter and the current interest rate of monetary policy is important. The coefficient of 0.94 is higher than the coefficient of Inflation 0.45 and from the coefficient of economy's increase 0.06. Also, Bank of Albania react more in the case where the inflation is over the target level of 3%, rather than in the case where the economy is increased over the potential level and is overheating. The Model explain about 92% of changes in the base rate, because R²=0.92.

These results apply also to the case when the economy is falling and inflation is below the level of 3%. In this case, the Bank of Albania react by reduce the base interest rate if it has reduced the base rate in the previous quarter, followed by a further reduction if inflation is below the target level of 3% level and economic growth below its potential level.

To measure the statistical significance of each coefficient of the model, we build main hypotheses and alternative ones, as follows:

Main Hypothese 1: There does not exist the relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the rate of previous quarter:

$$C(2)=0$$

Alternative Hypothesis 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the rate of previous quarter:

$C^*(2) \neq 0$

To assess the statistical significance of the coefficient, build statistics "t" (presented in the respective column in Table 1).

$$t = \frac{C^*_{*2} - C_2}{dev. stand. C^*_{*2}}$$

If this value is above the level of 1.96 (that is a static indicator, which is not calculated), then the coefficient is statistically significant/important, the probability (p-value) that the basic hypothesis is true is less than 10% (that is accepted error).

For Coefficient C(2), result that $t_{\text{statistic}} = 27.9$, and the propability of error **p-value = 0.00**. In this case the basic hypothesis falls down and is accepted that alternative indicating that there is a statistically significant link between the base rate of the previous quarter and the current one.

Main Hypothesis 2: There does not exist the statistic relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the inflation rate:

$C(3) = 0$

Alternative Hypothesis 2: There is a statistically significant relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the inflation rate:

$C(3) \neq 0$

For Coefficient C(3), result that $t_{\text{statistic}} = 10.3$, and the propability of error **p-value = 0.00**. In this case the basic hypothesis falls down and is accepted that alternative indicating that there is a statistically significant link between the base rate and the inflation rate.

Main Hypothesis 3: There does not exist the statistic relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the economic growth of previous quarter:

$C(4) = 0$

Alternative Hypothesis 3: There is a statistically significant relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the economic growth of previous quarter inflation rate:

$C(4) \neq 0$

For Coefficient C(4), result that $t_{\text{statistic}} = 3.76$ and the propability of error **p-value = 0.00**. In this case the basic hypothesis falls down and is accepted that alternative indicating that there is a statistically significant link between the base rate and the economic growth.

Assessment of monetary policy rule including financial stability: Modified Taylor's Rule

The estimated approach of Taylor's Rule as above, means that the Central Bank react through **interest rate** movement based on (1) **Inflation Gap** and (2) **Output Gap**, in accordance with the Bank of Albania objective to maintain price level stability.

What is proposed?

It is proposed changing the objective of the Bank of Albania by adding a new objective, that of "**financial stability**", along with the price stability.

The proposal to extend the objective of the Central Bank in terms of maintaining financial stability, means that it is necessary to reassess the Taylor's Rule by modifying it with incorporation of indicators of financial stability.

This paper proposes that the Central Bank should expand its objective, and presents a first assessment of the modified Taylor's Rule.

To find a solution, the literature and practice of developed countries proposed several approaches to the measurement of financial stability, such as:

- (1) Prices of financial assets
- (2) Indicator of Credit development
- (3) Etc..

In the case of Albania, we consider that there is no regular market of financial assets in the absence of the Stock Exchange. For this reason, we will rely on the credit development - as a way to measure the financial cycle in the economy.

According to *Minsky (1972) and Kindleberger (1978)*, **periods of overheating or excess boom in credit, clearly tend to become a source for the emergence of the financial crisis.**

The empirical findings of many authors (such as *Alessi and Detken (2009)*, *Borgy and the others (2009)*, *Borio and Lowe (2002, 2004)*, *Drehmann and the others (2010, 2011)*, and *Schularick and Taylor (2012)*), lead us to the conclusion that **indicators of credit growth perform well as early warning signals by providing preliminary financial crisis signals.**

Dell'Ariccia and others (2012) conclude that:

- **1/3** (a third) increased in credit outstanding **is followed by a financial crisis**, and
- **3/5 are followed with a period of poor economic performance** (measured by the difference between the growth of actual GDP with its potential level), **for a period up to six years after the end of overheating period (boom period).**

The empirical findings at the micro level, according to *Mendoza and Terrones (2008)*, **show that the capital adequacy ratio of the bank tends to decline during the credit boom period**, but the determination and identification of the *boom periods* is tricky.

The Basel Committee for Banking Supervision (BCBS) has recommended the indicator of Credit Gap, **measured as the deviation of the ratio of credit/GDP, versus the long-term trend for the measurement of the financial cycle and the boom periods of credit in the economy.**

According to this recommendation:

Loan outstanding is measured as loans granted to individuals and businesses, including loan granted by non-banks financial institutions and credits from abroad.

The Basel Committee further **proposes that the long-term trend of the ratio of credit to GDP (loans/GDP) is calculated through the Hodrick - Prescott filter (HP).**

The Method HP (Hodrick Prescott), or as it is known in the literature **HP filter**, decomposes the Credit time series, C_t (current loans outstanding) into two components:

- Long-term average (C_t^*) (LR average) that can be interpreted as the potential level of the loan, and
- Growth component or fluctuations around the long-term average (G_t) (growth rate):

$$C_t = C_t^* + G_t \quad (3)$$

This method is based on the assumption that growth component fluctuates around the long-term average with amplitude being flattened in time. Consequently, the average deviations of credit from *potential loan level* assumed to approach to zero in the long run period.

HP filter minimizes the variance of the long-term average by a given weight λ for the variance of the second difference of the component of growth. This is expressed in the following function:

$$MinL = \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^T G_t^2 + \lambda \sum_{t=2}^T (\Delta Y) \right\} \quad (4)$$

Where the λ penalizes the variance in growth component. A small amount of λ forms a potential production that varies according to loan trend, while a high value of λ reduces the loan trend elasticity from a short-term fluctuations. While λ goes towards infinit, the long-term trend which is obtained from the filter HP, appear like a linear time series.

The value of λ can be get according to desired flattening level of the final trend. Generally for quarterly data it chooses the value 1600, and for annual data the value from 100 to 10. **By their application it can be clearly seen that the higher the value of λ , the greater is the difference of the series of actual credit level to the series of its trend.**

In normal conditions, for developed countries, the Basel Committee's recommendation is the application of a softening parameter of 400,000. For less developed countries, which does not have a long time series of data on loan outstanding, it is recommended that the smoothing parameter of filter to be at 25,000 or even lower. The literature does not suggest an optimal level of this filter, so we used the basic assumption that for quarterly datas, the value is 1600.

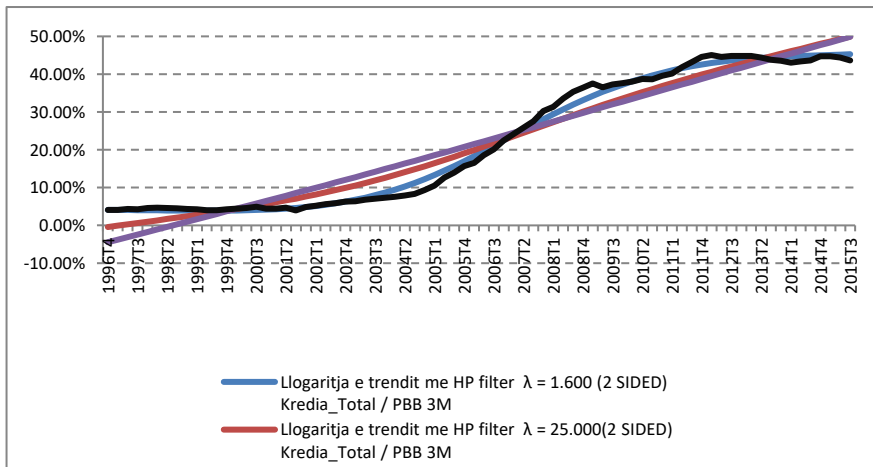
By using this approach, **the chart below estimates the long-term trend of the ratio "credit/GDP" through several levels of smoothing parameter of HP filter (Hodrick Prescott), respectively with 1,600; 25,000 and 400,000.**

As expected, due to the short time series of data on credit outstanding, the increase of smoothing parameter is associated with the evaluation of a long-term trend almost linear, without fluctuation.

For this reason, the case of Albania, as a least developed country and where there has not a long time series of data on loan outstanding, we recommend using traditional smoothing parameter for quarterly data, 1,600 respectively.

Graphic 1

The ratio Loan/GDP and its potential level assessed by HP Filter (Hodrick Prescott)



Proposing the use of the gap between the ratio "Credit/GDP" and the its potential level, assessed through the HP filter at a smoothing rate of 1,600 quarterly terms, **we assessed the Taylor's Rule might be, if the Bank of Albania includes in its objective also the financial stability.**

In this case, the base rate of monetary policy will be changed through:

1. Targeting Inflation Rate;

2. Nominal Targeting of Economic Growth, and
3. Targeting the Gap of the Ratio Credit/GDP (*mitigating the boom cycle, if the gap is positive, and the contractiocyce if the gap is negative*).

The Research questions for the new model of the Taylor' Rule are:

- ***What is the relationship between the trend of base rate of monetary policy and trend of inflation?***
- ***What is the relationship between the trend of base rate of monetary policy and Output Gap?***
- ***What is the relationship between the trend of base rate of monetary policy and Credit Growth?***

The model is built through the method of Ordinary Least Squares, which assumes a linear relationship between the dependent variable and independent ones.

The dependent variable of the Model is the base rate of the monetary policy of the Bank of Albania

The first independent variable of the Model is the difference of inflation rate from its target level of 3%.

The second independent variable of the Model is the Output Gap.

The third independent variable of the Model which assesses precisely the proposal to include the financial stability in the objective of the Bank of Albania, measured as Credit Gap. This gap has the same valuation methodology as the Output Gap, is

Credit Gap = Credit Stock – Potencial Credit Stock

The second hypothesis: Central Bank takes into account also the changes of credit level from its potential level, in the evaluation of monetary policy. In this case, the relative change in inflation, economic growth and credit growth, affect the relative change of base rate of monetary policy.

The statistical presentation of the **Modified Model of Taylor's Rule** is given as follows:

$$R = c(1)*R(-1) + c(2)*Inf + (1-c(2))*(inf(+4)-3)+c(3)*GAP+dummy*c(4)*credit_gap(+3)$$

Where: **R** - is the rate of monetary policy

Inf - is the annual inflation rate

3% - is the target level of inflation

Gap - is the difference between actual level og GDP and its potencial level **Credit_gap** - is the difference between teh ratios Credit/GDP and its potencial level

dummy - It is a qualitative variable that takes the value 0 before starting the accomodative cycle of monetary policy (QE), and 1 after the start of the cycle. Accomodative cycle of Monetary policy started in June 2011.

Coefficient C(1) assesses the sustainability of the base interest rate. How much does it change from 1% increase of base rate of the previous quarter.

Coefficient C(2) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and annual inflation rate. How much does it change from 1% increase of inflation rate. Meanwhile, the relationship between expected inflation (after one year) and the target level of 3 %, is estimated as 1 – coefficient C(2) (*1 minus coefficient C(2)*).

Coefficient C(3) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and Output Gap. How much does it change from 1% increase of the difference between GDP and potencial level of GDP.

Coefficient C(4) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and Credit Gap. How much does it change from 1% increase of the difference between Actual level of Credit and its potencial level.

We expect the Central Bank to increase the interest rate if the credit is growing rapidly and the positive gap is expanded. In contrast, the Central Bank will decrease interest rate if the credit outstanding is slowing and the negative gap to potential level, is expanded rapidly.

The results of the Model of Modified Taylor's Rule are presented in the Table 2.

Table 2

The Assessment of Taylor's Rule for Albania

Dependent Variable: REPO

Method: Least Squares (Gauss-Newton / Marquardt steps)

Sample (adjusted): 1999Q1 2014Q4

Included observations: 64 after adjustments

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C(1)	0.962402	0.013640	70.55647	0.0000
C(2)	0.425026	0.045133	9.417117	0.0000
C(3)	0.078790	0.025660	3.070536	0.0032
C(4)	0.189936	0.086042	2.207476	0.0311
R-squared	0.922722	Mean dependent var		6.096354
Adjusted R-squared	0.918858	S.D. dependent var		2.407029
S.E. of regression	0.685652	Akaike info criterion		2.143567
Sum squared resid	28.20709	Schwarz criterion		2.278498
Log likelihood	-64.59415	Hannan-Quinn criter.		2.196723
Durbin-Watson stat	1.239983			

Model results suggest that there is a statistically significant relationship between the trend of the base interest rate of monetary policy and developments in terms of inflation and the output gap. Replacing statistical model coefficients with corresponding values in the Table, the Model is presented as follows:

$$R = 0.96 \cdot R(-1) + 0.42 \cdot \text{inf} + (1 - 0.42) \cdot (\text{inf} + 4) - 3 + 0.07 \cdot \text{GAP}(-1) + 0.18 \cdot \text{Credit_gap}$$

Coefficient C(1) assesses the sustainability of the base interest rate and its level is 0.96, decreasing slightly compared to the first model. This coefficient assess that the increase with 1 point percent of base interest rate in previous quarter, increase the actual base rate with 0.96 point percent.

Coefficient C(2) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and annual inflation rate and its level 0.42. In this case, the increase with 1 point percent of inflation rate of 3%, increase the base rate with 0.42 point percent. From the other side, the increase of expected inflation (after one year) above the level of 3%, increase the base rate with (1-0.42), so with 0.58 point percent.

Coefficient C(3) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and Output Gap and its level is low, 0.07. This means that, the increase of economy with 1 point percent higher than its potential level, increase the base interest rate of monetary policy with 0.07 point percent.

Last, Coefficient C(4) assesses the relationship between base interest rate and Expected Credit Gap and its level is low, 0.18. This means that, the expected credit increase with 1 point percent higher than its potential level, increase the base interest rate of monetary policy with 0.18 point percent.

The Model's results indicate that the connection exists between the rate of the previous quarter and the current interest rate of monetary policy remains important in the modified rule. The coefficient of 0.96 is higher than the coefficient of inflation 0.42 and the coefficient of economic growth, 0.07. Also, the Bank of Albania react more if the inflation has passed the target level of 3 %, compared with the case when the economy is overheating and is growing above the potential level.

While the current model shows that actual credit growth is not statistically significant, but its expected growth (+ 3 quarterly). So, the Central Bank increase by 0. 18 percentage points its base rate, if its forecasts indicate that credit will grow beyond the potential level after 3 quarters. The Dummy variable shows that the relationship between the Credit and the base rate is important after the start of the accommodative cycle of monetary policy.

These results apply also to the case when the economy is falling and the inflation is below the level of 3%. In this case, the Bank of Albania react by decreasing the base rate if it has reduced it in the previous quarter, followed by a further reduction if inflation is below the level of 3 %, the economic growth is below the potential level, and credit is shrunked.

To measure the statistical significance of each coefficient of the Model, we build main hypotheses and alternative ones, as follows:

Main Hypothese 1: There does not exist the statistic relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the previous quarterly rate:

$$C(1)=0$$

Alternative Hypothese 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the previous quarterly rate:

$$C^*(1)\neq 0$$

To assess the statistical significance of the coefficient, build statistics "t" (presented in the respective column in the Table).

$$t = \frac{C^*_{*2} - C_2}{dev. stand. C^*_{*2}}$$

If this value is above 1. 96 (that is a static indicator, which is not calculated), **then the coefficient is statistically significant/important, the probability (p-value) that the basic hypothesis is true is less than 10%** (that is accepted error).

For Coefficient C(2), result that $t_{statistik} = 70. 5$, and the propability of error **p-value = 0. 00**. In this case the basic hypothesis falls down and is accepted that alternative indicating that there is a statistically significant link between the base rate of the previous quarter and the current one.

Main Hypothese 2: There does not exist the statistic relationship between the 2 base rate of monetary policy and the inflation rate:

$$C(2)=0$$

Alternative Hypothese 2: There is a statistically significant relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the inflation rate:

$$C(2)\neq 0$$

For Coefficient C(3), result that $t_{statistik} = 9. 4$, and the propability of error **p-value = 0. 00**. In this case the basic hypothesis falls down and is accepted that alternative indicating that there is a statistically significant link between the base rate and the inflation rate.

Main Hypothese 3: There does not exist the statistic relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the economic growth of previous quarter:

$$C(3)=0$$

Alternative Hypothese 3: There is a statistically significant relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the economic growth of previous quarter inflation rate:

$$C(3)\neq 0$$

For Coefficient C(4), result that $t_{\text{statistik}} = 3.07$ and the probability of error **p-value = 0.01**. In this case the basic hypothesis falls down and is accepted that alternative indicating that there is a statistically significant link between the base rate and the economic growth.

Main Hypothese 4: There does not exist the statistic relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the Credit Growth:

C(4)=0

Alternative Hypothese 4: There is a statistically significant relationship between the base rate of monetary policy and the Credit Growth:

C(4)≠0

For Coefficient C(4), result that $t_{\text{statistik}} = 2.2$ and the probability of error **p-value = 0.03**. In this case the basic hypothesis falls down and is accepted that alternative indicating that there is a statistically significant link between the base rate and the expected credit growth.

CONCLUSION

In actual situation when the Bank of Albania has not included explicitly in its objective the financial stability, the directly reaction of interest rate based on credit gap is assessed as low taking into account the entire period.

For this reason, **the Credit gap appears with a statistically importance after 2011.**

What is expected and estimated in the Model is that the Bank of Albania can and should indirectly involved in its reaction to the base interest rate the credit development, through the output gap. Overall, economic growth in Albania is financed through loans, the main source of external financing for businesses and for consumers. In this case, a negative output gap following generally negative developments in credit terms. During 2015, for example, noted that the positive development of economic growth is not accompanied by a similar trend of credit expansion.

For this reason, it is necessary and that the Bank of Albania should also include in its objective maintaining the financial stability. In this way, the contribution expected from the inclusion of credit gap indicators in Taylor's Rule, will be higher and sustainable in time.

Literature:

Minsky, HP (1972), "Financial Instability Revisited: The Economics of Disaster." Reappraisal of the Federal Reserve Discount Mechanism 3 (1972): 97-136.

Kindleberger, CP (1978), *Manias, Panics and Crashes: A History of Financial Crises*, 1-st edition, New York: Basic Books, 1978.

Alessi, L and Detken, C, (2011) "Quasi real time early warning indicators for costly asset price boom/bust cycles: A role for global liquidity" - *European Journal of Political Economy* 27.3 520-533.

Borgy, V, Clerc, V, and J-P Renne (2009), "Asset-price boom-bust cycles and credit: what is the scope of macroprudential regulation?", Banque de France, Working Paper No 263.

Borio, C, and Lowe, P (2002), "Asset prices, financial and monetary stability: exploring the nexus", BIS Working Papers No. 114.

Drehmann, M, Borio, C, Gambacorta, L, Jimenez, G and Trucharte, C (2010), "Countercyclical capital buffers: exploring options", BIS Working Paper 317.

Drehmann, M, Borio, C and Tsatsaronis, K (2011), "Anchoring countercyclical capital buffers: the role of credit aggregates", BIS Working Paper No 355.

Schularick, M and Taylor A (2012), "Credit booms gone bust: Monetary policy, leverage cycles, and financial crises, 1870–2008", *American Economic Review*, no 102, pp 1029–61.

Dell'Ariccia, G, Igan, D, Laeven, L, Tong, H, Bakker, B, Vandebussche, J (2012), "Policies for Macrofinancial Stability: How to Deal with Credit Booms", IMF Staff Discussion Notes No.12/06.

Mendoza, E and Terrones, M (2008), "An anatomy of credit booms: Evidence from macro aggregates and micro data", NBER Working Paper no. 14049.

The “Ethos of Compassion” in Contemporary Social Intervention: The Janus Faces of Humanitarian Action Proposals

Cristina Pinto Albuquerque

University of Coimbra, Portugal

Abstract

In this communication we aim to discuss the social and political implications of an “ethos of compassion” that tends to emerge and to substantiate some of the current social and public action concerning social suffering. In fact, by considering mainly a moral of compassion as a political determinant element for the response to actual social suffering it is emphasized a linear conception of the human being which has implications with regard to its affirmation and recognition as a political agent. In this perspective the social and political categorization as a victim, combined with a mediatized focus in a sort of moral social responsibility nourished by the necessary distance between those that suffer and those that “observe” the suffering of others, are the main analytical axes of our reflection.

Keywords: social suffering, compassion, humanism, humanitarian action

Introduction

The action guided by humanitarian concerns about the relief of another’s pain and death prevention, has deep and ancestral historical and philosophical-religious roots. However, today, humanitarianism acquires renewed features, either by assuming a greater politicization of its assumptions, or by re legitimizing itself in a sort of “moral economy of suffering” under the focus of an “ethos of compassion”, to use the terminology of Didier Fassin (2005; 2012). This leads, on the one hand, to a new relationship with the current suffering and involved categorizations, and, in another, to a new way to regulate and manage it. Indeed, this seems to be the focal point in the current reflection with respect to a certain transmutation of action assumptions directed to “sufferers”. In fact, from a defense of the idea that “everything is political” in the 1960s and 70s, today, it seems to be advocated the notion that “everything is humanitarian,” leading to what we might call, in the sense of Hannah Arendt prospects, a “policy of pity”.

The thesis that we advocate in the present article is that we are witnessing today, under the focus of a “humanitarian action” and of the compassion that underlies it, a form of governance of initiatives – with a more managerial and professionalized nature - and of “suffering” people aggregated under the homogenizing concept of “victims”. This notion translates in fact a kind of “biopower” (Foucault) leading firstly to a separation between, on the one hand, the situation and the concrete and individualized expression of suffering and, on the other, the material condition that determines the help and that is substantiated in Abstract and collective narratives. Secondly, this “biopower” determines a compassionate rhetoric that leads to the trial of situations to support in a humanitarian way. A trial based on rationality in some sorte unquestionable because anchored on an alleged “goodness” of humanitarianism “good intentions”.

In this regard, it is particularly relevant the understanding of the dimensions inherent to pity and compassion assumptions, also politically translated, as well as the comprehension of the moral and practical implications underlying the experience of some individuals’ “remote witness” by reference to the suffering of others (Boltanski, 1993; Halpern, 2002; Kleinman, 2007; Ignatieff, 1999; Nussbaum, 2001).

Under these assumptions we emphasize the critics of many authors who believe that the actual concept of suffering translates, ultimately, an attempt to psychologize social reality, hiding, in the same way, the debate about social and economic inequalities. If we agree with Redecker (1994, p. 34) when he considers that the “humanitarian is profoundly nihilistic as it carries in itself the denial of the man as something else other than of a mortal animal”, so, we must discuss critically the political and social action anchored mainly in humanitarian proposals. It is therefore pertinent to discuss the “status” of the suffering subject transformed, like this, in an “object of pity and not a subject of rights” (Guillebaud, 1994, p.84). The risks of what we might call “deferred citizenship” are, in this light, not negligible, and must necessarily be taken into account by all those who think and execute public policies and develop social intervention initiatives. If an action against

a shared suffering, evident and intolerable, is unquestionable, the assumptions underlying this action, particularly at the core of public policy and social intervention must be critically discussed.

In fact the questions about how to respond to actual forms of suffering are in a large extent saturated with moral connotations and categorizations requiring deeper sociological debates, decoupled from an activism sense, towards an understanding of how the categories of the "intolerable" and the categorization as "victim" are historically and politically produced. A debate focused immediately on questioning the idea that supposedly shared and perennial values are actually the result of a historical, cultural and political construction, so, a product of various forms of reconciliation of interests and analytical lenses.

In the present article we intend therefore to discuss the "Janus faces" of the current humanitarian action, that many authors describe as "new humanitarianism" (Barnett, 2011; Fassin & Pandolfi, 2010; Moyn, 2010), and reflect on the critical implications of a grammar of action anchored simultaneously in a compassionate ethos - that values and justify the concrete and immediate action towards expressed suffering - and a logic of "governmentality" of suffering situations amalgamated into Abstract and collectivized categorizations of "victimization".

"Social suffering": a polymorphous moral and political analytical lens

The consecration, mainly after the 1990s¹, of social suffering as an analytical category to understand contemporary socio-political contradictions and forms of distress raises significant issues associated with moral conventions underlying the current political and social orientations. In fact, the category of suffering allows capturing, under a single notion relatively imprecise, a set of polymorphous aspects associated with the "malaise" of several contemporary individual and collective experiences. Under a common anthropological foundation - a kind of "soul wound" shared (Fassin, 2004), felt, however, hardly translatable - it is possible to aggregate aspects as diverse as the psychopathological effects associated with the loss or deterioration of employment, until phenomena of exclusion, violence or domination in a collective plan.

In the construction and academic dissemination of the notion of social suffering stand out the works of Christophe Dejours (2007), Arthur Kleinman (1997), Pierre Bourdieu (1993) and Emmanuel Renault (2008), among others, anchored on different analytical fields and assumptions². Dejours (2007), work psychologist, has contributed to the consecration of suffering as a comprehensive category of today's social contradictions and fractures, developing, from the late twentieth century, a relevant program of research concerning the relationship between mental health and labor conditions, particularly in the context of psychopathology and psychodynamics of work. The research of Kleinman and his collaborators (1997) integrate a broader perspective, related to a new "anthropology of subjectivity", perceiving social suffering as the product of the influences of the political, economic and institutional power in the "corrosion of the character" and in the life of humans. The "social pain" is thus explained by the author as part of a larger reflection on the mediation of social structures and sociopolitical contexts of advanced capitalism, as well as the moral demands and cognitive dispositions of the individuals in the reflection on "what really matters" (Kleinman, 2006). In turn, Bourdieu highlights, in the study published under the title *La Misère du Monde* (1993), the category of suffering as a basic element for understanding the situation, complex and unique, of the so-called "new poor". This work sheds light on the need to rethink the assumptions of making policies, highlighting the strong dissociation between those who govern and the great mass of the excluded, trapped in logics of "social death" and "intimate dramas", and, as such, lacking plausible spaces for affirmation and public recognition. Also Emmanuel Renault, in the book *Souffrances Sociales* (2008), positions the state of the art concerning the reflection about social suffering, but rather defines it in a complex way, seeking the integration of the biographical and the social. In other words, he defends the thesis that the complaint of social suffering tends to position the critic, not only political, but also moral, about the multiple demands of self-realization, dismantling justifications and clarifying what society seeks to hide. Thus, the political relevance of the concept emerges, according to the author's conception, in the heart of the social struggles and movements towards better life conditions, constituting thus as "an indictment" of capitalism and society itself (Renault, 2008; Dubet, 2008). It is possible thus to consider, by this brief reference to some works and authors, that the

¹ In spite of the fact that since the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries there are references to the concept and its manifestations, especially regarding the impacts of some policies or the implications of physical disabilities or mental illnesses in the collective living and acceptance (Schilder, 1938).

² The explanation of suffering as a nosographic category in the influential American classification of mental disorders Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM), reflects the relevance of the concept in very different fields. This reference is not negligible, considering the possible perverse effects (which we will refer to in the course of this article) due to a homogenization orientation and individualization of behaviors and situations under the conceptual umbrella of social suffering.

notion of "social suffering", although very ambiguous or maybe because of that, has acquired in the last decades a growing scientific and political centrality. So it seems that there is now much more than just a "suffering vogue", as evoked by Alain Ehrenberg in the final of the nineties (1998).

In fact, although we cannot say that social suffering is a particular phenomenon of the contemporary societies (it is sufficient to remember e.g. the conditions of work and life in the nineteenth century and in the Middle Ages) it is actually particularly relevant its consideration as an universal and cultural marker of the existence of some groups or individuals, stripped from their specificities and particular determinants. For example, putting in the foreground the suffering of victims of the so-called "humanitarian crisis" contribute, *primo*, to a logic of effacement of civilizational, ethnic and cultural distinctions under an argument of the equalization of the help assumptions - the protection of life and the minimizing of suffering – and *secundo*, to the theoretical guarantee of neutrality and impartiality as principles of the humanitarian action (UN General Assembly, 1991 and 2004, see Mackintosh, 2000).

Suffering appears thus as a widespread and intolerable human condition. In this context, a kind of moral grammar of suffering, structured around the sentimentality and compassion, tends to expand and serve as an analysis prism of different situations, aggregated, however, under the same concerns of humanistic nature. Questions as differentiated as the effects of natural disasters (Haiti, Venezuela, Maldives, Japan, among others), the consequences of political conflicts (Rwanda, Sudan, Kosovo, Syria, Palestine, among many others), or disseminated diseases (for instance, AIDS orphanhood in Africa), or even, the immigration and asylum policies, the assistance to the poor, or the support to situations of suffering, violence and trauma, are now analyzed from the priority, and often univocal, perspective of compassion, thereby producing obvious negative effects.

Paradoxes of an "ethos of compassion" as a political and actional category

Compassion is actually the expression of a feeling based on the awareness of the intolerable or inadmissible. It combines therefore a sentimental or emotional sense, simply reactive and not claiming any additional reason beyond *agape* (ἀγάπη), and a logic of indignation that needs effectively a "good reason" to support action, at least in a justificatory perspective. Given the "vision" of the suffering of others, the need for immediate action seems in fact to prevail over all other considerations, referring to a presupposition of shared "human essence" that needs more critical reflection. Therefore, the action would be mainly driven by a demand, in the first place moral, to preserve the life of another human being. The empirical and practical content of suffering legitimate, this way, an action rooted in an "ethos of love" for each other, which ultimately constitute the generic category of "humanitarian". But if in the point of view of moral individual and/or collective action, the affirmation of *agape* as the response basis to suffering does not pose any particular problems, *a contrario*, the transposition, to the political univers of the reference to compassion and pity, substantiating what Arendt (1970) called "pity policy", leads to relevant critical considerations because it connects clearly differentiated universes' of meaning.

Beyond its pragmatic dimension, such kind of compassionate actions, capable of overcoming the particular situations and inducing to a potential generalization, translate, as pointed out by the above author, the distinction between two classes of men: those who suffer and those that do not suffer. Pity, woven by emotional ties, is thus cultivated in the public opinion. But this sentimentality depoliticizes humanitarian crises. Weaknesses are transformed into public "entertainment", putting together the suffering people and the spectators; "emotional judgements" in which structural factors and systemic causes - political, social and economic – in the origin of humanitarian emergencies seem to be erased. The economy of proximity and distancing operates on the basis of the process of "revelation", of visualization and of "dramatization" of suffering. In other words, it is necessary that the one, who does not suffer, can "see" the suffering of the other, without experiencing it directly. It also requires that the individual expressions of suffering can lead to a universal dimension which would ensure its overcoming, in time and in space. The compassionate action would thus be based on the "de-skilling" or "re-qualification" of victims. In other words, on "exemplarities" emerging beyond individual experiences, but rooted in a moral dimension of shared humanity, to justify an assumption of collective responsibility.

The "moral imagination" is, in this way, cultivated as a pressure strategy of public opinion and political action. Additionally compassion requires rapid action, direct and circumstantial. In this sense, compassion is a pre-political entity, anchored in a merely axiological dimension. It takes into account the singularity of concrete destinies and, as such, it can only be visible in specific situations of co-between of categories of beings, statutorily, morally and normatively differentiated: the sufferers and the non-sufferers, the lucky and the unlucky. Also, by not being guided by a widespread assumption - except by

reference to the theological domain of universal brotherhood - compassion is discursively silent. As Arendt (1970, p. 16) says "the decisive factor is that pleasure and pain, like everything instinctual, tend to muteness, and while they may well produce sound, they do not produce speech and certainly not dialogue". In other words, compassion is materialized in gestures and conjunctural involvement, therefore, with a low potential for public recognition.

In this sense, one of the paradoxes of humanitarian action is the association of its principles to a compassionate orientation, but, in the same way, as it will be argued, its connection to a perspective of generalization that tends to anulate the singularity of situations in order to privilege mainly the material conditions that justify the action.

Critical features of a "new humanitarian action"

Humanitarian action and its philosophical and practical roots date back to ancient times and are derived from values and principles historical and culturally determined. In fact, the first root of humanitarianism is religious. It is related to the Christian notion of charity (*caritas*), based on a "duty" of the "most favored" to devote on realizing the welfare of the most poor and disadvantaged. This liability, arising from the Christian doctrine, is thus framed - in a somewhat linear perspective that don't discuss the importance accorded to charity in the accomplishment of Christian universal fraternity - in a logic of differentiation between two classes of people: those who need support and those who can help and have even the "moral duty" to assure it. The conception of charity, based on this obligation of assuring the support to others, extends also to other religions such as the Jewish, with the obligatory religious practice of *tzedakah*, or the Islamic, with the practice of *zakat*¹, literally "that which purifies" (Ghandour, 2002; Krafess, 2005). This kind of "purification of wealth", by sharing between the "most and the least fortunate", anchors itself, just as in the Christian *caritas*, in a moral obligation associating people situated in different social positions. The second root, articulated also with the moral religious "obligations" but linked to live in society, is associated with "class privilege". The formula "*noblesse oblige*" is materialized in the modern face of philanthropy, which allows honoring dominant socioeconomic positions without putting them in question. The third root draws from the valuation of the public expression of certain emotional human nature manifestations. For example, the sympathy for the suffering situation of others in the *Theory of Moral Sentiments* of Adam Smith, or the mercy related to suffering and cruelty to others in Rousseau. A fourth root can still be relied to understand what falls now under the generic name of "humanitarian action": the determination and recognition of the limits and the acceptable conduct in armed conflicts since the Greco Roman antiquity, passing by the art of war of Sun Tzu, in China, or to the Geneva Convention in 1949.

The brutality of the Solferino Battle exposed by Dunant in the book *A Memory of Solferino* (1862) and the creation (Geneva, 1863) of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), by Dunant, along with Gustave Moynier, President of the Geneva Public Welfare Society, and the General Dufour, dictate, for most authors the beginning of what we now identify as humanitarian action. Its origins are in fact associated with war and natural disasters experiences particularly during the 20th century. Currently humanitarian action reacts to conflict situations, supports displaced populations, contribute to peace-building and helps to reduce risk and to recover quickly.

The humanitarian movement was focused since its institutionalization in a conception of the world that allowed overcoming the nation states limits and the Western culture to respond to the suffering being as such, promoting like this a unified conception of humanity under the assumption that the differences (religious, ethnic, national, etc.) were likely to overcome in the name of a universal, and as so impartial, of relief to those who need help anywhere in the world. This kind of moral universalism focuses thus on the suffering victim as an Abstract person. The humanitarian gesture is anchored in an unconditional ethical demand translated either in a legal requirement (obligation to provide assistance to someone in danger), or in a compassionate perspective (the need to respond without appeal to the relief of the sufferings of others).

The so called classic humanitarianism is concerned with the protection of life and dignity of individuals affected by conflicts but that don't take part in it (civil or displaced persons). However, the changing of the current conditions of conflict and the post-conflict circumstances altered the assumptions of this classic paradigm for which the traditional objective of saving lives and alleviating suffering was merely temporary. Thus a "new humanitarianism", a "liberal humanitarianism", to use Barnett's (2011) designation of the third age of humanitarianism, emerges based on long-term objectives related to building

¹ Zakat without adequate translation in Western language, corresponds to the distribution of the goods of the Islamic nation (represented by the more affluent) to the same nation (represented by the less well-off) in line with what is enshrined in the Holy Quran (9:60) "the alms (Zakat) are just to the poor, for the needy, for the staff employed in its administration to those whose hearts are to be won, for the redemption of slaves, for indebted to the cause of God and for the traveler, it is a precept emanated from God, and Allah is Knowing, Wise".

peace, protecting human rights and promoting peace. As Moyn (2010) notes as progresses the generic argument to limit state powers, human rights take their maximum approach, as the explosive utopia of a secular world, the kind of anti policy that Barnett (2011) identifies in the core of humanitarianism itself. He is too much committed and by doing so he withdraws the real policy. In this "alchemical humanitarianism" (Barnett, 2011), the prerogatives of urgency began to articulate since the 90s with to the purposes of assistance for the development, then with broader objectives of peacebuilding. In this context it is visible the existence of a whole army of abolitionists or development actors under the guidance "is necessary to provide more than a bed". The necessary lashing with the context that this perspective presupposes seeks to combine the immediate needs with the future development, as well as to enhance local services and facilities and promote and protect human rights. The "new humanitarianism" is thus far from its neutral perspective. He began to outline institutions and instruments that will lead to the reduction of violence and conflict rather than merely humanitarian assistance *tout court* (Duffield, 2001; Armiño, 2002). The financing of some projects has even become dependent on this association between humanitarian objectives and developmental and security objectives. In this context of change of the aid paradigm, the use of humanitarian rhetoric is now used as an instrument of international policy at the service of states, which reveals the increasing politicization of humanitarian aid. An example of the effects of politicization is the assistance during the Balkan war in the 90s. In this context various vulnerable groups were screened by political interests and conditions imposed. It was in this case visible the inability to distinguish the necessary humanitarian aid to Serbs in need from the underlying political situation promoted by the Serb authorities.

In this framework of humanitarianism politicization the orientation towards the ambiguous and self-legitimizing human rights rhetoric is particularly relevant. This politicization of humanitarianism ultimately triggered a process of counter-reform, enshrined in a kind of anti policy that by attempting to overcome the moral orientations is valuing increasingly the professional and the management procedures. But "[t]his machinery, built in the name of the victims, increasingly removed decision-making power from them", [as it] "swelled the power of those whose intentions were always good over those who could not be assumed to know any better or act in their own best interests" (Barnett, 2011, p. 196).

The "new humanitarianism" and the "governmentality" of people and actions

The suffering of the victims of the so-called "humanitarian crisis" appears as a universal and acultural marker, susceptible to override the particularities of groups and individuals and the different circumstances that characterize the situations. This translates a major paradox. In fact, the suffering, either in the features that it assumes, or in the way they are interpreted and experienced, is associated to cultural and individual contours that can not be overlooked. Suffering takes even different political connotations in different contexts allowing justifying categories historically and politically relevant.

We advocate the thesis, following Didier Fassin (2012), that the current humanitarianism is characterized by a moral economy of suffering, anchored on an "ethos of compassion" that not only determines a new relationship to suffering, but also the way to regulate and manage it. This way, actual humanitarian initiatives are not characterized primarily by a new way of "doing the good" by intervenors and well-meaning activists, but are mainly determined by a logic of action and people government that leads to the approaches advocated by Foucault in the 70s. An example that can be invoked in different European contexts, and that is referenced by Fassin (2012) in relation to the French context, is related to the procedures used to relieve and compensate the suffering of migrants through trial procedures determined by a "rationality" of compassion, molded in various institutional *loci* and resources. In fact, the very humanitarian rhetoric becomes a form of screening. By applying the label of "people in suffering" in the context of humanitarian intervention - a label in fact fragmented in many others, as "precarious lives", "disintegrated" or "vulnerable situations" -, it is paradoxically separated the concrete, individual and specific situation, from the material condition that determines help. For example, when the "victims" are classified by reference to their geographical or cultural ethnic origin, it is neglected the individual narratives in favor of a collective tale interpreted under more or less Abstract categories.

The categorization as "victim", in the origin a concept of the sacred lexicon¹, simultaneously underlies the "good reason" to act (even from a legal and political point of view), and determines the "derealization" of the concrete person, reduced to a

¹ Derived from the Latin *victim* meant a living creature offered to the gods as a sacrifice to appease their anger or thank your generosity. In the 17th century the term has acquired a moral and legal connotation. Since then it has been amplified with new conceptions and nuances. At present we are witnessing a certain vulgarization of this notion and that is the source of some confusion between "victimization" and feeling of victimization. For example confused frustration or discomfort arising from a situation that is not what is desired (for example, "being a victim" of a bad agreement in a divorce process) with the complex and multidimensional consequences of victimization. As such, "fall victim" tends to become a status and have not only a state. Some people and groups validate their social

biological body, amputated of the identity of subject and uprooted from their social contexts, beliefs and constraints. The humanitarian action, anchored in this perspective of universal and anonymous solicitude, stems in fact from a naturalistic kind of argument that by itself would justify not only the obligation to act, but also "the right to have rights".

Aid based on essentially humanitarian reasons does not cease to engage a form of "secondary citizenship" (Fassin, 2012) or "deferred citizenship". For example the waves of refugees entering at this moment in the European context are permitted, but people are not necessarily accepted or deemed necessary. The underlying rhetoric of humanitarian aid taking naturalistic and biologists outlines - at the heart of humanitarian solicitude, it is the injured body and the possibility of death that mobilizes action - and the trial processes that flow from it, puts in the front page a kind of "biopower", which in Foucault's conception takes life as its object or goal, not only inherent to humanitarian actions, but also derived from the production of moral economies relative to the suffering of others (Fassin, 2012). Effectively, the term "biopolitics" is used by Foucault to draw attention to a form of power, which works with the administration of life itself - meaning body, health (mental and physical), sexuality, procreation, etc. A government that also assumes continuity with the resolution of self-control problems by private acts of self-governance. By other words, it emphasizes that individuals are not only subjected to domination by external actors, but are also active in their self government.

Final considerations

Compassion and sympathy towards "the victims", by those who do not participate directly in this condition, feeds on a construction of emotional links greatly anchored in the iconographic representation of the suffering of others. Indeed, if we experiment the same fate of the suffering, we will not feel pity. Maybe solidarity, identification or even egoism, but, not pity.

The "humanization" of this "other" Abstract determines a type of contingent and delimited sense of responsibility (Hours 1999; Laqueur, 2001). In fact, pity requires that the pain is given to see to someone that does not suffer. In addition, the spectacle of suffering must be articulated with a speech. If there is not a speech about the "causes" of suffering, then the initial sympathy will evolve quickly into feelings of dread or even rejection or indifference. After all, the sufferer has perhaps deserved the situation...

In fact compassion obeys to a logic of proximity, a real proximity or a near real-constructed and disseminated, for example, by the media and social networks. Visualize suffer bother us, challenges us. The pressure of the doxa makes therefore tilt the political decision to the emotional registration. But the "vision" of suffering is by definition circumstantial, so compassion is fleeting and addictive – it must be continuously fed by images, through the creation of the reality "in suffering" for that the public opinion continues engaged. The images allow to say everything that is wanted to say, but don't explain nothing. Allow expliciting a representation corpus anchored in an alleged minimum common denominators - moral, political, social, cultural - that, in fact, are mere constructs of a pseudo "collective consciousness. First of all, image can help to trivialize perversely the suffering of others, giving body to a kind of social Manichaeism which in turn may legitimize an indifferent attitude and collective negative judgments. In the same way it can also produce a sort of "deferred citizenship" of the suffering through the filter of television or computer. The excessive media coverage of refugee flows in the European space is a paradigmatic case of the limitations of the compassionate protocol. If the reading is only that of compassion we may not identify, in the amalgam of displaced people, different situations; refugees because of wars, "economic" migrants, political asylum seekers, etc. are grouped under the generic term of "refugee". The singular categories transmute so, perversely, in a homogeneous moral category of "human beings who need help." The risk of inadequate interventions, under the umbrella of "good intentions", becomes thus important. Paradoxically it is the "victim status" of a "social pathology", the political and social classification that legitimates a humanitarian action. In this sense emerges a sort of "humanitarian citizenship," to use the expression of Nguyen (2008), a "biolegitimité" or "biocitoyenneté", thereby claiming rights, precisely because of not being a part of society, so for the simple biological and psychological existence.

References

Arendt, H. (1970). *Men in Dark Times*. London : Lowe & Brydone.

Barnett, M. (2011). *Empire of Humanity: A History of Humanitarianism*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

existence through their victimization, projecting about other causes (near and faraway) from his evil being, therefore, legitimizes differential treatment claims.

- Boltanski, L. (1993). *La Souffrance à distance. Moral humanitaire, médias et politique*. Paris : Métailié.
- Bourdieu, P. (ed) (1993). *La Misère du Monde*. Paris: Seuil.
- Dejours, C. (1998). *La Souffrance en France. La banalisation de l'injustice sociale*. Paris : Seuil.
- Dejours, C. (2000). *Travail, Usure Mentale*. Paris: Bayard.
- Dejours, C. (2007). *Conjurer la Violence. Travail, violence, santé*. Paris : Payot.
- Dubet, F. (2008). *Théorie de la souffrance sociale [electronic version]*. *La Vie des Idées*. Fr, 27 février.
- Ehrenberg, A. (2000). *La fatigue d'être soi. Dépression et Société*. Paris: Odile Jacob.
- Fassin D. & Pandolfi M. (2010). *Contemporary States of Emergency: The Politics of Military and Humanitarian Interventions*. New York : Zone Books.
- Fassin, D. (2001), *The biopolitics of otherness: undocumented immigrants and racial discrimination in the French public debate*. *Anthropology Today*, 17 (1), 3-7.
- Fassin, D. (2004). *Des maux indicibles: Sociologie des lieux d'écoute*. Paris: La Découverte.
- Fassin, D. (2005). "Compassion and repression: the moral economy of immigration policies. France", *Cultural Anthropology*, 20 (3), 362-387.
- Fassin, D. (2012). *Humanitarian Reason: A Moral History of the Present*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Guillebaud, J.C. (1994). *La Trahison des Lumières*. Paris : Seuil.
- Halpern, C. (2002). *Suffering, Politics and Power: A Genealogy in Modern Political Theory*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Hours, B. (1999). *L'idéologie humanitaire*. *Journal des anthropologues* [En ligne], 77-78 <http://jda.revues.org/3084>
- Ignatieff, M. (1999). *The Warrior's Honour: Ethnic War and the Modern Conscience*. London: Vintage
- Kleinman A. & Kleinman, J. (1997). *The Appeal of Experience; The Dismay of Images: Cultural Appropriations of Suffering in Our Times*. In Kleinman, A., Das, V. and Lock, M. (eds) (1997), *Social Suffering*, Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Kleinman, A. & Fitz-Henry, E. (2007). *The Experiential Basis of Subjectivity: How Individuals Change in the Context of Societal Transformation*. In J. Biehl, B. Good and A. Kleinman (eds), *Rethinking Subjectivity: Ethnographic Investigations*, Berkeley: University of California Press
- Mackintosh K. *The principles of humanitarian action in international humanitarian law*, HPG Report 5. Published March 2000. Available at: <http://www.odi.org/uk/hpg/publications>, Accessed August 30, 2016.
- Moyn S. (2010). *The Last Utopia: Human Rights in History*. Cambridge, MA: The Belknap Press.
- Nguyen, V.-K. (2008). *Antiretroviral globalism, biopolitics, and therapeutic citizenship*. In Aihwa Ong e Stephen J. Collier (orgs.), *Global Assemblages: Technology, Politics, and Ethics as Anthropological Problems* (pp. 124-144). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing.
- Nussbaum, M. C. (2001). *Upheavals of Thought*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Redecker, R. (1994). *Qu'est-ce que l'humanitaire de l'intérieur?*, *Nouveaux Repères*.
- Renault, E. (2008). *Souffrances sociales. Philosophie, Psychologie et Politique*. Paris: La Découverte.
- Schilder P. (1938). *The Social Neurosis*, *The Psychoanalytic Review*, 25, 1-19
- Wilkinson, I. (2005). *Suffering: A Sociological Introduction*, Cambridge: Polity Press

Endnotes

In spite of the fact that since the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries there are references to the concept and its manifestations, especially regarding the impacts of some policies or the implications of physical disabilities or mental illnesses in the collective living and acceptance (Schilder, 1938).

The explanation of suffering as a nosographic category in the influential American classification of mental disorders Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM), reflects the relevance of the concept in very different fields. This reference is not negligible, considering the possible perverse effects (which we will refer to in the course of this article) due to a homogenization orientation and individualization of behaviors and situations under the conceptual umbrella of social suffering.

Zakat without adequate translation in Western language, corresponds to the distribution of the goods of the Islamic nation (represented by the more affluent) to the same nation (represented by the less well-off) in line with what is enshrined in the Holy Quran (9:60) "the alms (Zakat) are just to the poor, for the needy, for the staff employed in its administration to those whose hearts are to be won, for the redemption of slaves, for indebted to the cause of God and for the traveler, it is a precept emanated from God, and Allah is Knowing, Wise".

Derived from the Latin victim meant a living creature offered to the gods as a sacrifice to appease their anger or thank your generosity. In the 17th century the term has acquired a moral and legal connotation. Since then it has been amplified with new conceptions and nuances. At present we are witnessing a certain vulgarization of this notion and that is the source of some confusion between "victimization" and feeling of victimization. For example confused frustration or discomfort arising from a situation that is not what is desired (for example, "being a victim" of a bad agreement in a divorce process) with the complex and multidimensional consequences of victimization. As such, "fall victim" tends to become a status and have not only a state. Some people and groups validate their social existence through their victimization, projecting about other causes (near and faraway) from his evil being, therefore, legitimizes differential treatment claims.

The Effectiveness of QMS Implementation in Applying of Quality Health Care for Patients in Health Institutions of Kosovo

Samir Lleshi

PhD.cand. European University of Tirana, Albania

Abstract

Continuous improvement of quality in health system is a challenge for many countries, particularly for those which are undergoing difficult period of transition from the system where the quality was not even known, measured or hasn't consequently been improved in a system where the health service offers are different. In its route toward the European integration in the recent years Kosovo has set up the basis in terms of quality of infrastructure. Even though compared to its neighbors it is still staying behind in terms of quality of legal infrastructure by creating a quality system according to the requirements of EN ISO 9001 standards, while making easier instalment and constant monitoring of the healthcare standards by setting the guidelines for best application practices, particularly in well-known international fields Health sector in Kosovo is one of the most important sectors and has been continually stated as a priority for development of the country, therefore, creating of conditions for a continuous quality improvement, safety of health services and evaluation of such services is a major challenge associated with a patient and citizens to offer more and higher qualitative health services.

Keywords: quality management system, standards, health sector, health services.

UDC Classifications: 005. 6

Introduction

Quality is an integral part of international competition all around the world. In terms of economic development in the EU, the activity of standardization plays even a more important role for companies, enterprises, academic and scientific institutions, governmental and non-governmental organizations, laboratories, certification & inspection authorities by recognizing the importance of standards relying on the legislation as an effective instrument for development, manufacturing, trading and products & services offers, conformity assessment and certification activities for implementation of standards and current innovations in such a faster science and technology development.

Health system in Kosovo is mainly public. The state provides most of services that are offered to public in the field of promotion, prevention, diagnosis and treatment, whereas, the private sector is still in its early stages of development.

Providing of quality assurance (QA) is the guarantee that the service offered product meets the accepted standards of quality. Planned control procedures (CP) occur "before, during and after the product service has been offered", and the main goal is to be performed "good since in the first time and every time too". Quality assurance (QA) should bear the responsibility of everyone involved in creating the product or service. Providing of the quality assurance should be implemented in every stage of production development and production process. (Picker Institute Europe, 2002).

Standardization is a creative activity with respect to current and potential problems, provisions for common and repetitive use which aim to achieve an optimum degree of order in a given context (Cutting-Decelle,2015). The activity of standardization includes the processes of development, approval, publishing and the application of standards through the fulfilment of the principles and rules of standardization. The standards are developed and published to serve the public interest and they present strong tools for sharing of information and mutual understanding between the partners (Nwabueze, 1997).

1. The aim and study goals

Quality and safety of health services in the health system of Kosovo is not a new concept. It originates from the standards and regulations of a health system that have been applied since the early seventies of last century. Since then, the application of the quality and safety of health service concepts has experienced its ups and downs, reflecting the political, economic and social challenges.

Quality management consists in providing management practices for products and offered services, maintaining and improving characteristics of those products and service, making sure a minimum standard or quality has been achieved. For a long period, providing health sector and quality of it, was a common duty of public authorities, applying minimal standards required by the law.

When talking about the health system, we understand two existing complementary parts, public and private sector. In case the private sector is subject to all planned market rules by adapting the management in the function of success, the public sector stays behind in this direction. Today the main pressure of health care towards the population is carried by the public sector. Another issue to be addressed is that in Kosovo there are plenty of professionals with their professional profile in health management and in their absence in charge of health management they have assigned the staff which with a lack of prior experience in the management. Public health institutions should be led by professional managers with excellent experience in management in health institutions. Thus, the curse of such institutions led by the professionals will enable institutions to offer to the population the indispensable and high quality service.

The objective of the study deals with the effectiveness of QMS implementation in applying of quality health care for patients in Health Institutions of Kosovo. The study also aims to explain the way how the implementation of quality systems of management in health institutions of Kosovo has risen, and also aims to explain the influence of quality application of standards on quality services offered by health institutions, by treating practical samples in Kosovo, while addressing the stands upon the decision taking.

Health Policy of the Republic of Kosovo is in accordance with health policy in developed countries of the European Union, because the quality is an essential health care component in every activity performed in health and medicine sector. Relying on this fact, Kosovo government has approved the "Strategy for Quality Improvement and Health Services 2012-2016", declaring that "Government of Kosovo, respectively the Ministry of Health, is keen on implementation of ISO standards in health care with the aim of continuous improvement of health services".

Quality and safety of health services are becoming more and more important among the countries in the region and further, this because of increasing result of level of expectations for a better and good health of citizens in those countries (Grant, 1988), associated with various expectations related to health care institutions and health care personnel, paralleling with a demand for rapid development on medical technology, while medical technology offer is increasing in quantity and quality worldwide (Enriko, 2012).

Satisfaction surveys are often the structural mechanism through which patients can alert providers about their concerns, needs, and perceptions of treatment. The feedback of Patient's satisfaction is also important to the quality assessment process since it helps health care providers identify potential areas for improvement. Some of those areas are patient education and follow-up, specific quality of care issues, and hospital procedures. Satisfaction surveys are also useful for purposes of program planning and evaluation (Donabedian, 1981 - urbanaffairs.unlv.edu). Clearly patient satisfaction measurement is the application to healthcare of customer satisfaction, a concept coming both from quality management and marketing (ISQua webinar, 2014).

High-quality of medical service completely meets the needs of those who are mostly in need of health services, i.e. patients. The aim of improving the quality in health care is the best possible treatment for the patient. Quality service in medicine is reflected in the safety, effectiveness, availability, efficiency, availability, fairness and accuracy too. When it aims to improve the quality in health care it is necessary to consider the impact of quality in all involved parties. How to improve the quality in health care related to patients, how to improve quality in health care related to doctors and how to improve the quality in health care related to the management of health institutions are the main questions in front of Kosovo health care system. In order to efficiently succeed toward the improvement of the quality in health care it is necessary to unify all the involved parties, i.e. patients, doctors, public health institutions as well as private ones (ISQua, 2007). With the application and implementation of quality management system would have increased savings in all other categories of cost and improving the quality of services provided. (Lleshi, 2015).

Quality assurance (QA) is the guarantee that the product and the offered service meets the accepted standards of quality. Planned control procedures (CP) occurs "before, during and after the product service has been offered", and the main goal is to be performed "good since in the first time and every time too". Quality assurance (QA) should be responsible of everyone involved in creating the product or service. Quality assurance should be implemented in every stage of product's development and production process (Picker Institute Europe, 2002).

Standardization is a creative activity, with respect to current and potential problems, provisions for common and repetitive use, aiming to achieving an optimum degree of order in a given context of standardization. The activity of standardization includes the processes of development, approval, publishing and the application of standards through the fulfilment of the principles and rules of standardization. The standards were developed and published to serve the public interest and they present strong tools for sharing of information and mutual understanding between the partners. (Nwabueze, 1997).

Doctors still do not consider patients as their clients, but patients are considered as health care consumers, whereas, patients as clients should be treated with the same level of service in any subject which offers health care services. Thus, this issue shall start changing by starting with development of management systems for certification of Quality Systems Management (ISQua, 2007). Over half of the real costs of its failure are internal and are not easily controlled by senior management. This is because management has not applied and implemented instruments for their prevention. Taking into account also the data from the conducted research, it is necessary for laboratories that are in function within the health institutions, regardless, whether they are in primary, secondary or tertiary health system to start the requirements of Systems Quality Management to laboratories for the purpose of accreditation (EN ISO 17025; ISO 15189) .With the beginning of the application of the requirements of these standards reliability of patients will start to raise in the values of laboratory tests (ISO: IWA 1:2005; ISO 15189).

3. Methodology

The study surveyed 201 respondents. The sample was formed by a random selection. The questionnaire was specifically designed for this study based on previous theoretical materials, experiences and practices with the needs of patients under the consideration. In the survey, an anonymous questionnaire with 15 questions was used.

Several descriptive statistics tools were used to describe the population under the study. Except the average value (arithmetic mean) rate variability (standard deviation) and relative numbers, χ^2 test was used to determine the significance of the difference between characteristics. Satisfaction of respondents expressed an average score on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = very dissatisfied and 5 = very satisfied.

In the empirical analysis of the paper, the questionnaire data has been used and processed with the statistical program SPSS V.20 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Results of descriptive analysis, namely the cumulative data have been presented below.

The methodological framework is developed on the basis of the two dimensions: the efficiency and the effectiveness of services. These dimensions comprise the performance of a hospital for the estimation of health care subjects' management and human resources management from the viewpoint of the health care system managers as well as from the viewpoint of the patients, concerning their perception about health services quality (Gounaris, 2008).

The proposed model covers these two dimensions that are crossed towards the perspective of the efficient operation of the hospital. The centripetal processes of this perspective are Efficiency and Quality (Gounaris, 2008).The fundamental questions that are covered from the research and are attempted to be approached by the methodological framework are:

- a) the development of appropriate efficiency measurement models,
- b) the investigation in the determining factors of efficiency,
- c) the development of the appropriate structure for the estimation of service quality,
- d) the investigation of the determining factors of service quality.

4. Results

Research hasn't found yet a simple, direct correlation between patient satisfaction and improved outcome. Patients can play an important role in defining quality care by determining what values should be associated with different outcomes,

while they may not have the necessary knowledge to accurately assess the technical quality of care they receive, patients certainly appreciated its importance (Cleary & McNeil, 1988). Equity, effectiveness, cost containment and quality of care are primary objectives of health policy and delivery of health service (WHO, 2000). In many review of published literature of QMS in European hospitals - ISO 9001 certification is utilized in a variety of way as a vehicle for health care organizations to identify systemic breakdowns and close gaps, streamline workflow and maximize resource utilization, focus of patients and provider needs and expectations, facilitate compliance to health care accreditation standards and regulatory requirements (Stoimenova, 2014). Many authors, especially health staff feel that patients are not competent to assess the work of health workers, because they do not have enough professional knowledge.

However, most authors agree that patients are able to reliably estimate the human component of the physician-patient relationship, which comes with the communication skills of the doctor and ability to gain the trust of the patient. Patient-customer satisfaction is a complex relationship between the identified needs, expectations from the health service and experiences with the service they have received (Veronda, 2001).

However much healthcare organizations may resemble - at least on the surface - other large, complex organizations, thoughtful analysis reveals that healthcare organizations are considerably more than mere businesses (Golden, 2006). Peter Drucker (1993) tells us that healthcare organizations are the most complex form of human organization we have ever attempted to manage. To those of us working within these structures, this observation comes as no surprise. Multiple stakeholders, cross-functional services, cutting-edge technologies and highly skilled workers work in a coordinated fashion to add value to improve our health (Lazarus, FACHE, & Chapman, 2013).

Satisfaction of the patient with health care is an essential component in evaluating the quality of health care. (Murray, Locker & Mock, 1997). The importance of the patient’s opinion and his vision for the treatment and care in health institutions is now recognized in all developed systems of health care (Abdal Kareem, Aday & Walker, 1996). Measuring of satisfaction has an important role in identifying problems in the health industry, and finding the key points which can connect these problems. In this way, with an objective assessment of the quality, satisfaction contributes to overall assessment of the functioning of the system and the fulfillment of its role. Better information can significantly contribute to the quality and effectiveness of services and ensuring the continuity of health care, even more than advice with verbal communication (Aizpuru, 1993).

The methodological framework of this study includes the results of the controls for the study hypotheses that concern efficiency and responsiveness in health care services in examined hospitals. The present thesis presents specific methodological approach for the estimation of hospital performance. It aims the development of models for the estimation of two critical factors of evaluation that concern on the estimated or perceived efficiency and the quality of health care.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	
Laboratory tests and other services	201	4	1	5	2.14	.120	1.697	2.880	
Communication and access	201	4	1	5	1.66	.095	1.351	1.825	
Sufficient information related to treatment	201	4	1	5	1.49	.082	1.162	1.351	
Practical organization in health intuitions	201	4	1	5	1.39	.073	1.039	1.080	
Reliability in public health institutions	201	4	1	5	2.75	.132	1.876	3.518	

Valid N (list wise)	201								
Source: Author									

Question: "Do you consider laboratory analysis and other services reliable?" in a group of 201 people, with a statistical average 2.14 and with an error and a deviation 0.120, shows that people don't consider reliable the services offered from health care institutions, as well as these institutions are not reliable too, in the eyes of general public, since standard deviation and variance are in a contrary proportion, concretely 1.697 and 2.880.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
1	130	40.2	89.8
2	12	40.2	-28.2
3	7	40.2	-33.2
4	5	40.2	-35.2
5	47	40.2	6.8
Total	201		
Source: Author			

The question "How do you consider communication and access of administrative personnel to the patients" in a group of 201 individuals, shows that with an statistical average 1.66 and error deviation 0.95, the communication and access towards patients from administrative personnel is not adequate and is not acceptable from the patients point of view, since the standard deviation and variance are in a contrary proportion, concretely 1.351 and 1.825.

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
1	155	40.2	114.8
2	12	40.2	-28.2
3	1	40.2	-39.2
4	13	40.2	-27.2
5	20	40.2	-20.2
Total	201		
Source: Author			

The answers to the question "Do you get enough information about medical treatment" in a group of 201 individuals, with a statistical average 1.49 and deviation error .82, shows that patients – clients of public health care institutions doesn't have enough information related to their health treatment during their stay at the hospital and during their visits to health care professionals. The values of standard deviation and variance are in a contrary proportion, specifically 1.162 and 1.351.

Table 4: Sufficient information related to treatment				
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual	
1	162	40.2	121.8	
2	15	40.2	-25.2	
3	5	40.2	-35.2	
4	3	40.2	-37.2	
5	16	40.2	-24.2	
Total	201			
Source: Author				

The answers to the questions “Do you consider that public health care institutions have an practical management” in a group of 201 individuals, with a statistical average 1.39 and a deviation error 0.73, shows that patients have a perception that health care institutions are not organized in a practical manner, that leads to a low level of services towards patients. The values of standard deviation and variance in a contrary proportion, specifically 1.039 and 1.080 show this.

Table 5: Practical organization in health intuitions				
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual	
1	171	40.2	130.8	
2	7	40.2	-33.2	
3	6	40.2	-34.2	
4	8	40.2	-32.2	
5	9	40.2	-31.2	
Total	201			
Source: Author				

The answers to the question “in what level is your trust to the public health care institutions” in a group of 201 individuals, with a statistical average 2.75 and deviation error 0.132, with a standard deviation and variance in a contrary proportion, specifically 1.876 and 3.518, show that patients relatively trust to the public health care institution.

Table 6: Reliability in public health institutions				
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual	
1	98	40.2	57.8	
2	13	40.2	-27.2	
3	7	40.2	-33.2	
4	7	40.2	-33.2	
5	76	40.2	35.8	
Total	201			
Source: Author				

Table 7: Model Summary ^b

Model	R Square	R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
				R Square Change	F Change		df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.811 ^a	.657	.656	.17766	.657	381.927	1	199	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), Log Reliability in public b. Dependent Variable: Log Laboratory Test									

Source: Author

At the regression model where dependent variable is logarithm of “analysis and laboratory tests” with explained independent variables “your trust at public health care institutions” have R² (coefficient of determination) 65.7%, so, independent variable describes 65.7% of dependent variable, which means that the independent variable explain very good dependent variable.

Table 8: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12.055	1	12.055	381.927	.000 ^b
	Residual	6.281	199	.032		
	Total	18.336	200			
b. Dependent Variable: Log Laboratory Test c. Predictors: (Constant), Log Reliability in public						

Source: Author

F-testy or AVONA shows that there is significance in a scale of 1%, so, there is an indication between these two variables, where there is an indication of them to each other.

Table 9: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Co linearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.027	.018		-1.517	.131					
	Log Reliability in public	.746	.038	.811	19.543	.000	.811	.811	.811	1.0	1.0
a. Dependent Variable: Log. Laboratory Test											

Source: Author

Simple regression shows that the scale of trusts' indication at the reliability of laboratory tests indicates positively where the constant was -.027, while with the increase of reliability in 0.746, it will be an increase of reliability to the public health care units.

The simple linear regression curve, expressed in a linear line between reliability and laboratory tests shows that there is a statistical indicative co-relation between these variables.

5. Conclusions

The data and information obtained from the research are not representative in order to make the implementing of the strategic macro decision, but as an information for making decisions and measures at the level of healthcare institutions.

As a priority, Kosovo must improve the system of licensing for providers and carry out the responsibility on the establishment of quality standards and accreditation of health institutions, which is foreseen according to the national strategy, irrespective of whether they are private or public. Strategic orientation in building quality systems in health care, except for orientation to the patient, patient safety should be also on focus. Therefore, establishment of an effective system of regulations and inspections of safety and quality of the health sector, to provide standards, in particular protecting patients and staff from harmful practices is needed.

Another element should be the strengthening of quality management capacity. This will be achieved through personnel training implementation in the field of quality with the implementation of quality systems, quality management and supervision of quality improvement, including all employees in the health sector.

Doctors still do not consider their patients as clients, but patients are considered as health care consumers, while patients as clients should be treated with the same level of service in any subject which offers health care services. Thus, this issue shall start to change by starting with development of management systems for Certification of Quality Management Systems.

Taking into the account also the data from the conducted research, it is necessary for laboratories that are in function within the health institutions, regardless, whether they are in primary, secondary or tertiary health system to start the requirements of Systems Quality Management to laboratories for the purpose of accreditation. With the beginning of the application of the requirements of these standards reliability of patients will start to raise in the values of laboratory tests. Other very important element is that the health care systems are complex, and have subcomponents of internal and external interconnected with each other or through clear rules or through visible understanding. Assessing the issues of human resource management is essential to understand how these systems function.

At the end the results of research partially confirmed our claim that the level of dissatisfaction is the overall results of the patient perception of quality of health services.

6. References

- Abdal Kareem, A., Aday, L.A. & Walker, G.M. Jr. (1996) Patient satisfaction in government health facilities in the state Qatar. *J Community Health*, 21: 349-58.
- Aizpuru, B. F. (1993). Barriers to verbal communication and consumer satisfaction with consultations in general medicine. *Gac Sanit*, 7(34): 27-31, www.arbetterbeginnings.com
- Cleary, P. D. & McNeil B. J. (Spring, 1988). Patient satisfaction as an indicator of quality care: 25(1):25-36.
- Donabedian, A. (April, 1981). Criteria, Norms and Standards of Quality: What Do They Mean? *American Journal of Public Health*. 409-412, www.urbanaffairs.univ.edu.
- Drucker, P.F. 1993. *The New Realities*. New York: Harper & Row.
- EN ISO 17025. General requirements for the competence of testing and calibration laboratories. International Standards Office, Geneva.
- Enriko, C. (2012). Problems Involved in Improving the Quality of Life in Albania in the Years 2000 – 2012, *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, www.mcser.org.
- Golden, B. (2006). Transforming Healthcare Organizations, *Healthcare Quarterly*, 10(Sp) November 2006: 10-19. DOI:10.12927/hcq.18490 , www.longwoodsreview.com
- Gounaris, C. (2008). Health Services Quality and Management in Greece Efficiency and Effectiveness of NHS Secondary Health Care Units , pp. 6. Athens University of Economic and Business, www.dmst.aueb.gr
- Grant, E.S. (1988). Quality Medical Care. A definition. *JAMA*: 280:56-61.
- ISO: IWA 1:2005. Quality Management System. Guidelines for process improvement in health service organization. International Standards Office, Geneva.

Stoimenova, Assena, Ani Stoilova, and Guenka Petrova. "ISO 9001 certification for hospitals in Bulgaria: does it help service?", *Biotechnology & Biotechnological Equipment*, 2014.

ISO 15189. Medical laboratories. Requirements for quality and competence. International Standards Office, Geneva.

ISQua (2007). *International principles for healthcare standards*. Dublin, A framework of requirements for standards

ISQua webinar (November, 2014). *International standards for Quality in the health*, Subashnie Devkaran.

Lazarus I. R., FACHE, & M. W. Chapman (2013). "ISO-Style" Healthcare: Designed to Keep Patients, Practitioners and Management Safe Principals, *Creative Healthcare*, www.beckershospitalreview.com.

Lleshi, S. (2015) *The impact and effectiveness of QMS in Kosovo health*, Ditët e studimeve shqiptare. European University of Tirana.

Murray, H., Locker, D., Mock, D. (1997). Patient satisfaction with a consultation at a craniofacial pain unit. *Community Dent Health*, 14(2): 69-73.

Nwabueze, U. (1997). Editorial: Total Quality Management in Health Care, *Total Quality Management*, Vol. 8, No. 5, pp. 203, <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/0954412979442>

Picker Institute Europe (2002). *International Journal for Quality in Health Care*. Guidelines of quality management healthcare, Picker Institute Europe.

Shaw, C., Groene, O., Mora, N. & Sunol, R. (2010). Accreditation and ISO certification: do they explain differences in quality management in European hospital? *Int.J Qual Health Care*: 22(6); 445-451, www.scielosp.org.

Veronda, M. F. (2001). *Patient satisfaction in managed care*: Department of Public Administration, University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

Cutting-Decelle, A.-F., G.-I. Magnan, C. Mouton, and R.I.M. Young. "A Common Vocabulary to Express Standardization Features : Towards the Interoperability of Industrial Data Standards", *Enterprise Interoperability*, 2015.

WHO (2000). *Health Systems: Improving Performance*, Geneva <http://www.fmh.ch>.

Hospital Location Selection with Grey System Theory

Halil ŞEN

Assist. Prof.Dr. Department of Industrial Engineering,
Faculty of Engineering and Architecture Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur, Turkey

Mehmet Fatih DEMİRAL

Assist. Prof.Dr. Department of Industrial Engineering,
Faculty of Engineering and Architecture Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur, Turkey

Abstract

The facility location selection is one of the most important decisions for investors and entrepreneurs. It is a strategic issue besides often decides the fate of such a facility. In this kind of strategic decisions, decision makers should take into account various objectives and criteria and the process of location selection is inherently complicated. This paper considers the hospital location selection for a new public hospital by using Gray Relational Analysis (GRA) and Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP). Gray Relational Analysis have been developed based on Grey System Theory. Grey System Theory is an interdisciplinary approach which first quantified by Deng in the early 1980's as an alternative method in creating the uncertainty have been proposed. The basic idea of emergence is to estimate the behavior of the systems which cannot be overcome by the stochastic or fuzzy methods with limited number of data. In this paper, the weights of criteria have been determined by using Analytic Hierarchic Process, then the grey relational degrees have been calculated for each alternative location.

Keywords: Gray Relational Analysis, Analytic Hierarchy Process, Location Selection.

Introduction

Location of an establishment is the most geographically convenient place for a business in terms of raw material supply, manufacture, storage, and distribution activities as well as execution of economic objectives throughout its organizational life span (Burdurlu, 1993). For an industrial business, the location of establishment is the most convenient place for supply, manufacture, storage, and distribution functions and as well as execution of economic objectives. Although economic geographer Thunen's study in 1826 is accepted as the beginning of central place theory, operational researchers trace the roots back to Alfred Weber's book "Theory of the Location of Industries" published in 1929. (Terouhid et al., 2012). Industrial location problem gains more and more importance on the basis of advancing technology, means of transportation, and increase in population resulting in a shortage of convenient locations. Although the initial studies discuss quantitative measures like cost and distance into account, today the problem involves qualitative measures which make it much more complicated.

Finding the optimal industrial location is a strategic decision and a misjudgment creates problems in the process and directly effects cost and profitability. Therefore, in industrial location, the core principals outlined below should be considered (Kobu, 2006):

- The needs of the business should be objectively studied and the decisions should be unbiased.
- The studies should be carried out systematically, employ miscellaneous and trusted resources.
- Location studies should be conducted step by step without mixing certain stages.
- In each stage, required expert people and institutions should be identified and the ways to utilize them should be explored.

In industrial locationing issues, different objectives can be determined based on the characteristics of the problem. The objectives that are usually considered in location problems can be different. Some of them can be as follows:

- Minimizing the total setup cost.
- Minimizing the longest distance from the existing facilities.
- Minimizing fixed cost.
- Minimizing total annual operating cost.
- Maximizing service.
- Minimizing average time/ distance traveled.
- Minimizing maximum time/ distance traveled.
- Minimizing the number of located facilities.
- Maximizing responsiveness.

Recently, environmental and social objectives based on energy cost, land use and construction cost, congestion, noise, quality of life, pollution, fossil fuel crisis and tourism are becoming customary. Consequently, one of the most important difficulties to tackle these problems is to find a way to measure these criteria (Farahani et al., 2010).

As industrial locationing is a strategic decision, it is one of the most important issues in achieving long term success. Choosing a wrong location would be costly and hard to correct. Human resources, costs, proximity to customer and suppliers criteria make the industrial locationing decisions harder. These criteria fall into two categories, subjective and objective (Liang and Mao-jiun, 1991):

- Objective criteria: Financial criteria such as investment costs.
- Subjective criteria: Qualitative criteria such as finding work force and climate conditions.

Most of the time, the optimum solution of industrial locationing problems requires more than one criteria or objective function. Therefore, multi-criteria decision mechanisms are applied in industrial locationing problems. AHP was used by Viswanadham and Kameshwaran (2007) in R&D facility locationing and by Fernandes and Ruiz (2009) in industrial locationing. ANP was used by Partovi (2006) in company locationing, by Tuzkaya et al. (2008) in waste storage locationing, and Aragonés-Beltrán et al. (2010) in urban solid waste facility locationing. TOPSIS method was used by Ertuğrul and Karakaşoğlu (2008) in textile manufacture facility locationing, by Awasthi (2011) in urban distribution center locationing, and by Mokhtarian and Hadi-Venchen (2012) in dairy plant locationing. ELECTRE method was used by Barda (1990) in thermal plant locationing problem, by Norese (2006) in waste incineration and disposal facility locationing, and by Ka (2011) in dry cargo harbor locationing. Keleş and Tunca (2015) used hierarchical ELECTRE method in Teknokent locationing. SMAA (stochastic multi-criteria acceptability analysis) method was used by Hokkanen et al. (1999) in harbor locationing, by Menou et al. (2010) in main distribution center for air cargo locationing. There are also hybrid applications. For instance, there are studies offering use of AHP and TOPSIS together for locationing (Yang et al, 1997; Kuo, 2002; Yong, 2006; Chou et al, 2007).

Fuzzy multi-criteria methods are also employed in locationing (Liang and Mao-jiun, 1991, Chou et al., 2008, Chou, 2010, Kahraman et al., 2003, Kaya and Çınar, 2008). Kaboli et al., (2007) used fuzzy AHP approach in plant locationing. Demirel et al. (2010) applied Choquet integral in storage locationing. Özdağoğlu (2011) used fuzzy ANP method. Momeni et al. (2011) used fuzzy VIKOR method for a plant locationing problem.

Hospital Location Selection

The general public's demand for health is rising promptly with the improvement of the living standard. Hospitals are one of the most important infrastructural objects. The increasing population, especially in developing countries, amplifies the demand for new hospitals. Hospitals are usually funded by the public sectors, by profit or nonprofit health organizations, charities, insurance companies or even religious orders. No matter who provides the answer, where to locate a new hospital is an important question to ask. Hospital site selection plays a vital role in the hospital construction and management. From aspect of the government, appropriate hospital site selection will help optimize the allocation of medical resources, matching the provision of health care with the social and economic demands, coordinating the urban and rural health service development, and easing social contradictions. From aspect of the citizen, proper hospital site selection will improve access to the health care, reduce the time of rescue, satisfy people's medical needs as well as enhance the quality of life. From the aspect of the investors and operators of the hospital, optimum hospital site selection will definitely be cost saving on capital strategy. It is an inevitable trend for hospitals to adopt cost accounting in order to adapt to the development of the market economy. Besides, better hospital site selection will promote the strategy of brand, marketing, differentiation and human resource, and enhance the competitiveness (Zhou et al., 2012). Hospital site selection is related to various aspects

of the society. Mixed views and debates on which criteria are most important would confuse even health care experts. Previous studies were mainly classified into three categories based on the hospital type and scale as shown below:

- General hospital : Capture rate of population, current and projected population density, travel time, proximity to major commuter and public transit routes, distance from arterials, distance from other hospitals, anticipated impact on existed hospitals, land cost, contamination, socio-demographics of service area.
- Children hospital : Conformity to surrounding region, incremental operating costs, site purchase cost, travel time, proximity to public transport, traffic routes, site ownership, site shape, site gradient, ground conditions (soils/rock), access, ease of patient flow and staff movement, existing infrastructure and availability of services, perimeter buffer zone, environmental considerations, future population and prominence.
- Professional medicine and cure hospital: proximity to future expansion space, consistency with city zoning/policies, compatibility with surrounding uses, character and scale, cost of site control, helicopter access, local community preferences, accessibility, centrality, environment, land ownership, size and future population and prominence (Ali et al., 2011).

Schuurman et al. (2006) tried to define rational hospital catchments for non-urban areas based on travel-time and considered general travel time; population density; socio-demographics of service area. Wu et al. (2007) used the Delphi method, the AHP and the sensitivity analysis to develop an evaluation method for selecting the optimal location of a regional hospital in Taiwan and determining its effectiveness and considered population number, density and age profile; firm strategy, structure and rivalry; related and supporting industries; governmental policy; capital, labor and land. Vahidnia et al. (2008) used Fuzzy AHP, tried to select the optimum site for a hospital in Tehran using a GIS, while at the same time considering the uncertainty issue and considered population density; travel time; distance from arterials; land cost; contamination. Fuzzy AHP was used in similar research conducted to solve the problem of a new hospital location determination in Ankara by Aydin (2009). Soltani et al. (2011) tried to select hospital site by using two stage fuzzy multi-criteria decision making process and considered distance to arterials and major roads; distance to other medical service centers; population density; parcel size for site screening and for site selection three main criteria; traffic, parcel characteristics, land use considerations.

Selecting a location for a potential hospital often decides the success or the failure of such a facility. It is thus important to assess the locations from multiple dimensions before selecting the site. This paper focuses on the multi factor evaluation of hospital sites using AHP and GRA.

Theoretical Background

1. Analytic Hierarchy Process

The Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) is a mathematical technique for multi-criteria decision making and is a structured technique for dealing with complex decisions. Rather than prescribing a "correct" decision. The AHP helps the decision makers find the one that best suits their needs and their understanding of the problem. Based on mathematics and psychology, it was developed by Thomas L. Saaty in the 1970s and has been extensively studied and refined since then. The AHP provides a comprehensive and rational framework for structuring a decision problem, representing and quantifying its elements, relating those elements to overall goals, and evaluating alternative solutions. It is used around the world in a wide variety of decision situations, in fields such as government, business, industry, healthcare, and education (El-abbadi et al.).

According to Saaty (1995), the AHP process is based on three principles of methodical process: constructing hierarchies, establishing priorities and reasonable consistency. The first step in AHP is to work on the decision problem in order to decompose it and then try to build a hierarchical structure from the criteria or sub criteria. According to Saaty (1990), decision maker should be careful with the structuring hierarchy. In order to do this, the structure should present the problem in a best way, all sides of the factors that affect the problem should be considered, all the information sources that might help the solution should be considered and all the participators who will be in the problem process should be defined (Tanyas et al., 2010).

The second step in using AHP is to set the priorities and weights for each element. The elements of each level of the hierarchy are rated using the pair wise comparison approach. The relative importance between two comparative factors is reflected by the element values of judgment matrix. Table 1 shows general form of the measurement scale. It has relative importance in scale of 1-9 (Saaty, 1980; Gungr et al., 2014)

Table 1. Scale for pairwise comparison in AHP

Importance degree	Descriptions	Explanation
1	Equally important	Criteria i and j are of equal importance
3	Weakly important	Criteria i is weakly more important than objective j
5	Strongly important	Criteria i is strongly more important than objective j
7	Very strongly important	Criteria i is very strongly more important than objective j
9	Extremely important	Criteria i is extremely more important than objective j
2, 4, 6, 8	Intermediate values	For example, a value of 8 means that Criteria i is midway between strongly and more important than objective j

The actors' comparative decisions between the paired goals build the basic pair wise comparison according to the relative importance of one goal to another. Paired comparisons are asked to the respondents in order to define which goal or criteria in the pair are more important to him/her. Saaty's scale of measurement for the paired comparisons uses the verbal comparisons into numerical value of the scale as in Table 1.

After defining and decomposing the problem into a hierarchical structure with decision elements, the pairwise comparison matrix (A) is formed (1).

$$A = (a_{ij})_{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \tag{1}$$

Where a_{ij} represents the judgment degree of ith factor compared to jth factor.

The weights vector (W_A) is formed (2).

$$W_A = \begin{bmatrix} (\prod_{j=1}^n a_{1j})^{1/n} \\ (\prod_{j=1}^n a_{2j})^{1/n} \\ \vdots \\ (\prod_{j=1}^n a_{nj})^{1/n} \end{bmatrix} \tag{2}$$

The normalized weights vector (W'_A) is then obtained as follows:

$$W'_A = \begin{bmatrix} (\prod_{j=1}^n a_{1j})^{1/n} / \sum_{i=1}^n ((\prod_{j=1}^n a_{ij})^{1/n}) \\ (\prod_{j=1}^n a_{2j})^{1/n} / \sum_{i=1}^n ((\prod_{j=1}^n a_{ij})^{1/n}) \\ \vdots \\ (\prod_{j=1}^n a_{nj})^{1/n} / \sum_{i=1}^n ((\prod_{j=1}^n a_{ij})^{1/n}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W_1 \\ W_2 \\ \vdots \\ W_n \end{bmatrix} \tag{3}$$

The last step, is checking consistency. According to Saaty (1990), consistency is not guaranteed in any measurement type. Errors in judgment are common; therefore, the consistency ratio (CR) is used to measure the consistency in pair wise comparisons. He proved that for common matrix, the largest eigen value is equal to the size of comparison matrix. The inconsistency of comparison matrix is computed as follows:

$$CI = \left(\frac{\lambda_{max} - n}{n - 1} \right) \tag{4}$$

Consistency check is applied by computing the consistency ratio (CR):

$$CR = \frac{CI}{RI} \tag{5}$$

Where RI is the random index. The values of RI are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: RI values

n	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
RI	0	0,58	0,9	1,12	1,24	1,32	1,41

Where $CR \leq 0.10$, it means that the inconsistency of the pairwise comparison matrix is in desired interval and matrix is acceptable.

2. Grey Relational Analysis

Many systems, such as those that are social, economic, agricultural, industrial, ecological, or biological in nature, are named based on the fields and ranges to which the research subjects belong. In contrast, the name grey systems was chosen based on the colors of the subjects under investigation. For example, in control theory, the darkness of colors has been commonly used to indicate the degree of clarity of information. One of the most well accepted representations is the so-called “black box.” It stands for an object with its internal relations or structure totally unknown to the investigator. Here, we use the word “black” to represent unknown information, “white” for completely known information, and “grey” for that information which is partially known and partially unknown. Accordingly, we name systems with completely known information as white systems, systems with completely unknown information as black systems, and systems with partially known and partially unknown information as grey systems, respectively.

In our daily social, economic, and scientific research activities, we often face situations involving incomplete information. For example, in some studies of agriculture, even though all the information related to the area which is planted, the quality of seeds, fertilizers, irrigation, etc., is completely known, it is still difficult to estimate the production quantity and the consequent annual income due to various unknown or vague information related to labor quality, level of technology employed, natural environment, weather conditions, etc. (Liu et. Al., 2006).

There are four possibilities for incomplete information of systems.

1. The information of elements (or parameters) is incomplete.
2. The information on structure is incomplete.
3. The information on boundary is incomplete.
4. The behavior information of movement is incomplete

Having “incomplete information” is the fundamental meaning of being “grey”. In different circumstances and from different angles, the meaning of being “grey” can still be extended. For more details, see Table 3 (Liu et. Al., 2006).

Table 3. Comparison between black, grey and white systems

	Black	Grey	White
Information	Unknown	Incomplete	Known
Appearance	Dark	Grey	Bright
Process	New	Replace old with new	Old
Property	Chaos	Complexity	Order
Methodology	Negative	Transition	Positive
Attitude	Indulgence	Tolerance	Serenity
Conclusion	No result	Multiple solution	Unique solution

Probability and statistics, fuzzy mathematics, and grey systems theory have been the three most-often applied theories and methods employed in studies of non-deterministic systems. Even though they study objects with different uncertainties, the commonality of these theories is their ability to make meaningful sense out of incompleteness and uncertainties. The comparison of these three theories is in the following Table 4 (Liu et. Al., 2006).

Table 4. Comparison between grey systems theory, probability, statistics and fuzzy mathematics

	Grey systems theory	Probability, statistics	Fuzzy mathematics
--	---------------------	-------------------------	-------------------

Objects of study	Poor information Uncertainty	Stochastic Uncertainty	Cognitive Uncertainty
Basic sets	Grey hazy sets	Cantor sets	Fuzzy sets
Methods	Information coverage	Probability distribution	Function of affiliation
Procedure	Grey series generation	Frequency distribution	Marginal sampling
Requirement	Any distribution	Typical distribution	Experience
Emphasis	Intention	Intention	Extension
Objective	Laws of reality	Laws of statistics	Cognitive expression
Characteristics	Small samples	Large samples	Experience

Grey number represents that the information of the number is insufficient and incomplete, and it belongs to a range instead of crisp value. A grey number g denotes by $\otimes g$.

$$\otimes g = [g^-, g^+] \tag{6}$$

Where g^- , g^+ represent the lower and upper bound of the interval. Let $\otimes g_1$ and $\otimes g_2$ be two grey numbers, and a be a crisp number, then the grey number arithmetic operations can be shown as follows:

$$\otimes g_1 = [g_1^-, g_1^+] \tag{7}$$

$$\otimes g_2 = [g_2^-, g_2^+] \tag{8}$$

Grey number addition

$$\otimes g_1 + \otimes g_2 = [g_1^-, g_1^+] + [g_2^-, g_2^+] = [g_1^- + g_2^-, g_1^+ + g_2^+] \tag{9}$$

Grey number subtraction

$$\otimes g_1 - \otimes g_2 = [g_1^-, g_1^+] - [g_2^-, g_2^+] = [g_1^- - g_2^+, g_1^+ - g_2^-] \tag{10}$$

Grey number multiplication

$$\otimes g_1 \cdot \otimes g_2 = [g_1^-, g_1^+][g_2^-, g_2^+] = [\min\{g_1^-g_2^-, g_1^-g_2^+, g_1^+g_2^-, g_1^+g_2^+\}, \max\{g_1^-g_2^-, g_1^-g_2^+, g_1^+g_2^-, g_1^+g_2^+\}] \tag{11}$$

Grey number division

$$\frac{\otimes g_1}{a} = \left[\frac{g_1^-}{a}, \frac{g_1^+}{a} \right] \tag{12}$$

$$\frac{a}{\otimes g_1} = \left[\frac{a}{g_1^+}, \frac{a}{g_1^-} \right] \tag{13}$$

Where $g_1^- > 0$, $g_1^+ > 0$, $g_2^- > 0$, $g_2^+ > 0$, $a > 0$.

The grey relational analysis with grey numbers and group decision making procedure has been developed, as shown in step 1 to step 8.

Step 1: Assume that L experts have been invited to participate in the evaluation of the alternative. Establish the grey decision-making matrix (G^k).

Assuming that there are m alternative characterized by n criteria, and the decision-making matrix given by the (k)th expert has been shown in Eq. (14)

$$\otimes G^k = \begin{bmatrix} \otimes g_{11}^k & \cdots & \otimes g_{1n}^k \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \otimes g_{m1}^k & \cdots & \otimes g_{mn}^k \end{bmatrix} \tag{14}$$

$$\otimes g_{ij}^k = [g_{ij}^-, g_{ij}^+], i=1,2,3,\dots,m; j=1,2,\dots,n \tag{15}$$

Where $\otimes g_{ij}^k$ represents the value of the (j)th criterion of the (i)th alternative evaluated by the (k)th expert.

Step 2: Normalize the data in the decision-making matrix, the methods for data processing should be chosen according to the types of the criteria. If the larger the criteria, the better the alternative, the criteria can be called benefit-criteria, on the contrary, the larger the criteria, the worse the alternative, the criteria can be called cost-criteria.

Benefit-criteria:

$$\otimes y_{ij}^k = \frac{\otimes g_{ij}^k}{\max_{i=1}^m \{\otimes g_{ij}^{k,+}\}}, \quad i=1,2,3,\dots,m; j=1,2,\dots,n$$

(16)

Cost criteria:

$$\otimes y_{ij}^k = \frac{\min_{i=1}^m \{\otimes g_{ij}^{k,-}\}}{\otimes g_{ij}^k}, \quad i=1,2,3,\dots,m; j=1,2,\dots,n$$

(17)

Step 3: Generate the reference alternative, the normalized matrix has been shown in Eq. (18), and the reference alternative can be determined by Eqs. (19) and (20). Reference alternative is the ideal best one.

$$\otimes Y^k = \begin{bmatrix} \otimes y_{11}^k & \dots & \otimes y_{1n}^k \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \otimes y_{m1}^k & \dots & \otimes y_{mn}^k \end{bmatrix}$$

(18)

$$y_j^{k,0} = \{y_1^{k,0}, y_2^{k,0}, y_3^{k,0}, \dots, y_n^{k,0}\}$$

(19)

$$y_j^{k,0} = \max_{i=1}^m y_{ij}^{k,+}, \quad j = 1,2,3, \dots, n$$

(20)

Where $y_j^{k,0}$ is the reference value in relation to the (j)th criterion.

Step 4: Calculate the difference between the alternatives and the reference alternative, and construct the difference matrix by Eqs. (21) and (22).

$$\otimes \Delta^k = \begin{bmatrix} \otimes \Delta_{11}^k & \dots & \otimes \Delta_{1n}^k \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \otimes \Delta_{m1}^k & \dots & \otimes \Delta_{mn}^k \end{bmatrix}$$

(21)

$$\otimes \Delta_{11}^k = [y_j^{k,0} - y_{ij}^{k,+}, y_j^{k,0} - y_{ij}^{k,-}], \quad i = 1,2, \dots, m; j = 1,2,3, \dots, n$$

(22)

Step 5: Calculate the grey relational coefficient for each alternative by Eqs. (23), (24) and (25).

$$\otimes \varepsilon_{ij}^k = [\otimes \varepsilon_{ij}^{k,-}, \otimes \varepsilon_{ij}^{k,+}]$$

(23)

$$\otimes \varepsilon_{ij}^{k,-} = \frac{\min_{i=1}^m \min_{j=1}^n \Delta_{11}^{k,-} + \rho \max_{i=1}^m \max_{j=1}^n \otimes \Delta_{11}^{k,+}}{\Delta_{11}^{k,+} + \rho \max_{i=1}^m \max_{j=1}^n \otimes \Delta_{11}^{k,+}}$$

(24)

$$\otimes \varepsilon_{ij}^{k,+} = \frac{\min_{i=1}^m \min_{j=1}^n \Delta_{11}^{k,-} + \rho \max_{i=1}^m \max_{j=1}^n \otimes \Delta_{11}^{k,+}}{\Delta_{11}^{k,-} + \rho \max_{i=1}^m \max_{j=1}^n \otimes \Delta_{11}^{k,+}}$$

(25)

Where $\otimes \varepsilon_{ij}^k$ is the grey relational coefficient, ρ represents the distinguishing coefficient, it takes the value of 0.5 in this paper.

Step 6: Calculate the grey relational degree. A grey relational degree is a weighted sum of the grey relational coefficients, as shown in Eq. (26).

$$\otimes \gamma_i^k = \sum_{j=1}^n \otimes \varepsilon_{ij}^k \otimes \omega_j$$

(26)

Where $\otimes \omega_j$ represents the grey weight (weighting coefficient) of the (j)th criterion.

Step 7: Whiten the grey relational degree and rank the alternatives. The whitening relational degree can be calculated by Eqs. (27) and (27). Rank the alternative according to the rule that the bigger the whitening relational degree, the better the corresponding alternative.

$$\otimes \gamma_i^k = [\gamma_i^{k,-}, \gamma_i^{k,+}]$$

(27)

$$\gamma_i^k = \frac{\gamma_i^{k,-} + \gamma_i^{k,+}}{2}$$

(28)

Where $\otimes \gamma_i^k$ represents the grey relational degree and γ_i^k represents whitening relational degree of the (i)th alternative respectively.

Step 8: Carry out group decision-making. Calculate the integrated relational degrees according to Eq. (29), and rank the prior order of the alternative according to the rule that the bigger the integrated relational degree, the better the corresponding alternative.

$$\gamma_i = (\prod_{k=1}^L \gamma_i^k)^{1/L} \quad (29)$$

Where γ_i represents the integrated relational degree of the i(th) alternative (Manzardo et. Al., 2012).

Under many situations, the values of the quantitative and qualitative criteria are often imprecise or vague, therefore GRA, one of the sub-branches of Deng's Grey Theory (Deng, 1989). Yang et al. (2006) used a combined AHP and GRA for supplier selection problem. AHP was used to calculate relative importance weightings of qualitative criteria. Then, the qualitative and quantitative data were utilized together and obtained the grey relational grade values. The best supplier had the highest grey relational value among others. Li et al. (2007) proposed a grey-based decision-making approach to the supplier selection problem. Congjun et al. (2009) presented a study on group decision making model based on grey relational analysis. Chiang-Ku et al (2009) used ANP and GRA to evaluate the employability of graduates from department of risk management and insurance. The paper proposed a curriculum performance evaluation method combining the Analytical Network Process (ANP) and the Grey Relational Analysis (GRA). Feng et al. (2011) presented a Study on Grey Relation Analysis Based on Entropy Method in Evaluation of Logistics Center Location grey relational analysis. The weights of the evaluation indexes were defined by the entropy method. The quantitative process and comparison of the qualitative information were made by GRA. Manzardo et al. (2012) developed a grey-based group decision-making methodology for the selection of hydrogen technologies in life cycle sustainability perspective. Kose et al. (2013) suggested an integrated approach based on grey system theory for personnel selection. Birgun et al. (2014) presented a study on a multi-criteria call center site selection by hierarchy grey relational analysis and the paper dealt with an approach based on AHP and GRA for choosing the best call center site. Hashemi et al. (2015) proposed an integrated green supplier selection approach with analytic network process and improved grey relational analysis.

Execution

In this case hospital location selection problem for a public hospital. Public benefit should be maximized whereas possible regret should be minimized in this process. In this case, GRA is recommended. The decision-makers consisted by three academics and three experts from the ministry of health. Three locations have been proposed by the governorship and the municipality for hospital site selection evaluation. These location sites are shown as a_1 , a_2 , and a_3 .

Many different criteria are considered for hospital site selection in many different researches and based on the considered situations for each research case. These criteria are integrated in the current research and classified into six criteria. These criteria are listed as:

- **C₁: Site conditions and surrounding** (Site size, Site preparation time, Parking: Surrounding street network to accommodate adequate parking, Proximity to banking facility, Proximity to community services, and Attractive outlook)
- **C₂: Accessibility and traffic** (Public transport link, Bicycle, Pedestrian, and Commute time for hospital staff)
- **C₃: Patient/emergency access consideration** (Helicopter access and Access to road network)
- **C₄: Cost** (Site preparation cost, Operational cost, and Maintenance cost).
- **C₅: Future considerations** (Expansion ability and Represent different geographic regions).
- **C₆: Nuisance** (Atmosphere conditions and Noise).

The weights of these criteria calculated by using AHP. The group leader determined the weights of the criteria which is calculated by using AHP. Where CR=0.04, it means that the inconsistency of the pairwise comparison matrix is in desired interval and matrix is acceptable. The weights of the criteria are as shown in Table:5.

Table: 5 The pair-wise comparison matrix for criteria

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	W _i
C1	1	3	5	1	7	9	0,34
C2	1/3	1	3	1/3	5	7	0,17
C3	1/5	1/3	1	1/5	3	5	0,09
C4	1	3	5	1	7	9	0,34

C5	1/7	1/5	1/3	1/7	1	3	0,05
C6	1/9	1/7	1/5	1/9	1/3	1	0,03

After determining the weights of criteria, the next step is establish the grey decision-making matrix (G^k). The grey decision-making matrix (G^k) was established by the using decision making references as shown in Table 6. The next step, we normalized the data in the decision-making matrix and we generated the reference alternative as shown in Table 7. After normalized the data, we calculated the difference between the alternatives and the reference alternative, and construct the difference matrix as shown in Table 8. The next step we calculated the grey relational coefficient for each alternative as shown in Table 9.

Table 6: The grey decision-making matrix (G^k).

		Accessibility and traffic	Patient/emergency access consideration	Site conditions and surrounding	Future considerations	Nuisance	Cost
DM#1	a ₁	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6
	a ₂	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8
	a ₃	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.8 , 1.0	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6
DM#2	a ₁	0.6 , 0.8	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6
	a ₂	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.8 , 1.0
	a ₃	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.8 , 1.0	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8
DM#3	a ₁	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.2 , 0.4	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.2 , 0.4
	a ₂	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.8 , 1.0	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8
	a ₃	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8
DM#4	a ₁	0.4 , 0.6	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6
	a ₂	0.8 , 1.0	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.8 , 1.0
	a ₃	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8
DM#5	a ₁	0.8 , 1.0	0.6 , 0.8	0.2 , 0.4	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6
	a ₂	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6
	a ₃	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6
DM#6	a ₁	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6
	a ₂	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.2 , 0.4	0.8 , 1.0
	a ₃	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.4 , 0.6	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8

Table 7: Normalized decision-making matrix

	Accessibility and traffic (Benefit)	Patient/emergency access consideration (Benefit)	Site conditions and surrounding (Benefit)	Future considerations (Benefit)	Nuisance (Benefit)	Cost (Cost)
y^{k0}	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
DM#1 a_1	0.8 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.5 , 0.75	0.6 , 0.8	0.5 , 0.75	0.66 , 1.0
a_2	0.6 , 0.8	0.75 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.66
a_3	0.8 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.75 , 1.0	0.8 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.66 , 1.0
DM#2 a_1	0.75 , 1.0	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.66 , 1.0
a_2	0.75 , 1.0	0.6 , 0.8	0.6 , 0.8	0.5 , 0.75	0.5 , 0.75	0.4 , 0.5
a_3	0.5 , 0.75	0.6 , 0.8	0.8 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.66
DM#3 a_1	0.75 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.25 , 0.5	0.6 , 0.8	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 1.0
a_2	0.5 , 0.75	0.75 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.8 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.25 , 0.66
a_3	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.5 , 0.75	0.6 , 0.8	0.5 , 0.75	0.25 , 0.66
DM#4 a_1	0.4 , 0.6	0.8 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.5 , 0.75	0.75 , 1.0	0.66 , 1.0
a_2	0.8 , 1.0	0.6 , 0.8	0.5 , 0.75	0.5 , 0.75	0.5 , 0.75	0.4 , 0.5
a_3	0.8 , 1.0	0.4 , 0.6	0.75 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.66
DM#5 a_1	0.8 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.25 , 0.5	0.5 , 0.75	0.4 , 0.6	0.66 , 1.0
a_2	0.4 , 0.6	0.5 , 0.75	0.75 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.6 , 0.8	0.66 , 1.0
a_3	0.6 , 0.8	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.75 , 1.0	0.8 , 1.0	0.66 , 1.0
DM#6 a_1	0.4 , 0.6	0.75 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.66 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.66 , 1.0
a_2	0.6 , 0.8	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.66 , 1.0	0.25 , 0.5	0.4 , 0.5
a_3	0.8 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.75	0.5 , 0.75	0.66 , 1.0	0.75 , 1.0	0.5 , 0.66

Table 8: The difference matrix

Δ^k	Accessibility and traffic	Patient/emergency access consideration	Site conditions and surrounding	Future considerations	Nuisance	Cost
y^{k0}	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
DM#1 a_1	0 , 0.2	0.25 , 0.5	0.25 , 0.5	0.2 , 0.4	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.34
a_2	0.2 , 0.4	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.25	0.4 , 0.6	0 , 0.25	0.34 , 0.5
a_3	0 , 0.2	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.2	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.34
DM#2 a_1	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.2	0.4 , 0.6	0 , 0.25	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.34
a_2	0 , 0.25	0.2 , 0.4	0.2 , 0.4	0.25 , 0.5	0.25 , 0.5	0.5 , 0.6
a_3	0.25 , 0.5	0.2 , 0.4	0 , 0.2	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.25	0.34 , 0.5
DM#3 a_1	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.25	0.5 , 0.75	0.2 , 0.4	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.5
a_2	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.2	0 , 0.25	0.34 , 0.75
a_3	0 , 0.25	0.25 , 0	0.25 , 0.5	0.2 , 0.4	0.25 , 0.5	0.34 , 0.75
DM#4 a_1	0.4 , 0.6	0 , 0.2	0.25 , 0.5	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.34
a_2	0 , 0.2	0.2 , 0.4	0.25 , 0.5	0.25 , 0.5	0.25 , 0.5	0.5 , 0.6
a_3	0 , 0.2	0.4 , 0.6	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.25	0.34 , 0.5
DM#5 a_1	0 , 0.2	0 , 0.25	0.5 , 0.75	0.25 , 0.5	0.4 , 0.6	0 , 0.34
a_2	0.4 , 0.6	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.25	0.2 , 0.4	0 , 0.34
a_3	0.2 , 0.4	0 , 0.25	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.2	0 , 0.34
DM#6 a_1	0.4 , 0.6	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.25	0 , 0.34	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.34
a_2	0.2 , 0.4	0 , 0.25	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.34	0.5 , 0.75	0.5 , 0.6
a_3	0 , 0.2	0.25 , 0.5	0.25 , 0.5	0 , 0.34	0 , 0.25	0.34 , 0.5

Table 9: The grey relational coefficient

$\otimes c_{ij}^k$	Accessibility and traffic	Patient/emergency access consideration	Site conditions and surrounding	Future considerations	Nuisance	Cost	
Wi	0.166	0.089	0.336	0.047	0.026	0.336	
DM#1	a ₁	0.56 , 1	0.33 , 0.5	0.33 , 0.5	0.38 , 0.56	0.33 , 0.5	0.42 , 1
	a ₂	0.38 , 0.56	0.5 , 1	0.5 , 1	0.29 , 0.38	0.5 , 1	0.33 , 0.42
	a ₃	0.56 , 1	0.33 , 0.5	0.5 , 1	0.56 , 1	0.5 , 1	0.42 , 1
DM#2	a ₁	0.55 , 1	0.6 , 1	0.33 , 0.43	0.55 , 1	0.38 , 0.55	0.47 , 1
	a ₂	0.55 , 1	0.43 , 0.6	0.43 , 0.6	0.38 , 0.55	0.38 , 0.55	0.33 , 0.38
	a ₃	0.38 , 0.55	0.43 , 0.6	0.6 , 1	0.55 , 1	0.55 , 1	0.38 , 0.47
DM#3	a ₁	0.75 , 1	0.75 , 1	0.38 , 0.43	0.58 , 0.65	0.75 , 1	0.5 , 1
	a ₂	0.5 , 0.6	0.75 , 1	0.75 , 1	0.83 , 1	0.75 , 1	0.38 , 0.52
	a ₃	0.75 , 1	1.5 , 0.6	0.5 , 0.6	0.58 , 0.65	0.5 , 0.6	0.38 , 0.52
DM#4	a ₁	0.33 , 0.43	0.6 , 1	0.38 , 0.55	0.38 , 0.55	0.55 , 1	0.47 , 1
	a ₂	0.6 , 1	0.43 , 0.6	0.38 , 0.55	0.38 , 0.55	0.38 , 0.55	0.33 , 0.38
	a ₃	0.6 , 1	0.33 , 0.43	0.55 , 1	0.55 , 1	0.55 , 1	0.38 , 0.47
DM#5	a ₁	0.65 , 1	0.6 , 1	0.33 , 0.43	0.43 , 0.6	0.38 , 0.48	0.52 , 1
	a ₂	0.38 , 0.48	0.43 , 0.6	0.6 , 1	0.6 , 1	0.48 , 0.65	0.52 , 1
	a ₃	0.48 , 0.65	0.6 , 1	0.43 , 0.6	0.6 , 1	0.65 , 1	0.52 , 1
DM#6	a ₁	0.38 , 0.48	0.6 , 1	0.6 , 1	0.52 , 1	0.43 , 0.6	0.52 , 1
	a ₂	0.48 , 0.65	0.6 , 1	0.43 , 0.6	0.52 , 1	0.33 , 0.43	0.38 , 0.43
	a ₃	0.65 , 1	0.43 , 0.6	0.43 , 0.6	0.52 , 1	0.6 , 1	0.43 , 0.52

Then we calculated the grey relational degree. A grey relational degree is a weighted sum of the grey relational coefficients. Where $\otimes \gamma_i^k$ represents the grey relational degree and γ_i^k represents whitening relational degree of the i(th) alternative respectively as shown in Table 10. The last step is calculating the integrated relational degrees according to Eq. (29), and rank the prior order of the alternative according to the rule that the bigger the integrated relational degree, the better the corresponding alternative as shown in Table 11.

Table 10: The grey relational degree

		γ_i^{k-}	γ_i^{k+}	γ_i^*
DM#1	a ₁	0.403005	0.753611	0.578308
	a ₂	0.41517	0.703672	0.559421
	a ₃	0.471373	0.9555	0.713436
DM#2	a ₁	0.448832	0.796182	0.622507
	a ₂	0.412063	0.586818	0.499441
	a ₃	0.467811	0.710445	0.589128
DM#3	a ₁	0.531865	0.791652	0.661759
	a ₂	0.586417	0.773824	0.68012
	a ₃	0.592115	0.643476	0.617796
DM#4	a ₁	0.42404	0.731052	0.577546
	a ₂	0.403118	0.568491	0.485804
	a ₃	0.478358	0.770643	0.6245
DM#5	a ₁	0.480028	0.775781	0.627904
	a ₂	0.520593	0.869679	0.695136
	a ₃	0.499103	0.807861	0.653482
DM#6	a ₁	0.530863	0.903923	0.717393
	a ₂	0.44027	0.601004	0.520637
	a ₃	0.474654	0.670224	0.572439

Table 11: Integrated relational degree

a ₁	0.629081183
a ₂	0.567517327
a ₃	0.626831599

Conclusion

Hospital location site selection problem turns into a complicated problem that one decision-maker cannot handle as amount of the investment increases. In this case, personal expertise is not enough and the subject should be examined from different angles. Therefore, the problem was handled by group decision making method as the information and experience provided by the persons would be more than one person's information and experience and this would increase the effectiveness of the decision. Location site selection is a strategical decision and a mistake would be very hard to correct. As a result of the study alternative 1 (a_1) was selected by the group. As you see a_1 and a_3 had very close value. a_1 and a_3 are very close places and nearly same size, so the result did not surprise us too much.

References

- Ali, S., Ebrahim, Z.M., (2011). Hospital site selection using two-stage fuzzy multi-criteria decision making process. *Journal of Urban and Environmental Engineering* 5(1), 32–43
- Aragonés-Beltrán, P., Pastor-Ferrando, J. P., García-García, F., & Pascual-Agulló, A. (2010). An Analytic Network Process approach for siting a municipal solid waste plant in the Metropolitan Area of Valencia (Spain). *Journal of Environmental Management*, 91(5), 1071-1086. doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2009.12.007
- Awasthi, A., Chauhan, S., & Goyal, S. (2011). A multi-criteria decision making approach for location planning for urban distribution centers under uncertainty. *Mathematical & Computer Modelling*, 53(1/2), 98-109. doi:10.1016/j.mcm.2010.07.023
- Aydın, Özlem (2009). Hospital Location for Ankara with Fuzzy AHP. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi*
- Barda, O. H., Dupuis, J., & Lencioni, P. (1990). Multi-criteria location of thermal power plants. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 45(2/3), 332-346.
- Birgun, S., & Gungor, C. (2014). A multi-criteria call center site selection by hierarchy grey relational analysis. *Journal of Aeronautics & Space Technologies / Havacilik Ve Uzay Teknolojileri Dergisi*, 7(1), 45-52.
- Burdurlu, E., (2003). Location Choice For Furniture Industry Firms By Using Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) Method. *Gazi Üniversitesi Fen Bilimleri Dergisi*, 16 (2), 1-9
- Chou, C.C. (2010). Application of a Fuzzy MCDM Model to the Evaluation of Plant Location. *International Journal of Innovative Computing Information and Control*, 6(6): 2581-2594.
- Chou, S.Y., Chang, Y.H., Shen, C.Y. (2008). A Fuzzy Simple Additive Weighting System Under group Decision-Making for Facility Location Selection with Objective/Subjective Attributes. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 189(1): 132-145.
- Demirel, T., Demirel, N., & Kahraman, C. (2010). Multi-criteria warehouse location selection using Choquet integral. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 37(5), 3943-3952. doi:10.1016/j.eswa.2009.11.022
- Deng, J. L., (1989) "Introduction to Grey System", *Journal of Grey System*, 1(1), 1-24.
- El-Abadi, N. K., & El-Abadi, A. N. Developeping measurements for steganography covers.
- Ertuğrul, İ., & Karakaşoğlu, N. (2008). Comparison of fuzzy AHP and fuzzy TOPSIS methods for facility location selection. *International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology*, 39(7/8), 783-795. Doi:10.1007/s00170-007-1249-8
- Fan, C., Tsai, H., & Peng, J. (2009). Using ANP and GRA to evaluate the employability of graduates from department of risk management and insurance. *Journal of Grey System*, 21(1), 71-84.
- Farahani, R.Z., SteadieSeifi, M., & Asgari, N. (2010). Review Article: Multiple criteria facility location problems: A survey. *Applied Mathematical Modelling*, 341689-1709. doi:10.1016/j.apm.2009.10.005
- Feng, L., Yuan, R., (2011). Study on Grey Relation Analysis Based on Entropy Method in Evaluation of Logistics Center Location. *Third International Conference on Measuring Technology and Mechatronics Automation*, Vol. 3, 474-477.
- Fernández, I., & Ruiz, M. (2009). Descriptive model and evaluation system to locate sustainable industrial areas. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 17(1), 87-100. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2008.02.011
- Gungor, C., & Birgun, S. (2014). A multi-criteria call center site selection by hierarchy grey relational analysis. *Journal of Aeronautics and Space Technologies*, 7(1), 45-52.
- Hashemi, S. H., Karimi, A., & Tavana, M. (2015). An integrated green supplier selection approach with analytic network process and improved Grey relational analysis. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 159178-191. doi:10.1016/j.ijpe.2014.09.027

- Hokkanen, J., Lahdelma, R., Salminen, P., (1999). A Multiple Criteria Decision Model for Analyzing and Choosing Among Different Development Patterns for the Helsinki Cargo Harbor. *Socio-Economic Planning Sciences*, 33, 1, 1999, 1-23.
- Ka, B. (2011). Application of Fuzzy AHP and ELECTRE to China Dry Port Location Selection. *The Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics*, 27, 2, 2011, 331-353.
- Kaboli, A., Aryanezhad, M., Shahanaghi, K. and Niroomand, I. (2007). A New Method for Plant Location Selection Problem: A Fuzzy-AHP Approach. *Systems, Man and Cybernetics. ISIC. IEEE International Conference*, 582-585.
- Kahraman, C., Ruan, D., Dogan, I. (2003). Fuzzy Group Decision-Making For facility Location Selection. *Information Sciences*, 157: 135-153.
- Kaya, I., Çınar, D. (2007). Facility Location Selection Using a Fuzzy Outranking Method. *Journal of Multiple-Valued Logic & Soft Computing*, 2008, Vol. 14 Issue 3-5, p251-263.
- Keles, M. K., & Tunca, M. Z. (2015). Hiyerarşik Electre Yönteminin Teknokent Yönetiminin Teknokent Seçiminde Kullanımı Üzerine Bir Çalışma. *Suleyman Demirel University Journal of Faculty of Economics & Administrative Sciences*, 20(1), 199-223.
- Kobu, B. (2013). Üretim Yönetimi, Genişletilmiş ve Güncellenmiş 16. Baskı, *Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım A.Ş.*, Şubat, İstanbul.
- Köse, E., APLAK, H. S., & KABAK, M. (2013). Personel Seçimi için Gri Sistem Teori Tabanlı Bütünleşik Bir Yaklaşım. *Ege Academic Review*, 13(4), 461-471.
- Kuo, R.J., Chi, S.C. Kao, S.S. (2002). A decision support system for selecting convenience store location through integration of fuzzy AHP and artificial neural network. *Computers in Industry*, 199-214.
- Li, G., Yamaguchi, D., & Nagai, M. (2007). A grey-based decision-making approach to the supplier selection problem. *Mathematical and Computer Modelling*, 46573-581. doi:10.1016/j.mcm.2006.11.021
- Liang, G.S., Mao-Jiun, J. (1991). A Fuzzy Multi- Criteria Decision-Making Method for Facility Site Selection. *The International Journal of Production Research*, 29(11): 2313-2330.
- Manzardo, A., Ren, J., Mazzi, A., & Scipioni, A. (2012). A grey-based group decision-making methodology for the selection of hydrogen technologies in life cycle sustainability perspective. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 3717663-17670. doi:10.1016/j.ijhydene.2012.08.137
- Menou, A., Benallou, A., Lahdelma, R., & Salminen, P. (2010). Decision support for centralizing cargo at a Moroccan airport hub using stochastic multicriteria acceptability analysis. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 204(3), 621-629. doi:10.1016/j.ejor.2009.11.021
- Mokhtarian, M.N. & Hadi-Vencheh, A. (2012). A New Fuzzy TOPSIS Method Based On Left and Right Scores: An Application for Determining an Industrial Zone for Dairy Products Factory. *Applied Soft Computing*, 12, 8, 2012, 2496-2505
- Momeni, M., Fathi, M.R. ve Kashef, M. (2011). A Fuzzy VIKOR Approach for Plant Location Selection. *Journal of American Science*, 7 (9):766-771.
- Norese, M.F. (2006). ELECTRE III as a Support for Participatory Decision-Making on the Localization of Waste-Treatment Plants. *Land Use Policy*, 23, 1, 2006, 76-85.
- Ozdogoglu, A. (2012). A multi-criteria decision-making methodology on the selection of facility location: fuzzy ANP. *The International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology*, (5-8), 787.
- Partovi, F. Y. (2006). An analytic model for locating facilities strategically. *Omega*, 34(1), 41-55. doi:10.1016/j.omega.2004.07.018
- Rao, C., Li, C., Li, W., & Peng, J. (2009). Group decision making model based on grey relational analysis. *Journal of Grey System*, 21(1), 15-24.
- Saaty, T.L. (1980). *The Analytic Hierarchy Process*, McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Saaty, T.L. (1990). *Multicriteria Decision Making: The Analytic Hierarchy Process*. RWS Publications, Pittsburg
- Saaty, T.L. (1995). *Decision Making for Leaders*. RWS Publications, Pittsburg
- Schuurman, N., Fiedler, R. S., Grzybowski, S. W., & Grund, D. (2006). Defining rational hospital catchments for non-urban areas based on travel-time. *International Journal of Health Geographics*, 543-11. Doi:10.1186/1476-072X-5-43
- Soltani, A., Marandi, E.Z. (2011). Hospital site selection using two stage fuzzy multicriteria decision making process. *Journal of Urban and environmental engineering*, Vol.5 No. 1, pp. 32-43.

-
- Tanyas, M., Candan, C., & Cesur, K. (2010). Supply Chain Management in Textile and Supplier Performance Evaluation. In *10th Global Conference on Business & Economics*, Rome, Italy.
- Tuzkaya, G., Onüt, S., Tuzkaya, U. R., & Gülsün, B. (2008). An analytic network process approach for locating undesirable facilities: an example from Istanbul, Turkey. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 88(4), 970-983.
- Vahidnia, M. H., Alesheikh, A. A., & Alimohammadi, A. (2009). Hospital site selection using fuzzy AHP and its derivatives. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 903048-3056. doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2009.04.010
- Viswanadham N, Kameshwaran S (2007). A decision framework for location selection in global supply chains. *Proceedings of the 3rd Annual IEEE Conference on Automation Science and Engineering Scottsdale, AZ, USA, Sept 22–25, 2007*, pp 704–709
- Wu, C., Lin, C., & Chen, H. (2007). Optimal selection of location for Taiwanese hospitals to ensure a competitive advantage by using the analytic hierarchy process and sensitivity analysis. *Building and Environment*, 42(3), 1431-1444. doi:10.1016/j.buildenv.2005.12.016
- Wu, J., & Zhou, L. (2012). GIS-Based Multi-Criteria Analysis for Hospital Selection in Haidian District of Beijing.
- Yang, C. C., Chen, B. S., (2006). Supplier Selection Using Combined Analytical Hierarchy Process and Grey Relational Analysis. *Journal of Manufacturing Technology Management*, 17(7): 926–941.
- Yang, J., Lee, H. (1997). An AHP decision model for facility location selection. *Facilities*, 15(9): 241-254 (1997).
- Yong D. (2006). Plant Location Selection Based on Fuzzy TOPSIS. *The International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology*, 28, 839–844

Integer Programming Model for Two-Centered Double Traveling Salesman Problem

Mehmet Fatih Demiral

Assist. Prof.Dr., Department of Industrial Engineering, Faculty of Engineering and
Architecture Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur, Turkey

Halil Şen

Assist. Prof.Dr., Department of Industrial Engineering, Faculty of Engineering and
Architecture Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur, Turkey

Abstract

Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP) is among the most popular combinatorial problems and has been widely studied with many extensions in the literature. There have been integer programming formulations and solution approaches for TSP and its variations. One of the most popular topics is the multiple TSP (m-TSP). It has been started to work on the last decades. Generally, m-TSP has a single depot and more than one tour. However, some types have more than one depot. Besides, if seeking, many encounter with double traveling salesman problem (d-TSP). As inferred from the literature, d-TSP is a variation of m-TSP in which two salespersons operate in parallel. They start and end either in a single or two depots. Apart from the literature, a new TSP model has been constructed in this study. The model analyzes the behaviors of traveling salesmen both in the main and secondary tour. Tours have been aggregated via single node existing in the secondary tour. In the application part, Simulated Annealing (SA) was used to optimize the traveling paths of salesmen. The objective parameters of both tours have been explored within a numerical example. According to them, several cost values have been found. The optimum parameters and costs of both tours are to be determined and some practical issues relevant to the behaviors of traveling salesmen have been given. Results suggest that alternative travel plans of traveling salesmen could be possible. Also, findings give hints about both tours and their characteristics.

Keywords: Double Traveling Salesman Problem, Integer Programming, Combinatorial Optimization.

1. Introduction

The traveling salesman problem is among the popular topics in the field of combinatorial optimization. The salesman has an objective to minimize the travel distance by visiting each city only once. The complexity of TSP grows exponentially as number of nodes increases. If huge number of nodes exist, TSP gets substantially hard. Therefore, new techniques and methodologies have been developed so as to solve TSP effectively. Heuristic and metaheuristic solution procedures are the most accepted ones to cope with TSPs. TSP covers many sub-topics which have close relations with other complex structured routing problems. By the way, TSP (decision version) is NP-complete problem. TSP is also in class NP and many other problems, such as satisfiability problem (SAT), clique problem, vertex cover problem and hamiltonian path problem reduce to TSP decision problem (Farahani & Hekmatfar (eds.), 2009, p. 33-34). Basically, TSP has two widely researched variants, named as traveling purchaser problem (TPP) and vehicle routing problem (VRP). Those are applicable and useful for operations research and especially in the field of many industries. Other than TPP and VRP, m-TSP is another form of TSP in which more than one salesman operates through multiple paths. Bektas (2006) gives some formulations and solution procedures for m-TSP. Although there exist quite more publications upon TSP and VRP, m-TSP has less attention in the literature. Possible variations of m-TSP are classified by number of depots, number of salesmen, the number of salesmen having fixed charges, time windows and the other special constraints. One of the most widely studied m-TSP is double traveling salesman problem (d-TSP). In d-TSP, some types have two depots and two salesmen operate independently. Other types have single depot and they return to the original depot. If the salesmen being used in optimization are not stated, then each salesman usually has an associated fixed cost incurring whenever this salesman used in this solution. On the other hand, number of tours is fixed in d-TSP. D-TSP has two tours in all cases.

In this research, a new model has been proposed for d-TSP, named as two centered d-TSP (tcd-TSP). The reason of using this term is the existing of two depots (centers) which are waiting to be selected among other nodes. One of them is the home depot of primary tour and the other is the home depot of secondary tour. Therewithal, the second center is the aggregation point of both tours. To be clear, the model investigates the relative status of primary and secondary paths. Hence, two parameters are set to evaluate both tours and their characteristics. Eventually, the optimum traveling plan and the optimum parameters for tcd-TSP are to be found out.

2. Literature Research

There has been wide range of publication upon TSP and its variations. Burkard, Deineko, van Dal, van der Veen and Woeginger (1998) write a survey upon special cases of the TSP. They mention about symmetric and asymmetric matrices, euclidean TSP and the various special cases of the TSP. One of the leading classifications is depending on data whether to be symmetric or asymmetric. In symmetric TSP (s-TSP), the cost measure $d_{ij} = d_{ji}$ associated with edge $(i, j) \in A$ is valid for all pair of points. If $d_{ij} \neq d_{ji}$ for at least one, then the TSP becomes asymmetric TSP (a-TSP). Several a-TSP formulations are given in (Oncan, Altinel & Laporte, 2009). There have been recently found many publications on the two types of TSP worked out through heuristics. To solve the well-known symmetric and asymmetric TSPs, a new version of bat algorithm is introduced in (Osaba, Yang, Diaz, Lopez-Garcia & Carbelledo, 2016). Brest and Zerovnik (2005) developed a heuristic algorithm for the a-TSP and studied with instances from TSPLIB library. A new genetic algorithm for asymmetric version is proposed and solved on benchmark instances in (Nagata & Soler, 2012). The other widely studied classification is depending on the number of tours in the problem. The number of tours can be single, double or multiple. In this context, m-TSP can be defined as in (Bektas, 2006, p. 209-210): In a given of nodes, let there are m salesmen located at a single depot node. The remaining nodes that are to be visited are intermediate nodes. Then the m-TSP consists of finding tours for all m salesmen, who all start and end at the depot such that each intermediate node is visited exactly once and the total cost of visiting all nodes is minimized. The cost metric can be defined in terms of distance, time etc. The basic extensions of m-TSP are also touched upon in this section. Since TSP is a special version of m-TSP, if one tour exists, m-TSP reduces to the TSP. If double tour exists, m-TSP reduces to the d-TSP. Likewise, the other versions of m-TSP can be obtained as the number of tours in the problem changes. There has been limited number of publication upon m-TSP and its extensions. In this study, some of the important ones are given. Kara and Bektas (2006) give some integer programming formulations for m-TSP and its variations. They show that the solution of multidepot m-TSP with the proposed formulation is significantly superior to previous approaches. Cheang, Gao, Lim, Qin and Zhu (2012) extend the TSP with pick-up delivery and LIFO loading (TSPPDL) by considering two additional factors, the use of multiple vehicles and a limitation on the total distance that a vehicle can travel. Chan and Baker (2005) consider the multiple depots multiple TSFLP expanded to include vehicle range and multiple service frequency requirements. Artificial intelligence has started to play an important role in solving m-TSP. By using genetic algorithm and evolutionary programming, a new methodology for m-TSP was developed in several studies (Carter & Ragsdale, 2006; Kota & Jarmai, 2015; Yuan, Skinner, Huang & Liu, 2013). Modares, Somhom and Enkawa (1999) propose an algorithm for TSP based on self organizing neural network approach and extend it to m-TSP. In the following researches (Mladenovic, Urosevic, Hanafi & Ilic, 2012; Soylu, 2015), VNS approach was used to solve m-TSP. As mentioned before, one of the important extensions of m-TSP is the d-TSP. Plebe and Anile (2002) developed an algorithm and applied a neural network based approach to d-TSP. One of the most common research topics of d-TSP is the d-TSP with multiple stacks (d-TSPMS). There have been quite a lot of publications in this version. Petersen and Madsen (2009) introduce the problem and present four different metaheuristic approaches to its solution. Efficient algorithms for the problem are presented in (Cazassa, Ceselli & Nunkesser, 2012) and exact methods for the problem are developed in (Iori & Ledesma, 2015). Petersen, Archetti and Sprezza (2010) present mathematical formulations and solution approaches for the problem. It can be counted more publications in relation to d-TSP and its extensions.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 3 formally introduces the tcd-TSP and gives the integer programming formulation. In Section 4, a simulated annealing based algorithm for the problem is proposed and the model is tested for a group of parameters and findings are given. Finally, Section 5 summarizes and comments on the contribution of this paper.

3. Mathematical Model for tcd-TSP

As mentioned in introduction part, a new mathematical model has been developed in this section. In tcd-TSP, the problem has two center points selecting among nodes and tours are aggregated via single node existing in the secondary tour. The center points are represented as the home depots of the tours. Thus, the optimum solution changes as the home depots change. In addition, each travel path is set by a parameter. Thence, the optimum solution is also affected by the objective parameters. In light of this information, the basic tcd-TSP can be formulated as follows:

Description of Sets:

$$N = \{1, 2, \dots, p_1, \dots, n\}$$

$$M = \{n + 1, n + 2, \dots, p_2, \dots, m\}$$

$$R = N \cup M$$

Parameters:

- α : cost parameter of primal tour
- β : cost parameter of secondary tour
- c_{ij} : distance value between city i and j in the primal tour
- d_{ij} : distance value between city i and j in the secondary tour

Decision Variables:

$$x_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if salesman travels between city } i \text{ and } j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Min } Z = \alpha * \sum_{i,j \in N \cup \{p_2\}} \sum_{j \in N} c_{ij} * x_{ij} + \beta * \sum_{i,j \in M} \sum_{j \in M} d_{ij} * x_{ij}$$

s.t.

$$\sum_{j \in N \cup \{p_2\}} x_{ji} = 1 \quad \forall i \in N \cup \{p_2\} \tag{1}$$

$$\sum_{j \in N \cup \{p_2\}} x_{ij} = 1 \quad \forall i \in N \cup \{p_2\} \tag{2}$$

$$\sum_{j \in M} x_{ji} = 1 \quad \forall i \in M \tag{3}$$

$$\sum_{j \in M} x_{ij} = 1 \quad \forall i \in M \tag{4}$$

$$\sum_{i \in S_1} \sum_{j \notin S_1} x_{ij} \geq 1 \quad |S_1| \geq 2 \wedge S_1 \subset N \cup \{p_2\} \tag{5}$$

$$\sum_{i \in S_2} \sum_{j \notin S_2} x_{ij} \geq 1 \quad |S_2| \geq 2 \wedge S_2 \subset M. \tag{6}$$

$$\forall x_{ij} \in \{0, 1\} \quad \exists (i, j) \in N \cup \{p_2\} \wedge \exists (i, j) \in M \tag{7}$$

In the model formulation, objective function minimizes the total cost of two salesmen in terms of distance. Equations (Eqs.) (1) and (2) are the degree constraints for the primal tour. Eqs. (3) and (4) are the degree constraints for secondary tour. Inequalities (Ineq.) (5) and (6) are the subtour elimination constraints for tour 1 and 2, respectively. Expression (7) gives decision variables and states that some of the nodes belong to primary tour and the remaining belongs to the other one. The integer programming formulation has n^2+n+m^2-m zero-one decision variables and $2^{n+1}+2^m+n+m$ constraints for each model constructed because of the unknown location of transfer point. In total, there exist $mn^2+m^3+mn-m^2$ zero-one decision variables and $m2^{n+1}+m2^m+mn+m^2$ constraints in the integer programming model. Thus, the formulation has $O(mn^2)$ integer

variables and $O(m2^{n+1})$ constraints if inequality $n \geq m$ is hold. The tcd-TSP formulation has approximately the four thousand variables and twenty million inequalities when $n=20$, $m=10$.

The proposed integer programming model for tcd-TSP is convenient for tourism organizations, cargo and freight transportation by all modes, the design of two-piece objects, fixing the transfer/transshipment points and depot locations and etc.

4. Application of the SA Algorithm for the tcd-TSP

Kirkpatrick, Gelatt, and Vecchi (1983) introduced the simulated annealing algorithm which attempts to solve hard combinatorial optimization problems in operational research area by using the annealing process of hard metals. The authors found out the relation between the annealing process and optimization. Thereafter, they formulated the relation in compact form and it has begun to apply in many optimization problems. In this section, a neighborhood structure has been developed and embedded in SA algorithm. Here, also a distinct objective function is evaluated for two interrelated tours. This structure is peculiar to tcd- TSP. As explained clearly, the overall steps of SA are given below:

4. 1. Steps of the SA Algorithm for tcd-TSP

Step 1. Select the initial tours A and B, objective parameters α and β , iteration limit K, the iteration limit L for temperature change, initial temperature T_0 , cooling rate r ($0 < r < 1$). Global solution $A^* = A^1$, $B^* = B^1$, global index $k=1$ and iteration counter $l=1$.

Step 2. Select a point randomly from secondary tour B and fix it as transfer point between A and B. Revise the primal tour A including the home depot location.

Step 3. Define two indices for both tours separately and exchange the points represented by them. For instance, indices a, b for A and indices d, e for B. Calculate the net improvement as $\Delta Z = \left[Z(\alpha^* A^k + \beta^* B^k) - Z(\alpha^* A^{k+1} + \beta^* B^{k+1}) \right]$. It should be here noticed that alpha and beta can get out of the brackets since they are parameters.

Step 4. If $\Delta Z \geq 0$ (min.), then accept the solution and update it. Go to step 6, otherwise go to step 5.

Step 5. If $P = \exp\left[-\frac{\left(Z(\alpha^* A^{k+1} + \beta^* B^{k+1}) - Z(\alpha^* A^k + \beta^* B^k)\right)}{T_k}\right] \geq 0.5$ then update $A^{k+1} = A^k + \Delta A^{k+1}$ and $B^{k+1} = B^k + \Delta B^{k+1}$, otherwise update $A^{k+1} = A^k$ and $B^{k+1} = B^k$. Go to step 7.

Step 6. If the objective value $Z(\alpha^* A^{k+1} + \beta^* B^{k+1})$ is superior to global objective value, update the global solutions $A^* = A^{k+1}$ and $B^* = B^{k+1}$.

Step 7. $k = k + 1, l = l + 1$. If $l = L$ take $l = 1$ and update T as $T = r * T$. Return to Step 2.

Step 8. If $k = K$ then stop the algorithm.

4. 2. Data and Parameter Settings

In this application, a kind of medium size problem has been handled with size ($n=10$, $m=5$). The random data has been used in the application. In order not to converge quickly the poor solutions, a relatively high initial temperature T_0 has been taken ($T_0=100000$) in SA algorithm. Cooling rate is also taken high because of keeping the accepting probability of poor results high ($r=0.80$). $L=1500$, the iteration limit for temperature change is sufficient to get optimum results for this medium size problem. $K=35000$, the global iteration limit is also sufficient to get best results for the problem ($n=10$, $m=5$).

4. 3. Computational Results

The SA algorithm for the tcd-TSP was developed using MatlabR2015b and run on a PC Pentium (R) Dual-Core CPU 3.33 GHz speed with 4 GB of RAM. The proposed SA based algorithm converged to the optimal solution within acceptable time. The coded algorithm was run 10 times for each pair of alpha and beta and 35000 iterations for each run. As seen in Table 1, α varies in the interval [10,100] and β is kept fixed at 0.01. In Table 2, α is kept fixed at 90 and β varies in the interval [0.01, 1]. Although the algorithm explores the solution according to the objective function, the optimum selection may be

done after all of the algorithmic processes are completed. In the study, optimum traveling path of salesmen has been selected from Table 1 and 2 according to the sum of the primary and secondary tour lengths. Here, the findings indicate that the objective function of model provides the alternative solutions to the tcd-TSP. However, the optimum has been determined among the alternative solutions. The proposed SA based algorithm was found successful to get acceptable results for this problem. Alternatively, many neighborhood structures can be developed and used successfully. Table 1 tells that the tour number nine is optimal and Table 2 shows that again, the same tour is optimal when the total tour length is considered. Besides this information, optimal parameter values have been found in the interval for alpha and beta. The optimal traveling path of salesmen and its length are as follows.

The Primary Tour

3-6-1-2-9-10-7-12-8-5-4-3

Optimal Length of A: 24136, Alpha for A: 90

The Secondary Tour

12-13-15-14-11-12

Optimal Length of B: 2182, Beta for B: 0.01

Table 1: Alternative paths found according to alpha [10,100] and beta 0.01.

Path Number	Primary Tour (A)	Secondary Tour (B)	Total Length of Path	Alpha (α)	Beta (β)	Objective Value
1	24136	3096	27232	10	0.01	241391
2	24136	3517	27653	20	0.01	482755
3	24136	4730	28866	30	0.01	724127
4	24136	4456	28592	40	0.01	965485
5	24136	2822	26958	50	0.01	1206828
6	24176	2182	26358	60	0.01	1450581
7	24136	2822	26958	70	0.01	1689548
8	24220	3517	27737	80	0.01	1937635
9	24136	2182	26318	90	0.01	2172261
10	24136	4456	28592	100	0.01	2413645

Source: Author's calculations using Matlab.

Table 2: Alternative paths found according to alpha 90 and beta [0.01,1].

Path Number	Primary Tour (A)	Secondary Tour (B)	Total Length of Path	Alpha (α)	Beta (β)	Objective Value
1	24136	2182	26318	90	0.01	2172261
2	24136	3096	27232	90	0.02	2172302
3	24136	3096	27232	90	0.03	2172333
4	24136	3517	27653	90	0.05	2172416
5	24136	2822	26958	90	0.08	2172466
6	24136	2798	26934	90	0.1	2172520
7	24136	4035	28171	90	0.3	2173451
8	24136	3517	27653	90	0.5	2174000
9	24136	2798	26934	90	0.8	2174478
10	24136	3517	27653	90	1	2175757

5. Conclusions

In this paper, an integer programming model has been proposed for the tcd-TSP. The paper also introduces the SA based approach for this problem. In order to verify the validity and effectiveness of the proposed model and algorithm, the problem was solved through random data. The findings indicate that many alternative solutions can be obtained by using different pairs of alpha and beta. As observed in many tours, the length of second tour changes because of the relative size of parameters and the data used in the study. Thus, the results reveal that the cost of path changes as the preferences of traveling salesmen on the path change. Therewithal, the model ensures to fix and update the optimum location of depots.

The proposed model can be applied to various industrial sectors as transportation and tourism are the foremost. It helps the manager to control the travel plan whenever the cost of it changes. Further, the model specifies the optimum location of depots and transfer points. However, the board of management may decide to move the optimum locations while considering the real world constraints. Hence, they apply the sub-optimal results.

As distinct from this study, new mathematical models which take the fixed and variable delivery costs into consideration will be proposed for the tcd-TSP. The new constraints, like time windows, can also be modeled within the problem. In addition to that, new algorithmic approaches will be used to solve more complex structured tcd-TSP. The developing ideas, mathematical models and algorithms upon this problem will be applied to real world problems.

References

- Bektas, T. (2006). The multiple traveling salesman problem: an overview of formulations and solution procedures. *Omega*, 34, 209-219.
- Brest, J. & Zerovnik, J. (2005). Proceedings from MIC2005: *The 6th Metaheuristics International Conference*. Vienna, Austria.
- Burkard, R. E., Deineko, V. G., van Dal, R., van der Veen, J. A. A. & Woeginger, G. J. (2016). Well-solvable special cases of the traveling salesman problem: a survey. *SIAM Review*, 40(3), 496-546.
- Carter, A. E. & Ragsdale, C. T. (2006). A new approach to solving the multiple traveling salesperson problem using genetic algorithms. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 175, 246-257.
- Cazassa, M., Ceselli, A. & Nunkesser, M. (2012). Efficient algorithms for the double traveling salesman problem with multiple stacks. *Computers & Operations Research*, 39, 1044-1053.
- Chan, Y. & Baker, S.F. (2005). The multiple depot, multiple traveling salesmen facility-location problem: vehicle range, service frequency, and heuristic implementations. *Mathematical and Computer Modeling*, 41, 1035-1053.
- Cheang, B., Gao, X., Lim, A., Qin, H. & Zhu, W. (2012). Multiple pickup and delivery traveling salesman problem with last-in-first-out loading and distance constraints. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 223, 60-75.
- Farahani, R. Z. & Hekmatfar, M. (Eds.). 2009. *Facility location: concepts, models, algorithms and case studies, contributions to management science*, Heidelberg, BW: Physica-Verlag.
- Iori, M. & Riera-Ledesma, J. (2015). Exact algorithms for the double vehicle routing problem with multiple stacks. *Computers & Operations Research*, 63, 83-101.
- Kara, I. & Bektas, T. (2006). Integer linear programming formulations of multiple salesman problems and its variations. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 174, 1449-1458.
- Kirkpatrick, S., Gelatt, C., & Vecchi, M. (1983). Optimization by simulated annealing. *Science*, 220, (4598), 671-680.
- Kota, L. & Jarmai, K. (2015). Mathematical modeling of multiple tour multiple traveling salesman problem using evolutionary programming. *Applied Mathematical Modeling*, 39, 3410-3433.
- Mladenovic, N., Urošević, D., Hanafi, S. & Ilic, A. (2012). A general variable neighborhood search for the one commodity pickup-and-delivery travelling salesman problem. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 220, 270-285.
- Modares, A., Somhom, S., & Enkawa, T. (1999). A self-organizing neural network approach for multiple traveling salesman and vehicle routing problems. *International Transactions in Operational Research*, 6, 591-606.
- Nagata, Y. & Soler, D. (2012). A new genetic algorithm for the asymmetric traveling salesman problem. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 39, 8947-8953.
- Oncan, T., Altinel, I. K. & Laporte, G. (2009). A comparative analysis of several asymmetric traveling salesman problem formulations. *Computers & Operations Research*, 36, 637 - 654.
- Osaba, E., Yang, X.-S., Diaz, F., Lopez-Garcia P. & Carbelledo, R. (2016). An improved discrete bat algorithm for symmetric and asymmetric traveling salesman problems. *Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence*, 48, 59-71.
- Petersen, H. L., Archetti, C. & Sprezza, M. G. (2010). Exact solutions to the double travelling salesman problem with multiple stacks. *Networks*, 56(4), 229-243.
- Petersen, H. L. & Madsen, O. B. G. (2009). The double travelling salesman problem with multiple stacks – Formulation and heuristic solution approaches. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 198, 139-147.

Plebe, A., & Anile, A. M. (2002). A neural network based approach to the double traveling salesman problem. *Neural Computation*, 14(2), 437-71.

Soylu, B. (2015). A general variable neighborhood search heuristic for multiple traveling salesmen problem. *Computers & Industrial Engineering*, 90, 390–401.

Yuan, S., Skinner, B., Huang, S. & Liu, D. (2013). A new crossover approach for solving the multiple travelling salesmen problem using genetic algorithms. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 228, 72–82.

How Do Young People Respond to Conflict? A Comparative Study of Argentinean and Portuguese College Students¹

Ana Maria Costa e Silva

Professor of Institute of Education & Researcher of CECS-UMinho – Portugal

Prof. Florencia Brandoni

Professor of UNTREF – Argentina

Prof. Eduardo Duque

Professor of Catholic University & Researcher of CECS-UMinho – Portugal

Abstract

Questions relating to sociability, relationships concerning conflicts and behaviours of indiscipline and violence among young people have turned out to be of particular importance. Various studies exist about the sociability of young people (e.g. Machado Pais, 1990; Margulis & Urresti, 1998; Cangilini, 2004). Nevertheless, studies focused on sociability and behavior in the face of socially learned conflicts in the context of inter-personal relationships are still very scarce. The investigation carried out falls within the area of Co-operative Conflict Resolution (CCR) - a field of knowledge and practices that emerged in the 1980s (Ury & Fisher, 1991; Aréchaga, Brandoni & Finkelstein, 2004). The work that we present shows the results of a study undertaken with young people attending the first year of university education in public and private universities in Argentina and Portugal. This investigation, which was of an exploratory nature, had two general objectives: i) to analyse the ways of approaching conflicts by young people (aged 18 to 31 years); and ii) to understand the present day social dynamics that characterise these young people. The descriptive analysis of the data, which was obtained from the responses to a questionnaire with open and closed questions completed by around 700 young university students, revealed some differences concerning the behaviour adopted towards conflicts by these young Argentineans and young Portuguese.

Keywords: Sociability; Relationships; Conflicts; Young people; Co-operative Conflicts Resolution

1. Introduction

Studies on sociability and the building of personal identities of adolescents and young people (Efron, 1996; Dubar, 1998; Frigerio, 2004; Berger & Luckman, 2008 among others) highlight the importance of establishing links with peers, of representations constructed of themselves and the way that others view them. For teenagers and young people the establishment of relationships and building links with their peers is particularly significant in the process of building their own personal identities (Efron, 1996; Dubar, 1998).

The subjects' building of their own personal identities also proceeds by means of identifications (Dubar, 1998). This is both a mental and social process, by which each person's identity is formed and transformed by assimilating or appropriating aspects and attributes of those around them (Frigerio, 2004; Berger & Luckman, 2008). We can say that the personal identity of the subject is constructed and reconstructed on the basis of the relationship and interaction with others, in interdependence with culture (Cangilini, 2004).

In the case of adolescents and young people, the exchanges that they establish within reference groups are particularly important, given that they can contribute to strengthening or weakening their process of identity-building and subjectivity.

¹Translation from Portuguese into English of this article was funded by COMPETE: POCI-01-0145-FEDER-007560 and FCT - Foundation for Science and Technology, under the project: UID / CCI / 00736/2013.

This process of construction of subjectivity, associated with cultural stimuli, fosters their ways of being in the world. Sociability circuits include institutions, which also foster socialisation, assuming understanding and internalisation of the world as a meaningful and social reality (Berger & Luckman, 2008), implying the incorporation of rules, norms, values and skills that make up the identity and definition of otherness, generating senses of belonging and modes of incorporation in social spaces (Dubar, 1998).

Studies on young people address their behaviour patterns with different social actors - peers, adults, significant adults, hierarchical superiors, social representatives - and their conduct in relation to conflict management. Machado Pais (1998) states in relation to young people the loss of meaning and historical continuity, which leads them to minimise a vision of the future, life projects and long-term relationships. As a result young people live primarily in the present, focusing their attention on themselves. Kessler (2004) points out that in the case of young people in conflict with the law, there is a clear need to "take advantage", i.e. to compete and achieve the desired goal at any price.

The question of gender is another important aspect to take into consideration in relation to sociability and the behaviour of young people in situations of conflict. According to Coria (2008), gender defines a different position in relation to attributes, sociability circuits, relationship modes, conflict management and negotiating attitudes.

Social representations often arise, associating young people to dangers, victimisation, individualism and lack of productivity. These representations stigmatise and conceal the rich diversity of specific young people and their particular socio-historical context, which contributes to fostering a demonisation of young people in the social imaginary universe, simplifying the reasons for violence, sometimes in an extreme form (Reguillo, 2007). However, young people are produced and moulded by the hegemonic spaces allocated to them and they also construct their own personal identities, by disputing, reproducing or negotiating the established social order (Vila, Infantino & Castro, 2011).

The research carried out and the respective interest of such research is underpinned by the importance of identifying ways of internalising and addressing conflicts in order to conceive prevention and capacity-building strategies for young people, in order to approach them in a positive and cooperative manner. In this sense, the current study falls within the framework of Cooperative Conflict Resolution (CCR) - a recent field of study and intervention, which first appeared in the 1980s.

In this context, methods and devices of collaborative negotiation, facilitation and mediation of situations of conflict have been developed (Ury & Fischer, 1991; Folger & Taylor, 1992; Aréchaga, Brandoni & Finkelstein, 2004; Brandoni, 2015). The increased attention to this field of enquiry and practices derives from growing discontent with traditional forms of justice administration and conflict resolution because of the respective delays, costs and consequences, which thereby often accentuate reactive and violent behaviour. At the same time, cooperative conflict resolution, such as mediation, is presented as a means and a process that values communication, cooperative dialogue and recognition of the other, thus contributing to forms of conviviality and sociability of rehabilitation and consolidation of social ties (Zabatel, 1999).

We know how conflictual and violent behaviour are currently experienced and denounced in different contexts: interpersonal, organisational, social and community. The media are powerful communicators of the consequences of such behaviour patterns, which are currently reflected in violent extremism, with serious consequences at the national and international level. Systematic and massive dissemination often has a negative final impact on social representations and behaviour patterns, thus accentuating radicalism and violent extremism.

One of the goals of Sustainable Development in the world by 2030 is to "promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels" as a result of which the fields of research and education face strong challenges, in order to foster solidarity, justice and peace.

The current study has been drawn up to prepare an initial approach with university students, to inquire about how they perceive conflict situations and address conflict between peers and adults, in order to identify and propose appropriate intervention strategies for the education and training of young people in a positive and cooperative approach to conflict. The search for consensus, reconciliation and the integration of the interests of different social actors are considered to require specific knowledge and skills. Such knowledge and skills are scarce in the educational plans of children and young people, and only rarely occur in social exchanges and in the social imaginary universe. The media often cultivates a representation that associates adolescents and young people with violence, danger and an absence of limits.

In this article we will refer to some of the results of a study conducted in 2015 with young Portuguese and Argentinean university students.

2. Methodology

2.1 Objectives, methods and techniques

Based on a brief theoretical context that was previously conducted, the current study focuses on a mixed methodology - quantitative and qualitative – in order to collect information from a large group of subjects and advance some information from respondents who were willing to participate in group and / or individual interviews.

In order to study forms of sociability and conflict approaches of young people, various objectives were defined, including the following: i) analyse the ways of approaching conflicts by young people (aged 17 to 31 years); ii) understand the present day social dynamics that characterise these young people; iii) compare the results of this study with other studies on the social representations and practices of young people; iv) provide information on the necessary conditions to design capacity-building programmes, aimed at fostering a positive and cooperative approach towards conflict and mediation.

2.2 Data collection instrument and procedures

Information has been collected so far by means of a survey questionnaire entitled "Questionnaire on conflict management" prepared by Argentinean students and researchers under the supervision of the researcher, Florencia Brandoni (2014), translated and adapted into Portuguese by the researcher Ana Maria Silva (2014).

The questionnaire consists of a total of twenty questions: two open questions, eighteen closed questions (four with a response option, if answered affirmatively) and five conflict situations, in relation to which they are asked what the respondent would do if they found themselves in the respective situation.

The questions included in the questionnaire focused on the following dimensions: situations that are considered to be confrontational and violent; causes of conflicts with adults and peers; the connotation attributed to conflicts; behaviour patterns in situations of conflict with adults and peers; perception about the social imaginary universe related to conflict; perception of socially-installed procedures for conflict resolution.

Data was collected in Portugal (Braga) and Argentina (Buenos Aires) in early 2015. In both countries the questionnaire was applied in a public university and a private university. For this purpose, consideration was made of the researchers' access to the potential respondents.

The questionnaire was applied collectively in the classroom, and took about 30 minutes to fill out. Students were invited to participate in an international study on conflict management and sociability. The cover page of the questionnaire explained the study's objectives. The students were thanked for their participation and the confidentiality of the responses was also guaranteed. Replies to the questionnaires were anonymous and voluntary. Respondents were solely asked to identify their sex and age. Nevertheless, respondents who were interested in participating in group or individual interviews could identify themselves.

2.3 Set of respondents

The respondents to the questionnaire were university students from different courses, attending the first year of higher education.

In Argentina they were students from the University Nacional Tres de Febrero (UNTREF) and the University of San Andrés, both located in Buenos Aires, involving a total of 256 university students (133 women and 123 men), aged between 17 and 31 years from fifteen different courses.

In Portugal they were students from the University of Minho (UMinho) and the Catholic University, both located in the city of Braga, involving a total of 453 university students (338 women and 115 men), aged between 17 and 31 years old, from seventeen courses. The mean age of respondents in the two countries was 20 years old.

Table 1. Breakdown of the set of respondents

Country	Total number of respondents	Women	Men	Average age
Argentina	256	133	123	21
Portugal	453	338	115	19
Total	709	471	238	20

Table 1 reveals that the set of respondents from both countries involved 709 respondents, of which 471 were women and 238 men. The highest proportion of women in the sample, namely Portugal, reflects the current reality of the Portuguese higher education system.

3. Presentation and discussion of results

The goals underlying the questions formulated in the questionnaire were on the one hand to understand how young people perceive conflict situations in the social environment in which they live; on the other hand, the way that they react and act when confronted with conflict situations in their personal lives.

Given the total amount of information that has been collected this article presents the results for the dimension *Behaviour patterns of young people in conflict situations with peers and adults*. The information was collected via three questions: two closed questions and one with five situations regarding which the respondent was asked what he or she would do in that situation.

3.1 Behaviour when faced by conflict with other young people

For the question: *What behaviour do you use most often in conflict with other young people?* the respondents were presented with 16 options, from which they could choose up to five responses or add others. Table 2 presents the response options.

Table 2. Response options for the most frequently used behaviour by young people and adults

Options

1	Compete with the other
2	Give up your claim in favour of the other
3	Seek an agreement, based on the differences
4	Seek to impose your position
5	Support the other's decision
6	Use physical force
7	Forget the conflict
8	Seek help or someone to resolve the conflict for you
9	Seek allies to increase power and impose your position
10	Become infuriated and imagine how to get revenge
11	Threaten
12	Hinder or obstruct the other's actions
13	Reconsider your position
14	Avoid conflict
15	Talk and listen to the other
16	Dialogue to convince the other

Although two of the variables assumed in the study were sex and age, there were no significant differences between the young respondents in Argentina or in Portugal for these variables. Most of the young Portuguese people stated that the behaviour patterns they most often choose when they face a conflict situation with another young person are to *dialogue and listen to the other* (56,5%), *avoid the conflict* (53,9%) and *seek an agreement, splitting the differences* (53,6%); at a less expressive level, but other response options that were also valued by the surveyed young people were as behaviours *forget the conflict* (40,6%) and *reconsider the position* (30,5%). Options such as *undermine or create obstacles for the other's actions* (2,6%) and *threaten* (4,2%) were behaviours that had fewer supporters among the young people. Most of the young Argentineans preferred to *impose your position* (72,2%), followed by *dialogue and listen to the other* (66,8%).

The option *avoid the conflict* had the lowest number of supporters (5,9%). In table 3, we can see the total percentages of responses to each option in both countries.

Table 3. Percentage breakdown of responses to the question: *What is your most frequently used behaviour in situations of conflict with young people*

	Options	%	
		Argentina	Portugal
1	Compete with the other	27,3	10,4
2	Give up your claim in favour of the other	36,7	9,5
3	Seek an agreement, based on the differences	36,7	53,6
4	Seek to impose your position	72,2	19,6
5	Support the other's decision	40,6	21,2
6	Use physical force	24,6	7,5
7	Forget the conflict	45,3	40,6
8	Seek help or someone to resolve the conflict for you	26,2	4,4
9	Seek allies to increase power and impose your position	32,8	7,5
10	Become infuriated and imagine how to get revenge	21,1	8,8
11	Threaten	21,9	4,2
12	Hinder or obstruct the other's actions	21,5	2,6
13	Reconsider your position	44,9	30,5
14	Avoid conflict	5,9	53,9
15	Talk and listen to the other	66,8	56,5
16	Dialogue to convince the other	56,3	29,1

Comparing the response rates to the various options emphasises the differences related to options 4 and 14, which show the differences in behaviour in situations of conflict of the young Argentinean and Portuguese respondents and we will later analyse this question, comparing the behaviour in situations of conflict with young people and adults.

3. 2 Behaviour in situations of conflict with adults

The same question was formulated regarding the behaviour of respondents in situations of conflict with adults. They were given the same response options, except for option 14, in which the option 'avoid the conflict' was replaced by 'obey'. Table 4 shows the response rates for each of the options by the young people in each country.

Comparison of the results for young people in both countries reveals several differences, some of which are more accentuated in the responses to the various options, as can be seen in table 4. These differences make it possible to give consistency to the differences noted by the young Argentinean and Portuguese respondents relating to behaviour with young people.

Table 4. Percentage breakdown of responses to the question: *What is your most frequently used behaviour in situations of conflict with adults*

	Options	%	
		Argentina	Portugal
1	Compete with the other	16,8	4,9
2	Give up your claim in favour of the other	31,3	18,1
3	Seek an agreement, based on the differences	32	48,8
4	Seek to impose your position	60,9	25,4
5	Support the other's decision	50,8	31,3
6	Use physical force	14,8	2,4
7	Forget the conflict	44,1	44,6
8	Seek help or someone to resolve the conflict for you	20,7	3,8
9	Seek allies to increase power and impose your position	26,2	9,3
10	Become infuriated and imagine how to get revenge	15,6	5,5
11	Threaten	14,8	2,0
12	Hinder or obstruct the other's actions	13,7	2,2
13	Obey	41	35,1
14	Talk and listen to the other	60,5	68
15	Dialogue to convince the other	67,2	49,7

The attitude that the surveyed young people assume before a situation of conflict with other young people is identical to that chosen by them when it comes to a situation of conflict with adults, since 68% of young Portuguese and 60.5% of young Argentinians stated that they prefer to *talk and listen* in a situation of conflict with someone older, whereas 49.7% and 67.2% respectively opted to *dialogue to convince*; 48,8% of young Portuguese chose to *seek an agreement*, based on the differences and 44,6% prefer to *forget the conflict*, while 60,9% of young Argentinians seek to *impose their position* in relation to adults. Options such as *undermine or create obstacles for the other's actions*, *threaten* or *use physical force* were also the behaviour patterns least chosen by the young people of both countries in their conflict with adults. This attitude towards adults shows that there is a prejudice in relation to conflicts between different generations.

The options offered were grouped into five categories corresponding to different styles of behaviour in situations of conflict: i) compete ii) give in, iii) evade iv) dialogue, v) become hostile.

Table 5 shows the results obtained for the five behaviour patterns considered. The results show that a significant percentage (42%) of young Argentinians assumes dialogue as a behaviour that is more frequently used both with young people and with adults, while the young Portuguese reveal that the behaviour most used in conflicts with other young people is evasion (47.3%) whereas the behaviour most used in conflict with adults is dialogue. It should also be pointed out that young Portuguese have the highest percentages in these two behaviour patterns both in relation to young people and adults, whereas the other behaviour patterns have much lower percentages, wherein becoming hostile and use of force are the least representative in the responses (5, 8% and 3% respectively).

Table 5. Behaviour of young Argentineans and Portuguese in situations of conflict with other young people and with adults

Behaviours	Options	Behaviour with young people		Behaviour with adults	
		Argentina	Portugal	Argentina	Portugal
Compete	1, 4, 9	15%	12,5%	14,6%	13,2
Give in	2, 5	12%	15,4%	24%	24,7
Evade	7, 14	16%	47,3%	8,6%	39,6
Dialogue	3, 8, 13, 15, 16	42%	34,8%	40,8%	42,6
Become hostile	6, 10, 11, 12	14%	5,8%	11,5%	3%

The young Argentineans present options that are distributed evenly across the various behaviour patterns, whereas dialogue clearly prevails, both in terms of behaviour with young people (42%), and with adults (40.8%).

3.3 Behaviour of young people in situations of conflict

To further identify the behaviour patterns of young people in situations of conflict, five situations were presented in order to enable young people to state how they would deal with such situations. In a specific manner, the young people were led to reflect about concrete situations of conflict that are likely to happen in their lives, wherein a response was presented to each of them concerning the behaviour that they would adopt. The situations ranged from experiences of conflict with other young university colleagues or closer friends, such as teachers, employers and other adults. Table 5 describes the various situations.

Table 5. Situations for young people to identify how they will respond to them

Description of the situations	
Situation A	In the Curricular Unit (UC) of Contemporary Culture, you have been asked to work in pairs. You ask João to work with you, since you believe that he is a friendly and responsible young man. He gets on well with you and accepts your offer. Given your working hours and the days of the class, you can only meet up at the weekend. On Saturday, you play a sports championship with your friends, but on Sunday you are to meet with João. However João spends every Sunday with his family and girlfriend, so it can't be on that day. What do you do?
Situation B	On the day you arrive to do a final test, on the last call for the test, you realise that your name isn't included on the list of enrolled students. You complain to the administrative officer in charge of the Academic Services, with whom you have good relationship, and he says that the professor is responsible for the situation. You enter the room, you see the professor starting the test, and he says that he can't authorise you to take the test, if you're not on the list, and that he distributed the notes in due time. What do you do?
Situation C	The day before yesterday, you met with Mariana, a friend of yours, who commented that she saw your boyfriend/girlfriend in the mall at the weekend. After beating around the bush, she says that her cousin told her that s/he met your boyfriend/girlfriend and spent the night with him/her. What do you do?
Situation D	After a long period of searching and waiting, you secure a job in a shop. The work agreement is only to serve customers. You don't like the shop's owner very much, but an employee who has been working there for a year seems nice. After a week, the owner asks you clean the shop's basement and you don't like this request, because it wasn't in your initial agreement. He tells you that the other employee doesn't want to keep on doing this task. What do you do?
Situation E	You arrive at your house and you see that the neighbour of the apartment at the end of the building has once again left the car parked on the pavement. You're already sick and tired of telling him that the pavement can't support the weight and will break the bricks, as has happened in the past. Having to change the bricks leads to inconvenience, complications and expenses. Moreover, the car obstructs the entrance and exit to your house. You ring the bell and ask the neighbour to move his car and, without letting you speak, he starts screaming threateningly. What do you do?

After a general reading of the various situations, we realise that the surveyed young people sought, in all cases, to provide adequate responses that could solve the problems that they faced. The responses more frequently chosen by the young Portuguese people for each of the situations, after analysis of the data, were in line with the type of responses presented

in the previous questions, related to the behaviour that they would choose before situations of conflict either with other young people, or with adults.

The following table presents the responses with the highest percentages for young Argentinean and Portuguese people in each situation.

Table 6. Behaviour of young Argentinean and Portuguese people in the different situations

Situations	Responses	Young Argentinesans %	Young Portuguese %
A	Negotiate	76	68
B	Dialogue	11	27,8
	Claim	35	21,6
	Compete	48	12,2
C	Dialogue	18	54,3
	Evade	40	13,9
D	Give in	43	42,2
	Compete	26	21
E	Claim	49	46,6
	Pacify	6	10,2

Comparing the results of analysis of the responses given by the young Argentinesans and Portuguese we observe the previously identified trend. However, the evasive behaviour manifested by the young Portuguese in the reactions to the conflict with young people and adults was less significant here, given that in situation C this response was only given by 13.9% of the respondents, but is more evident in young Argentinesans with 40% of responses in the same situation.

3. 4 Discussion of the results

The results above make it possible to identify similar behaviour in relation to the situations of conflict of young Argentinesans and Portuguese people, wherein dialogue (with percentages between 34% and 43%) is the behaviour that is most frequently chosen by young people and which is considered to be the most effective in terms of resolution of situations of conflict.

Table 7. Preferential behaviour of young people in conflict with other young people and with adults

Preference/Level of effectiveness	Behaviour with young people		Behaviour with adults	
	Argentina	Portugal	Argentina	Portugal
1º	Dialogue	Evade	Dialogue	Dialogue
2º	Evade	Dialogue	Give in	Evade
3º	Compete	Give in	Compete	Give in
4º	Become hostile	Compete	Become hostile	Compete
5º	Give in	Become hostile	Evade	Become hostile

In the previous table it can be seen that the two most frequently used behaviour patterns are dialogue and evasion. The latter is more pronounced amongst the young Portuguese respondents, wherein for these young people the next most frequently used behaviour patterns are to give in, compete, become hostile, and use force, however with much smaller percentages than dialogue or evasion. Young Argentinesans reveal that dialogue is the preferred behaviour pattern, followed by evasion, with a much lower level of response. To compete, become hostile and give in are the least commonly used behaviour patterns used by young Argentinesans, but still with percentages that are similar to, or higher than, those of the young Portuguese respondents.

Notwithstanding the fact that dialogue and evasion represent a significant percentage, and therefore, represent a preferred behaviour pattern, the majority (between 57% and 66%) of the surveyed young people were divided into two different behaviour patterns: more assertive or more evasive.

In relation to the presented situations, a diversity of behaviour patterns was also recorded. Ranging between negotiate, seek alternatives and discuss, mainly, but also to give in, compete and claim. We note the frequent and natural use of

distributive negotiation and also cost-benefit analysis (e.g. in the case of whether to give in, so as to keep the job). In the case of young Argentineans, conflicts that result in violence are conflicts between neighbours and loved ones. The percentage of the use of physical or verbal violence, even if lower, range between 20% and 4% when faced by the aggressive action of the interlocutor and in conflicts with loved ones. The results of the responses given to the situations require greater depth in the individual or group interviews that make it possible to assess with greater accuracy the responses given by the young people as well as the interpretation of the content of the responses.

4. Final considerations

The results obtained in the three questions relating to the behaviour patterns of young people in several situations of conflict before the various actors, it can be noticed that a significant percentage of young people prefer and/or recognise that dialogue and negotiation assume important levels of effectiveness in addressing and resolving conflicts, contrary to some studies that tend to associate behaviour patterns of increased aggression or violence with young people (Kessler, 2004). This study also does not demonstrate the significant differences in the responses between male and female respondents that have been shown in other studies (Coria, 2008). We can see some differentiation in the behaviour patterns among young people in the two countries: a tendency towards greater assertiveness and aggressiveness in the behaviour of young Argentineans and greater passivity and acceptance in the young Portuguese respondents. When we confront these results with the bi-directional model of Kilman and Thomas (1977), we realise that a significant percentage of young Argentineans and Portuguese (about 40%) adopt behaviour patterns that valorise negotiation, the search for compromises and dialogue, expressing a concern with oneself and with others. These are important results in order to socially validate a positive image of young people. As regards the remaining 60% of respondents there is a distribution between the different behaviour patterns, wherein competition is more accentuated amongst young Argentineans and escape or evasion amongst young Portuguese respondents. These results deserve attention and interest in order to be analysed in greater depth, especially in subsequent interviews and other specific tests.

5. References

- Aréchaga, P, Brandoni, F. & Finkelstein, A. (2004). *Acerca de la clínica de mediación*. Buenos Aires: Librería Histórica.
- Berger, P. & Luckmann, T. (2008). *La construcción social de la realidad*. Buenos Aires: Amorrortu.
- Brandoni, F. (2015). *Mediation and Mediators: a new social practice*. In A. M. Silva & M. Aparicio, (Eds), *International Handbook about Professional Identities* (pp.294-317). USA: Scientific & Academic Publishing.
- Canglini, N. (2004). *Introducción. Teorías de la interculturalidad y fracasos políticos*. In *Diferentes, desiguales y desconectados, mapas de la interculturalidade*. Bracelona: Gedisa.
- Coria, C. (2008). *Las negociaciones nuestras de cada día*. Buenos Aires: Paidós.
- Dubar, C. (1998). *La socialisation. Construction des identités sociales et professionnelles*. Paris: Armand Collin.
- Efrón, R. (1996). *Subjetividad y adolescência*. In I. Konterlnik & C. Jacinto, *Adolescencia, pobreza, educación y trabajo*. Buenos Aires: Losada Unicef.
- Folberg, J & Taylor, A. (1992). *Mediación. Resolución de conflictos sin litigios*. México: Limusa Noriega editores.
- Frigerio, G. (2004). *Identidad es el otro nombre de la alteridad. La habilitación de la oportunidad*. In G. Frigerio & G. Diker (coords.), *Una ética en el trabajo con niños y jóvenes*, Buenos Aires: Novedades Educativas/CEM.
- Kessler, G. (2004) *Sociología del delito amateur*. Buenos Aires: Paidós,.
- Machado Pais, J. (1990). *A construção sociológica da juventude*. *Análise Social*, V. 25, 139-165.
- Machado País, J. (1998). *Chollos, chapuzas, changas jóvenes, trabajo precario y futuro*. Bogotá: Ed Anthropos.
- Margulis, M. & Urresti, M. (1998) *La construcción social de la condición de juventud*. In Margulis, M, (comp.), *Viviendo a todo. Jóvenes, territorios, culturales y nuevas sensibilidades*. Bogotá: Siglo del Hombre Editores.

ONU (2015). Conheça os novos 17 Objetivos de Desenvolvimento Sustentável da ONU. Publicado em setembro de 2015, acessado em <https://nacoesunidas.org/conheca-os-novos-17-objetivos-de-desenvolvimento-sustentavel-da-onu/> a 19 julho de 2016.

Kilmann, R. & Thomas, K. (1977). Developing a Forced-Choice Measure of Conflict-Handling Behavior: The "Mode" Instrument, *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 37, No. 2, 309-325.

Reguillo, R. (2007). La mara: contingencia y afiliación con el exceso repensando los límites. In *Las maras. Identidades juveniles al límite*. México: Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana.

Ury, W. & Fisher, R. (1991). *Sí, de acuerdo*. Bogotá: Editorial Norma.

Villa, A., Infantino, J. & Castro, G. (comps) (2011). *Culturas juveniles. Disputas entre representaciones hegemónicas y prácticas*. Buenos Aires: NOVEDUC, ReiJA.

Zabatel, E. C. (1999). Mediación: cambio social o más de lo mismo? In F. Brandoni (comp.) *Mediación escolar. Propuestas, reflexiones y experiencias* (pp.141-152). Buenos Aires: Paidós.

Exports, Exchange Rates and Productivity: An Analysis of the Japanese Manufacturing Sectors*

Atsuyuki Kato

Kanazawa University and RIETI†

Abstract

This paper examines the effects of exchange rate changes and productivity on manufacturing exports. Using the dataset of the Japanese manufacturing firms during the period, 2002 – 2012, we discuss if exchange rate fluctuations deter export activities and if productivity and markup differences affect it. For this study, we estimate both firm specific productivity and markups by the production function based approaches and incorporate them into the Heckman sample selection model. Our results show exchange rates are important factors to affect firm-level exports as a whole while temporal aggregation should be carefully considered. In addition, this study also reveals that productivity and markup give different impacts on firm-level exports across industries. In the transportation equipment industry, negative effects of appreciation on exports are partly mitigated by higher productivity. Markups are positively related to exports in the electronics industry while negative in the transportation equipment. Neither productivity nor markup absorbs the impact of exchange rate changes in the machinery industry. Those findings imply that stability of exchange rates is very important while the effective trade policy may vary across industries following their trade structure.

JEL Codes: F1, F31

1. Introduction

Large fluctuation of exchange rates of the Japanese yen after the Lehman shock reignited debates on the effect of exchange rate changes on exports. Some have insisted that the sharp drop of the Japanese exports accompanied by the appreciation of the currency clearly illustrates the effect of exchange rate changes on exports. Some, on the other hand, say that the Japanese exporting firms have already established the resilient production networks against exchange rate turbulence across the Asian region. Their conflicting views led the completely opposite approaches to the exchange rate policy. The former people believed that the appreciation of yen after the Lehman shock exceeded the acceptable level and the government should have controlled such rapid appreciation, to support exporters while the latter thought that the effective exchange rates were still relatively stable compared to the disastrous appreciation in the mid-1990s and lots of exporters could absorb the impacts through their sophisticated production and supply networks. Many papers have measured the effect of exchange rate changes on exports and contributed to this issue so far. This paper is also a part of those studies. We provide additional empirical evidence for such debates.

The aggregate level data have largely been used in the papers on this issue so far. To discuss the details of export activities, many papers have examined the relations between export and exchange rate changes at the product level. For example, Thorbecke and Kato (2012) estimated the elasticity of Japanese consumption exports on exchange rate fluctuations, and illustrated that both bilateral and competitors' exchange rates are statistically significant. Kato (2015a) also applied the similar approach to technology-intensive exports by East Asian economies, and detected that both high and medium skill and technology intensive exports are responsive to exchange rate changes in Japan¹. Rahman (2009) also estimated the impact of exchange rate fluctuation on exports for East Asian countries by a different approach and found that intra-regional flexibility had larger impacts on Japan's exports than bilateral ones. In addition, many papers examined those impacts within discussion of exchange rate pass-through such as Shioji (2012).

Compared to the literature using the aggregate data, studies using the firm-level data on this issue have been less accumulated. This is partly because trade data is less available at the firm level. In particular, export volumes by different

* This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 25380338, and a part of research result undertaken at RIETI.

¹ Exchange rates were not statistically significant in the model that allowed heterogeneous time trends.

export markets at the firm level are poorly obtainable even though many exporting firms have several export destinations¹. It makes us difficult to construct data of firm-specific exchange rates as well. To control this problem, Guillou (2008) assumed that all firms export their products to the imaginary unique market and constructed industry-specific exchange rates (the weighted exchange rates by export shares). For French firms, she concluded that exchange rates have statistically significant influence on export entry but don't do on export intensity.

Morikawa (2015) examined the relations between uncertainty over exchange rates and exports and detected statistically significantly negative impacts using Japanese data. Ando and Kimura (2013) also revealed that Japanese manufacturing firms are responsive to exchange rate changes, and the responsiveness is higher in the multinational enterprises (MNEs) with intra-firm transactions.

In addition to exchange rates, productivity is considered as an important factor for the firm-level export in theoretical studies such as Melitz (2003), Helpman, Melitz, and Yeaple (2004), and Melitz and Ottaviano (2008). Berman, Martin and Mayer (2012) incorporated those implications into the relations between exchange rates and exports using rich French data and found that more productive firms use their markup to absorb the impacts of exchange rate changes instead of their export volume. Li, Ma, Xu and Xiong (2015) examined those relations for Chinese firms and also indicated that firms with higher productivity change the prices to absorb exchange rate fluctuation while firms with lower productivity do their export volume.

This paper would also like to examine the relations between exchange rates and exports at the firm level. Unlike the cases of French and Chinese firms, neither unit value nor quantity of exports is available for the Japanese firms. Export values are, however available by region. Thus, we incorporate regional differences into Guillou's approach in this paper. In addition, we examine if productivity and markup affect export activities, reflecting the findings by Kato (2015b)².

The layout of this paper is as follows. In the next section, we explain the empirical framework of this study. Section 3 details the data. In section 4, we present empirical results. And the last section is a concluding remark.

2. Empirical Framework

In this section, we briefly explain the methodology to estimate the firm-specific productivity and markup, and describe the model of our regression analysis. At first, we estimate the firm specific productivity and markup, and then examine if the firm level export is sensitive to the exchange rate fluctuation and if productivity and markups affect such sensitivity. The productivity and markup are estimated by a production function based approach developed by Martin (2010)³. An advantage of this approach is to allow us to estimate the relative productivity and markup to the reference firm without price information that is usually unavailable at the firm level (details in Martin (2010) and Kato (2010)).

In this approach, we assume that each firm has the following production function,

$$Q_i = A_i [f(X_i)]^\gamma \quad (1),$$

where Q_i , A_i , X_i are quantity of output, Hicks-Neutral technology, and a vector of inputs, respectively. γ is the degree of returns to scale and $\gamma > 0$. The subscript i means firm i , and $i = 1, \dots, n$ ⁴. On the other hand, a demand function that each firm faces is represented as follows,

$$Q_i = D(P_i) \quad (2).$$

From equations (1) and (2), we obtain a revenue function for each firm is as follows,

¹ Trade data at the product or the production process level are poorly available as well.

² Kato (2015b) revealed that the Japanese exporting manufacturers possibly give different roles to different export markets. If so, their reaction to exchange rate changes may vary across their markets as well.

³ This approach is also employed in Kato (2010), Kato and Kodama (2014), and Kato (2015b).

⁴ Our estimation implicitly assumes that the price of each input is identical across firms. Although this assumption is very restrictive and ad hoc, Eslava et al. (2005) reveals that ignoring input prices give little effects on productivity estimation using Colombian data.

$$r_i - \sum_{X \neq K} \bar{s}_{xi} (x_i - k_i) = \tilde{r}_i = \gamma \frac{\bar{1}}{\mu_i} k_i + \frac{\bar{1}}{\mu_i} (\lambda_i + a_i) + \tilde{\varepsilon}_i \quad (3),$$

where lower case variables denote logs of deviation from the reference firm for each variable. r , s , and μ are the total revenue, the revenue share of variable, and the firm-specific markup, respectively. Here, X is a temporary adjustable input such as labour and intermediates. k is capital and assumed to be fixed for the short run as well as many existing papers on productivity analysis. λ and a are respectively consumers' valuation of firm i 's product and technical efficiency. Using them, firm-specific quality adjusted productivity is represented as $\omega_i = (\lambda_i + a_i)$.

In estimation of equation (3), ω is possibly correlated with capital¹. To solve this endogeneity problem, we apply a control function approach following Olley and Pakes (1996), Levinsohn and Petrin (2003), Bond and Söderbom (2005), and Akerberg et al. (2006)², using capital and net revenue to approximate ω . On the other hand, markup is represented as a function of revenue share and adjustable input factors as follows,

$$\frac{1}{\mu_i} = s_{xi} \left(\frac{\partial \ln F_i}{\partial \ln X_i} \right)^{-1} = s_{xi} \Psi(\mathbf{X}_i) \quad (4),$$

where F and \mathbf{X} are the production function and the vector of inputs, respectively. Since the functional form of $\Psi(\cdot)$ is also unknown, it is approximated in the same manner to ω . In this approach, we estimate the relative productivity and markup as ω/γ and μ/γ because we have no information on the degree of γ . However, it is not thought to give a bias in discussion below because γ is assumed constant across firms.

Using these estimates of relative productivity and markup, we examine the relations between exports and exchange rate fluctuations at the firm level as well as firm characteristics including heterogeneous productivity and markup.

The regression model is as follows,

$$EX_{it} = \beta_1 \pi_{it} + \beta_2 \omega_{it} + \beta_3 \mu_{it} + \beta_4 EX_{it-1} + \sum \delta_j X_{jit} \quad (5),$$

where EX , π , and Z are respectively exports, exchange rates, and control variables. In this paper, firm exports, EX is the export share to total sales (export intensity) for each firm, instead of export values following Guillou (2008). This is because a sensitivity of export intensity to exchange rate changes illustrates a price effect in any case as she discussed. In addition, the lag of EX is also included to control export sunk costs for each firm. The control variables X include firm size (=log of number of workers), import shares to total sales, labour and capital intensities.

A problem in this regression is that the dependent variable includes many zeros and OLS is not reliable. To solve this problem, some approaches have been considered in the existing literature such as Tobit, Zero-Inflated Poisson, and Heckman two step approaches³. Among them, we use the Heckman two step approaches because of the following reasons. First, Tobit and Zero-Inflated Poisson implicitly assume that the selection and the regression models have the identical set of explanatory variables, but the factors to determine export entry and export intensity may be different⁴. Second, the results are comparable from those in Guillou (2008) because she also applied the Heckman two step method to French firms.

In the Heckman two step approach, the selection function is represented as follows,

¹ Ichimura, Konishi and Nishiyama (2011) discusses the case that labour is also correlated to productivity.

² Wooldridge (2009) proposes another approach using GMM.

³ Heckman (1979).

⁴ Another problem in those two methods is that the dynamic model with endogeneity is not well examined. Wooldridge (2005) developed a dynamic tobit approach but largely unbalanced panel like our data is not well discussed.

$$I_{it} = \zeta_1 \omega_{it} + \zeta_2 \mu_{it} + \sum \eta_j Z_{jit} \quad (6)$$

where I is unity if firm i exports its products, otherwise zero. Z is a set of control variables. The dummy variable of foreign direct investment (FDI) is included in Z because FDI is thought to play the important role for Japanese firms to export their products through supply chains. FDI dummy takes unity if a certain firm has oversea establishments, otherwise zero. Foreign ownership is also considered as an important control variable. As well as equation (5), productivity and markup are included in the set of control variables following the implication from theoretical models.

3. Data

Our data for estimation of the firm productivity and exports are obtained from the Basic Survey of Japanese Business Structure and Activities (BSBSA)¹. Following the existing empirical literature using this data source, total sales and the tangible fixed assets are used as proxies of total revenues of firms (R) and capital (K), respectively. Labour inputs are calculated as man-hour data following Morikawa (2010)². Total wages are considered as labour costs. From the definition of the value added in the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI), the proxy of intermediate inputs is constructed as follows,

$$\text{Intermediate Input} = \text{COGS} + \text{SGA} - (\text{TW} + \text{Dep} + \text{T\&D}) \quad (7),$$

where COGS , SGA , TW , Dep and T\&D are the cost of goods sold, the selling and general administrative expenses, the total wages, the depreciation and the tax and dues, respectively³. In our data, the observations whose number of regular workers, tangible fixed assets, total wages, or intermediate inputs is zero or negative are excluded. Export intensity is measured as the share of exports to total sales.

A problem in studies on the relations between exports and exchange rate changes at the firm level is how to measure the exchange rate changes for each firm. Firms usually export their products to various markets although the statistical data doesn't always include details of exports. As we mentioned above, Guillou (2008) assumed that all firms export their products to the imaginary single market. In her work, she measured the weighted exchange rates between France and French trade partners at the industry level as the exchange rates for each firm, to control industrial differences. We, however, don't apply this approach to the current paper. Japanese firms may give different roles to different markets as the existing literature discussed. Kato (2015a) implied that Asian markets are the parts of their production networks while North America (in particular, the US) is the market for their finished goods. Such differences possibly affect the relations between exchange rates and exports. We, therefore, measure the regionally weighted exchange rates for each firm to control them⁴. Figures 1 and 2 show that Japan's exchange rates and exports by region at the aggregate level. They illustrate that Japan's exchange rates and exports have been largely swung during the examined period and export weights vary across regions. It also justifies that we use the regionally weighted exchange rates in this analysis.

Exchange rates are obtained from the Bank of Japan (BOJ) statistics. We obtained monthly average rates and demeaned them from April to next March as Japanese fiscal year average rates because financial data in the BSBSA are compiled at the Japanese fiscal year. The exchange rate volatility is calculated as a one-year standard deviation of the first difference of the logarithm of the monthly exchange rate between Japan and her trade partner following the existing literature⁵.

We focus on export of products by the manufacturing firms because it is almost impossible to obtain data of service trade at the firm level. In this paper, we classify the manufacturing sector into 11 industries (see Appendix). Table 1 illustrates the share of each region in exports and the share of exports to total sales. It indicates that Asia accounts for the lion's share of Japanese exports in all manufacturing industries. The weights of Asia are, however, distributed from 75% (Plastics) to 52% (Transport). Roughly speaking, Asia's shares are much higher in industries of intermediate products such as Plastics, Glasses and Metals while it is relatively lower in industries of finished goods such as Transports. Export shares to total

¹ This statistics is annually compiled by the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) Japan and covers the firms whose employees are more than 50 or capital is over 30 million Japanese yen.

² The average working hours at the industry level are from Monthly Labor Survey; <http://www.mhlw.go.jp/english/database/db-l/monthly-labour.html>

³ Tokui, Inui and Kim (2007) and Kim, Kwon and Fukao (2008).

⁴ BSBSA reports export values at the regional level for each firm. Within each region, we calculate the exchange rates weighted by the aggregate export data.

⁵ Darby et al. (1999), Tenreyro (2007), and Guillou (2008). They use quarterly exchange rates and two-year standard deviations.

sales considerably vary across industries as well. Export shares are higher in the machinery related industries while lower in the light industries. These seem to reflect the structure of Japan's exports.

Table 2 presents the distribution of firms by size and the ratio of exporters in each size category. Here, we classified firms into three size categories; over 500 workers, 100-500 workers, and less than 100 workers¹. The majority of firms fall into the middle size category in all industries. The table reveals a consistent pattern on the ratio of exporters. In all industries, the ratio is highest in the large firm category while it is lowest in the small firm category. Thus, the size is important factor in the firm-level export. Although this pattern is consistent, the shares of exporters considerably vary across industries in all size categories. In the large size category, the lowest is 19.39 percent (Foods) while the highest is 79.50 percent (Electronics). In the middle size category, the lowest is 9.74 percent (Foods) while the highest is 56.07 percent (Machines). Such differences possibly justify the industry-by-industry estimation in the following section.

4. Empirical Results

This section describes empirical results and discusses those implications. First, we briefly review estimation results of productivity and markup, and then discuss the regression between exports and exchange rates. Table 3 presents the weighted means of productivity and markups for both exporters and non-exporters. Interestingly, non-exporters have higher average productivity than exporters in some industries although many existing papers revealed that exporters have relatively higher productivity than non-exporters. However, it does not always mean that our findings are contrary to those of the existing papers. In many existing papers, productivity is measured as total factor productivity (TFP) while we decompose TFP into technical efficiency and the pricing power (markup)². We should, therefore, look at markup as well as productivity between exporters and non-exporters, to compare to the existing literature. The table reveals that there is no industry that the demeaned productivity and markup for exporters are simultaneously lower than those for non-exporters. It possibly indicates that the structure of exports vary across industries. In Textile, Chemicals, Glasses, Metals and Machines, exporters have advantages on their markup by differentiated products. On the other hand, exporters have higher productivity in the other industries. It is also consistent with our intuitive view that Japanese capital, equipment and material exports are differentiated with high quality within the regional networks while finished goods and electronics are more open to price competition because of catching up by Asian competitors.

Next, we discuss the estimation results but we should re-consider data distribution. The tables 1 and 2 reveal that export is very biased to large firms in three industries; Machines, Electronics and Transport. In other industries, exporters are also biased to the large firms but the shares of export to total sales are very small. We focus on those three industries in this analysis, concerning over the reliability of the estimation results. This also seems to be reasonable because those three industries cover Japan's major exporting products such as industrial machines, equipment, electronic products and automobiles. The results of the regression models in Heckman two step approaches are presented in Tables 4³. The left hand side of the table reports the estimation using the average exchange rate as a proxy of exchange rate changes. The results illustrate that coefficients of the lagged dependent variable in all industries are statistically significantly positive. In addition, the estimates are close to unity. It indicates that the sunk cost exists in the firm-level export and it is difficult for firms to drastically change their export intensity following exchange rate changes⁴. In addition, the firm size is also statistically significantly positive in those industries. Thus, the larger the firms are, the more the firms develop oversea markets⁵. The effects of exchange rate changes vary across industries. Electronics and Transport have statistically significantly negative coefficients as we expected. On the other hand, in Machines, the estimated coefficient for the exchange rate is negative but statistically insignificant. In the former two industries, a 1 % appreciation decreases the export intensity by 4.6% and 3.4%, respectively. The estimated coefficients for productivity are statistically significantly positive only in Transports. It implies that exporting firms in the transportation equipment industry possibly offsets negative effects of currency appreciation by higher productivity to some extent. It is also difficult to find a unique implication on markup. Electronics has a statistically significantly positive estimate while Transport has a statistically significantly negative estimate.

¹ Sum of the regular and the contingent workers

² TFP is represented using our productivity (ω) and markup (μ) as follows,

$$TFP = \left(\frac{\bar{y}}{\mu} - 1\right)k + \frac{\bar{y}}{\mu}\omega + \varepsilon.$$

³ The results of other industries are available upon request.

⁴ It is also true in other industries.

⁵ Unlike the lagged export intensity, it is not always true in other industries.

It implies that products in the former industry are differentiated to some extent while products in the latter one face severe price competition in overseas markets. .

In the right hand side of in the table, exchange rate volatility is used as a proxy of exchange rate changes instead of the average exchange rate. Compared to the average exchange rate, all industries obtain statistically significantly negative estimates on exchange rate volatility. For productivity and markup, we obtain the same implications as the case of the exchange rate levels. The lagged dependent variable is still statistically significantly positive and close to unity.

The differences between the exchange rate level and volatility possibly stem from the differences in the timing of exchange rate adjustment across industries. In other words, the temporal aggregation may be inappropriate for the machinery industry. As is well known, exporting firms have fixed exchange rates during the contract period, and the lengths of the contracts are possibly different by industry. On the other hand, the volatility measure can avoid such a problem to some extent. Thus, the statistically significantly negative estimates on exchange rate volatility are considered as evidence that large exchange rate fluctuation has significantly negative impacts on the firm-level export.

Our results also reveal that neither productivity nor markup advantage can absorb the negative impacts of large fluctuation of exchange rates on exports in the machinery industry. It does not support the view that Japanese exporters can effectively control the impact of exchange rate changes through their sophisticated supply chain networks because the machinery exports can play key roles in such networks. Instead, stability of exchange rates seems to be still important in industrial policies.

Table 5 gives the results of the selection model. In Machines and Electronics, productivity is positively correlated with export while markup is negatively correlated. In Transport, markup is weakly negatively correlated with export. Those findings coincide with the implications in Bellone et al. (2008). It characterizes export activity by Japanese firms to some extent because those industries play important roles in overall Japanese exports as we mentioned above. The lagged dependent variable is statistically significantly positive even in the selection model. The FDI dummy (overseas establishment) and foreign capital ratios are statistically significant only in Electronics¹. These findings support the view that differences in industrial structure possibly influence their export structure as well.

5. Conclusion

We examined the effect of exchange rate changes, productivity and markup on export intensity at the firm-level. Our estimation revealed that large volatility of exchange rates has significantly negative effects on export intensity of firms. On the other hand, the effect of currency appreciation should be carefully examined because the temporal aggregation may affect the results of estimation. As a whole, we conclude that the exchange rate stability is important in export promotion policies. We also detect that productivity and markup affect export of firms through varying paths across industries. It implies that differences in industrial structure should be carefully considered in devising export promotion policies. As a policy implication, our findings don't support the view that firms can absorb or mitigate negative effects of large exchange rate volatility on their exports by higher productivity or price powers through the sophisticated supply-chain networks, particularly for capital equipment or parts and components suppliers. On the other hand, our finding of the sunk cost in the regression model gives a concern on the existence of unit roots in our data because the estimated coefficients are statistically significant and close to unity in most of industries. Future research should consider this problem using longer time series data if possible.

Reference

Akerberg, D., Caves, K., Frazer, G., 2006. Structural Identification of Production

Functions. *Working Paper*, available at <http://www.econ.ucla.edu/ackerber/>.

Ando, M. and Kimura, F. 2013. Trade Adjustments to Exchange Rate Changes by Japanese Manufacturing MNEs: Intra-firms and arm's length transactions. RIETI Discussion Papers, 13-E-023.

Bellone, F., Musso, P., Nest, L., Warzynski, F. 2008. Endogenous Markups,

¹ From the data of the Survey of Overseas Business Activities compiled by the METI, productivity of the firms that export to their own overseas establishments is not always higher than the domestic firms on average.

- Firm-Productivity and International Trade: Testing some micro-level implications of the Melitz-Ottaviano model. *Working Paper* 08-20, Aarhus School of Business.
- Berman, N. Martin, P. and Mayer, T. 2012. How Do Different Exporters React to Exchange Rate Changes?. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 127(1), 437-492.
- Bond, S., Soderbom, M., 2005. Adjustment Costs and the Identification of Cobb-Douglas Production Functions. *Working Papers* W05/04, the Institute for Fiscal Studies, University Collage London.
- Darby, J., Hallett, A. H., Ireland, J. and Piscitelli, L. (1999), 'The impact of exchange rate uncertainty on the level of investment', *The Economic Journal* 109, 55{67.
- Eslava, M., Haltiwanger, J., Kugler, A. Kugler, M., 2005. Plant Survival, Market Fundamentals and Trade Liberalization. *mimeo*.
- Guillou, S. 2008. Exports and Exchange Rate: A firm-level investigation. OFCE Working Paper, 2008-2.
- Helpman, E., Melitz, M. J., Yeaple, S. R., 2004. Export versus FDI with Heterogeneous Firms. *American Economic Review*, 94, 300-316.
- Ichimura, H., Konishi, Y., Nishiyama, Y., 2011. An Econometric Analysis of Firm Specific Productivities: Evidence from Japanese plant level data. *Discussion Paper* 11-E-002, Research Institute of Economy, Trade and Industry.
- Kato, A., Kodama, N., 2014. Markups, Productivity and External Market Development: An empirical analysis using small service firms' data. *Applied Economics*, 46(29), 3601-3608.
- Kato, A. 2015a. Effect of Exchange Rate Changes on East Asian Technology-Intensive Exports. *The Journal of International Trade and Economic Development*. 24(6), 809-821.
- Kato, A. 2015b. Does Export Yield Productivity and Markup Premiums? Evidence from the Japanese manufacturing industries. *International Review of Research in Emerging Markets and the Global Economy*, Vol. 1 (1), 273-285.
- Kim, Y-G., Kwon, H-U., Fukao, K., 2007. Entry and Exit of Companies and Establishments , and Productivity at the Industry Level (in Japanese). *Discussion Paper* 07-J-022, Research Institute of Economy, Trade and Industry.
- Li, H., Ma, H., Xu, Y., and Xiong, Y. 2015. How Do Exchange Rate Movement Affect Chinese Exports?: A firm-level investigation. *Journal of International Economics*, 97(1), 148-161.
- Levinsohn, J., Petrin, A., 2003. Estimating Production Functions Using Inputs to Control for Unobservables. *Review of Economic Studies*, 70, 317-342.
- Martin R., 2010. Productivity Spreads, Market Power Spreads, and Trade. *Discussion Paper* 997, Centre for Economic Performance, London School of Economics and Political Science.
- Melitz, M., 2003. The Impact of Trade on Intra-Industry Reallocations and Aggregate Industry Productivity. *Econometrica* 71, 1695-1725.
- Morikawa, M. 2015. Uncertainty over Exchange Rates and Exports (in Japanese). RIETI Discussion Papers, 15-J-051.
- Olley, S., Pakes, A., 1996. The Dynamics of Productivity in the Telecommunication Equipment Industry. *Econometrica*, 64, 1263-1297.

Rahman, M. 2009. The Impact of Real Exchange Rate Flexibility on East Asian Exports. *The World Economy*.

Shioji, E. 2012. The Evolution of the Exchange Rate Pass-Through in Japan: A re-evaluation based on time-varying parameter VARs. *Public Policy Review*. 8(1), 67-92.

Tenreiro, S. (2007), 'On the Trade Impact of Nominal Exchange Rate Volatility', *Journal of Development Economics* 82, 485-508.

Thorbecke, W. and Kato, A. (2012). The Effect of Exchange Rate Changes on Japanese Consumption Exports. *Japan and the World Economy*, 24(1), 64-71.

Tokui, J., Inui, T., Kim, YG., 2007. The Embodied Technical Progress and the Average

Vintage of Capital (in Japanese). *Discussion Paper* 07-J-035, Research Institute of

Economy, Trade and Industry.

Wooldridge, J.M. 2005. Simple solutions to the initial conditions problem in

dynamic, nonlinear panel-data models with unobserved heterogeneity. *Journal*

of Applied Econometrics, 20(1), 39-54.

Appendix

Industry Classification

Industry Classification	Abbreviation
Foods and Beverages	Foods
Textile, Clothing and Footwear	Textile
Wood and Paper	Woods
Chemicals	Chemicals
Plastics and Rubber	Plastics
Glasses and Ceramics	Glasses
Metals	Metals
General Purpose Machinery	Machines
Electric and Electronic Components	Electronics
Transportation Equipment	Transport
Miscellaneous	Others

Table 1: Regional Share to Export and Export Share to Total Sales

Industry	Asia	US	EU	Others	Export Share to Total Sales
Foods	0.67292	0.21038	0.08030	0.03639	0.43%
Textile	0.74324	0.10044	0.11675	0.03957	2.80%
Woods	0.72767	0.13469	0.11496	0.02268	0.91%
Chemicals	0.68336	0.15273	0.14270	0.02121	10.94%
Plastics	0.75801	0.12521	0.09324	0.02354	6.79%
Glasses	0.73667	0.14065	0.07840	0.04428	8.43%
Metals	0.74472	0.14958	0.08014	0.02556	7.27%
Machines	0.69378	0.16249	0.11140	0.03233	27.33%
Electronics	0.70805	0.16231	0.10926	0.02038	23.44%

Transport	0.52354	0.29314	0.12041	0.06291	30.65%
Others	0.60288	0.18288	0.17752	0.03671	19.48%

Note: Author's own calculation

The averages between 2002 and 2012

Table 2: Distribution of Firms and Ratio of Exporters in Each Size Category

Industry	Firm Size Shares			% of Exporters		
	X>500	500>X>100	X<100	X>500	500>X>100	X<100
Foods	15.71%	56.13%	28.16%	19.39%	9.74%	5.09%
Textile	5.60%	51.11%	43.30%	50.30%	18.47%	12.43%
Woods	8.70%	51.01%	40.29%	37.77%	12.54%	6.30%
Chemicals	19.40%	54.12%	26.48%	77.26%	54.10%	31.59%
Plastics	11.11%	55.81%	33.08%	69.03%	34.00%	18.44%
Glasses	8.19%	52.44%	39.37%	59.30%	28.71%	9.68%
Metals	9.23%	52.72%	38.05%	61.05%	29.85%	17.28%
Machines	12.16%	53.05%	34.79%	79.50%	56.07%	37.97%
Electronics	20.02%	54.83%	25.16%	62.64%	40.14%	27.35%
Transport	23.81%	55.15%	21.04%	66.47%	28.55%	13.96%
Others	13.92%	54.45%	31.63%	75.62%	51.25%	36.87%

Note: Author's own calculation

The averages between 2002 and 2012

Table 3: Average Firm Size, Productivity and Markup

Industry	Firm Size		Productivity		Markup	
	Non Exporters	Exporters	Non Exporters	Exporters	Non Exporters	Exporters
Foods	342.12	694.47	-0.0103	0.3761	1.0645	1.0099
Textile	158.46	365.00	0.1890	-0.2097	0.9575	1.1865
Woods	193.68	606.37	-0.2490	-0.1295	1.0501	1.0164
Chemicals	267.54	708.08	0.0883	0.0071	1.0268	1.0407
Plastics	192.18	512.23	0.1106	0.4704	1.1221	1.0859
Glasses	166.22	458.70	0.5512	0.4596	0.9430	1.0082
Metals	224.28	477.92	0.0927	0.0825	1.0831	1.0974
Machines	241.56	463.35	0.4062	0.2720	1.1212	1.1807
Electronics	300.66	944.47	-0.0425	0.0447	0.9449	1.0308
Transport	304.60	1586.72	0.1397	0.6557	1.0904	1.0408
Others	206.67	411.71	0.7305	0.8185	1.1500	1.1634

Note: Author's own calculation

The averages between 2002 and 2011

Table 4: Estimation Results of the Regression Model (Exchange Rates = Yearly Average)

VARIABLES	π is the EXR level			π is the EXR volatility		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Machines	Electronics	Transport	Machines	Electronics	Transport
π	0.0123 (0.776)	-0.0458*** (-4.867)	-0.0339*** (-6.698)	-0.6740** (-2.445)	-1.001*** (-3.701)	-1.3390*** (-8.137)
ω	-0.0003 (-0.088)	0.0032 (0.899)	0.0171*** (2.807)	-0.0003 (-0.0905)	0.0029 (0.810)	0.0190*** (3.129)
μ	-0.0045 (-0.713)	0.0137* (1.936)	-0.0417** (-2.086)	-0.0044 (-0.703)	0.0143** (2.010)	-0.0450** (-2.258)
Firm Size	0.0044*** (3.797)	0.0028*** (2.611)	0.0045*** (3.349)	0.0043*** (3.708)	0.0027** (2.480)	0.0046*** (3.440)
Import Share	-0.4120 (-0.347)	2.370*** (4.800)	5.9910*** (6.463)	2.0250*** (3.160)	1.5950*** (3.647)	7.0460*** (7.603)
Capital Intensity	-0.0027 (-0.567)	0.0107** (2.157)	0.0177* (1.861)	-0.0029 (-0.614)	0.0108** (2.186)	0.0178* (1.881)
Labour Intensity	-0.0743*** (-4.870)	-0.0733*** (-4.107)	-0.0323 (-1.284)	-0.0734*** (-4.815)	-0.0769*** (-4.301)	-0.0199 (-0.793)
Lag of Dep. Var.	0.9240*** (165.3)	0.9350*** (146.9)	0.9320*** (115.4)	0.9240*** (165.3)	0.9360*** (146.8)	0.9170*** (110.1)
N. of Obs.	12,619	13,354	8,381	12,619	13,354	8,381

Note: z-statistics in the parentheses.

***, **, and * represent the 1, 5, and 10 percent significance levels, respectively.

Table 5: Estimation Results of the Selection Model

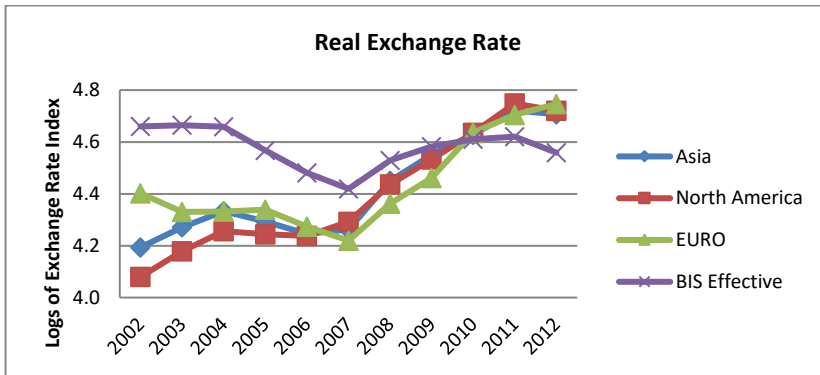
VARIABLES	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Machines	Electronics	Transport
ω	0.119*** (2.718)	0.0746* (1.826)	0.115 (1.475)
μ	-0.262*** (-3.529)	-0.223** (-2.111)	-0.338* (-1.918)
Firm Size	0.120*** (5.086)	0.104*** (5.495)	0.208*** (8.202)
Import Share	-1.370 (-0.732)	-2.268 (-0.300)	70.87 (0.438)
FDI	0.00542 (0.450)	0.0646*** (3.914)	0.0225 (1.434)

Age	8.42e-05 (0.396)	0.000258 (1.355)	-0.000206 (-0.655)
Foreign Capital	0.000849 (1.482)	0.00192*** (2.922)	0.000464 (0.877)
Lag of Dep. Var.	3.075*** (83.68)	3.221*** (84.55)	3.220*** (62.74)
Constant	-1.499*** (-6.659)	-1.720** (-2.564)	-4.691 (-0.921)
N. of Obs.	12,619	13,354	8,381

Note: z-statistics in the parentheses.

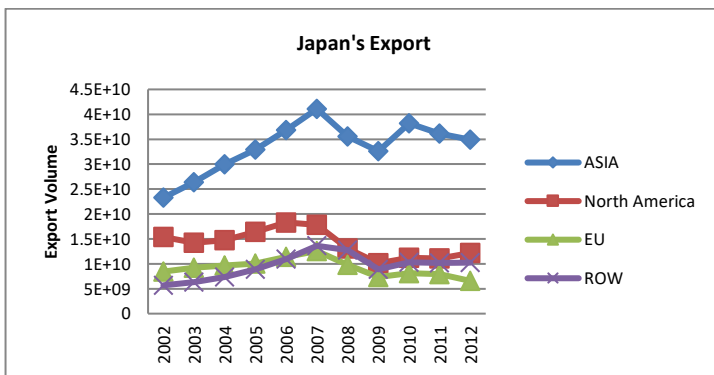
***, **, and * represent the 1, 5, and 10 percent significance levels, respectively.

Figure 1



Note: Author's own calculation

Figure 2



The Introduction and the Application of Technological Innovations as Administrative Efficiency Factor in Education

Belias D.

Department of Physical Education and Sport Science, University of Thessaly, Trikala, Greece

Velissariou E.

Dept. of Business Administration, Technological Educational Institute of Thessaly Greece

Kyriakou D.

Dept of Economic Sciences, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece

Koustelios a.

Department of Physical Education and Sport Science, University of Thessaly, Trikala, Greece

Sdrolias L.

Dept. of Business Administration, Technological Educational Institute of Thessaly Greece

Varsanis K.

Dept. of Business Administration, Technological Educational Institute of Western Macedonia, Kozani, Greece.

Abstract

Innovation is a rapidly developed issue, keeping all the aforementioned alerted. Considering this picture, the key issue of this thesis is to clarify the concept innovation as administrative efficiency factor in relation with education using the relevant literature. The existing literature indicates that educational structure and practices are in the center of great reforms. These reforms associated with New Public Management. NPM is a process that involves interaction between managers and markets. It is a set of cost-cutting and management concepts from the private sector including downsizing, entrepreneurialism, enterprise operations, quality management, customer service etc. According to that concept, school managers are trying to create a smaller, more responsive, more entrepreneurial and more effective public sector. Technological innovation has a key role on this and surely it can be the cornerstone of every change which may occur on this field of public administration.

Keywords: technological innovations, school management, innovation, performance, efficiency

1. Introduction

As society struggles with fast changing circumstances, the cutting-edge in public governance becomes a high-aiming target. Public administration is at a stage where considerable pressure for change exists. Innovation in governance seems to repeat a historical pattern. It begins with administrative reforms to enhance the performance of public authorities, moves to changes in public policy, then involves the more difficult task of wider institutional reform and finally requires institutional innovation to complete the cycle of modernization (Caiden & Puniha, 2011).

The UK Department of Business, Innovations and Skills give a typical definition of Public Sector Innovation (PSI): "Innovation is the process of identifying, testing implementing and spreading ideas that add value". Governments play an important role in establishing the conditions that will enable a knowledge- and innovation-driven economy to prosper. The withdrawal of administrative burdens, the subsidizing of specific research and developed projects and the launching of creative partnerships with businesses from the private sector are few of the government challenges. In addition, the deal with societal challenges, like education quality and crime fighting are also vital.

The extended concern on how to utilize and achieve these concepts affects politicians, public servants and those whose seek to shape public opinion. Moreover innovation is a rapidly developed issue, keeping all the aforementioned alerted.

Considering this picture, the key issue of this thesis is to clarify the concept innovation as administrative efficiency factor in relation with education using the relevant literature.

2. Methodology

This is a paper which is a clear literature review based on secondary data. Secondary Data is often includes surveys and researches that may have some relation with the research scopes but they do not always give the answers that the research is looking for. Nevertheless, they can help the author to gain knowledge and make comparisons with her research results.

This paper will rely on the presentation of the related literature review. Hence it will reproduce all of the related papers and research so to make up this paper.

3. Literature Review

3. 1. Educational institutions as organizations

The term <organization> in the scientific management field comes with double meaning, which also consists of the definition:

a) as an entity (school, hospital or ministry)

b) as a basic managerial function (Katsaros,2008) The organizations are systems with coordinated activities, acts and forces that are brought by two or more people, who through communication they aim towards achieving one or more common goals. (Pavlopoulos,1983)

The "organization" -kindergarten, school, university, college or the educational system itself expects from the manager to do three things:

- to use the available resources in order to achieve his goals
- to maintain and develop the resources
- to be efficient The role of manager is different from the teacher's one, while the teacher is only responsible for the intellectual well being of the students, the manager on the other hand has to be the "glue" inside the organization connecting the different parts, facilitating the learning process and taking care of the financing and bureaucratic procedures.

3. 2. Educational Management and Leadership

From the numerous researches that tried to give a definition in leadership by defining the concept, is noted its importance. Leadership is a process designed to influence the actions of a person or a group, in its effort to achieve the objectives of a company when the prevailing conditions are given. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) Analyzing the definition of leadership it is obvious that the leader, the subordinates and other variables constitute the process of leadership (Mpourantas, 2005). Between leadership and management as well as between manager and leader there are differences (Foot & Hook, 2008).

The necessity to change the behavior and the attitude of the people, when the prevailing conditions favor it, even to change the way that an organization operates or when an organization is trying to improve the working conditions as well as to implement an innovation, then we are referring to leadership. Leadership with the help of communication, aims to influence the behavior and the activities of the subordinates in order to achieve the goals. On the other hand, the use of bodies, sources of information and human resources in order to accomplish the aims of an organization, then we are talking about management. Managers form people's behavior through the official authority they possess. On the other hand the leader, with no official authority, demonstrated and recognized by a group of people, creates clear and perceptible values which are incorporated into the organization's strategy. Management deals with the non-human resources while leadership focuses on the human ones. Many efficient managers with the passage of the time become efficient leaders (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004).

Zileznik refers to four areas in order to define the differences between leaders and managers: their goals, their work, the image they have of themselves and the relations with others. Managers set goals that occur from the organization's needs and are objective, while leaders express their own vision, having personal perception about the goals. General, managers choose the most satisfying solution in order to achieve the organization's goals, the relationship with the subordinates is based on the power they have through the authority they possess and they seek stability inside the organization. Leaders

are looking for innovative ways to solve a problem, develop emotional relationships with the subordinates, inspiring them and they don't take anything for granted, being always in search (Zileznik, 1977).

3. 3. Introduction to Educational Management

Many researchers involved in the area of management and came up with a variety of definitions. The management is defined as the process by which the elements of a group are integrated, coordinated and utilized so as to efficiently achieve organizational objectives. (Carlisle, 1982) Management is defined as an operational process that includes five individual acts: programming, organization, administration, coordination and control (Saitis, 2008).

Saitis (1994) defines management as a rational combination of various activities that are included into a collaborative effort, inside an organization which is designed to serve specific purposes. Education is an area of management that shows both similarities with other areas and quite a few differences that require adaptation and new approaches. Specifying the definitions mentioned above at the school level the following findings are noted. The management function at school level, serves the purpose as mentioned at the law 1566/85 (article 1) that is defined as "purpose of the primary and secondary education is to contribute to the overall, harmonious and balanced development of the intellectual and psychosomatic abilities of the students" creating the conditions that will maximize the performance of the teaching and supportive staff, the local society and the parents. Implementing the definition of management in the field of education we could rephrase it as : a system of action that is based on the rational use of available resources – human and material- in order to fulfill the objectives that are set by the various types of the educational institutions (Saitis, 2000, p. 24), Indisputably the educational management is not only responsible for the implementation of the laws but also for the upgrade of the quality of the educational procedure that takes place at the school units (Saitis, 2008).

3. 4. Specifying innovation in the public administration

In general terms public governance refers to a pattern of rules applying in the public sector. It conveys the administrative and process-oriented elements of governing. There are five separate categories that constitute the public governance (Kapucu, 2010):

- Administrative governance concerns about public administration
- Public policy governance shows the cooperation between networks and political elites
- Socio-political governance indicates institutional relationships in society
- Contract governance is a collection of policies controlling contracting-in and outsourcing practices
- Network governance analyzes the cooperation between government and nongovernmental organizations in order to promote communal interest.

More commonly public governance occurs through Networks (that engage public and private collaborations), Market mechanisms (where competition under government regulation allocate resources) and through methods that involve governments and the state bureaucracy. Innovation in public governance is an extended set of linked activities, a mechanism which is implemented to solve problems or to gain better governance outcomes. The increasing need for productivity and efficiency in the public sector gives innovation a leading part in all administrative activities engaged by government. It depicts the art of doing things in a better way than before.

Innovations diversify to incremental (those who evolve a current service or product) and to radical (those who launch something entirely new). Consider a product or service. Incremental innovation is to make the product better, simpler etc. Radical innovation is to launch a completely new product or service.

In addition, depending on who has initiated the process leading to behavioral changes, innovations are divided into "top-down" and "bottom-up". The first give priority at the top levels of management, meaning management or organizations or institutions higher up in the hierarchy. In the "bottom-up" process public employees, civil servants and mid-level policy makers are the groups that start the initiative. We make a more detailed approach on the following section "the diffusion process".

Finally, whether the innovation process has been initiated to solve a specific problem or in order to make already existing products, services or procedures more efficient it can be divided to needs- led and efficiency-led innovations. It has been

shown that needs-led innovation is rarely driven by a major crisis but rather, mostly by internal problems (budget constraints, problems meeting the objective, etc.) which led to dynamic incremental innovation processes. Top-down innovations are probably less frequent than bottom-up innovation though more radical; they seem to be more driven by changes in the agencies' organization or pressure from the civil society (lobbying) than from legislative or electoral processes (Thenint, LL&A 2010).

Innovations can take several forms:

- Product innovation- developments of products or services that an organization offers,
- Administrative innovation- the use of a new policy instrument, which may be a result of policy change,
- Process innovation- changes in the ways products/services created and delivered,
- System innovation- a new system or a fundamental change of an existing system, for example the establishment of new organizations or new patterns of co-operation and interaction,
- Paradigm innovation- shifts in the underlying mental models which frame what the organization does,
- Conceptual innovation- a change in the outlook of actors (such changes are accompanied by the use of new concepts),
- Radical change of rationality-meaning that the worldview or the mental matrix of the employees of an organization is shifting. Rarity and significance can be seen as a precondition for innovation meaning that innovation is a relative phenomenon (Anttiroiko, Bailey & Valkama, 2011).

A second precondition for innovation is the successful implementation. Well-established, old mechanisms usually introduce non-innovative reforms and changes. In public sector success is debatable because one group may be benefitted while, at the same time, disadvantage others. Success cannot be appraised properly. In the private sectors gains from innovation are translated into profits and market shares, thus payoffs can be evaluated.

3. 5. Factors and Pre-conditions for successful Innovation in education's management

There is a variety of factors and pre-conditions that enhance the creation of innovative ideas and sustain the outcome in the management of education. The following list gives a representative illustration of these elements (Rivera León, Simmonds & Roman 2012):

- Leadership is a vital factor of success. It includes the achievement of strategic alignments across an organization, the understanding of boundaries, the incentives to staff to take on actions and the collaboration across work units
- Culture, strategy and human capital. Innovation is more likely to happen in environments where a culture that encourages and rewards new ideas exists. A culture of trust, which gives authority to translating innovative ideas into practice, and embedding respect and good communication are thus essential. In addition, the work of top level managers is vital, in setting strategic directions to the organizations they lead.
- Understanding the environment. A good understanding of the focus of their organizations, the internal dynamics and its external environment is essential in order to meet the targets. The environment is volatile and changes constantly, requiring public organizations to be flexible enough to respond to these changes. Capturing evidence and having access to information through qualitative and quantitative data is vital in understanding the environment and reacting to it.
- Organizational capabilities and innovative capacity. Empowering and supporting staff responsible to bring innovative solutions into action, which in turn necessitates leadership, investment and commitment. Organizational flexibility and agility is needed in order to shift and obtain necessary skills and resources to meet emerging needs and opportunities.
- Good governance. Governments should be accountable in respecting citizens freedoms, ensure the political stability and the absence of violence, be effective and provide quality services, regulate friendly policies and respect for the rule of law and control of corruption.
- sustained support of politicians, officials and suppliers. Political leaders and officials can establish a culture in which innovation is seen as natural. Organizations whose structures may change before the implementation of PSI, require projects that will embody low risk for a long term process.

3. 6. The application of technological innovation so to create efficiencies on education management

Innovations applied to education into four modes: technological, processual, organizational and institutional (Kickert, 2005).

These innovations vary from new tools and methods to the formation of hierarchy in organizations and the transformation of state centrist institutions to network societies. Innovation models are complex procedures as a result of the number of participants and the activities involved. Early models were simplistic linear affairs and mainly about physical products and processes – the typical “technology push” or “demand pull” stereotypes. These have gradually evolved to more complex and interactive models, weaving different knowledge strands together. Such complex interactive models are particularly relevant in the context of services where users are a key part of the equation. Depending on the circumstances each model has a better application. It is not a case of one being better than the other but rather that we need different model for a different situation. In the following list we present a number of models for ways in which innovation can happen in education with the use of technology (Bessant & Tidd, 2011):

- Research and Development led model

A concept is conceived by specialists, refined and launched. Investments in research and development lead to new products, services etc.

- High involvement innovation

This model stresses the ability of all employees to contribute to incremental problem solving innovation through what are often called continuous improvement or ‘kaizen’ programs. Strategic objectives of an organization are clearly specified and understood. Targeted in this way high involvement innovation can deliver significant traction in areas like quality improvement, waste reduction and efficiency gains.

- Diffusion-centred

This model focuses on how to spread an idea rather than to generate a new idea. It is equally important to spread successfully and adopt an idea through a variety of participants as to create a new one. The main concern is to make the idea work.

- Radical/discontinuous

In this model a specialist works on a radical idea, being completely free, autonomy and break with conventional approaches. An early and famous example of this would be the ‘skunk works’ which Lockheed Martin set up to help them develop the – for its time – impossible innovation of an invisible airplane. By allowing the group significant autonomy and keeping it separate from the mainstream it was possible to develop the stealth technologies which later became a mainstream innovation for the business. Public sector examples might include some of the radical policy think tanks and some of the Future Focus activity, but the question could also be raised about the relative absence of such models on the public sector innovation landscape.

- Entrepreneur driven

This model recognizes that much innovation arises from individual ideas in the early ‘fluid’ phase in the innovation life cycle. The value of an innovation model based on this is that it captures the fast creativity of diverse and enthusiastic individuals and small groups and may give important clues or even early entry to what becomes the dominant design for the future. It also underlines the venture capital model of growth, in which sponsors and entrepreneurs are connected to develop and scale innovations with a high level of novelty. This model has significance for the public sector since it potentially taps into the rich vein of social entrepreneurship distributed across individuals and groups around key regional, issues and concerns. It highlights the need for brokering and connecting to enable these entrepreneurs to flourish and their ideas to reach a wider audience – the amplifying effect. Examples might include The Hub, Innovation Exchange, BBC Backstage, Young Foundation, Education innovation challenge etc.

- Recombinant innovation

Innovation does not always involve pushing the frontiers of a particular market or technology; in some cases it can happen through transferring lessons from one world where they are well-developed into a new context. Key to making this happen is mechanisms to bridge across different worlds. Public sector examples might be the transferring of lean / six sigma

principles which originated in manufacturing but could also include learning from radical experiments in different contexts – for example, Aravind eye clinics education institute and 'bottom of pyramid' (BoP) learning around health care, mobile banking and services in BoP markets.

- User-led innovation

Based on the pioneering work of Eric von Hippel work, this model recognises that users are often initiators or at least co-creators of innovation at the 'fuzzy front end'. Ideas may be developed into prototypes by user innovators and then be picked up on and produced/refined by professionals. Private sector interest in this approach has grown, not least as a consequence of the emergence of powerful selforganizing user communities – such as that surrounding Linux – which have become major sources of innovative ideas. There is now extensive use of 'crowd sourcing' and innovation competitions to mobilize expertise and insight at the front end of innovation.

In the public sector, in our case in educational management, there is considerable scope for this kind of activity – in Denmark it became the centrepiece of a major innovation initiative and led to the establishment of a specialist group – 24 Mindlab – with the mission of developing and diffusing user led approaches across the educational management. In the UK a variety of activities – such as the experience-based design work at educational institutes are examples of this approach.

- Long term co-evolution

This model relates to the specialized and occasional type of innovation in which transformational innovations emerge out of highly complex and chaotic environments. Under conditions where there are many different stakeholders and other elements – for example, technologies, markets, financial sources, etc. – it becomes impossible to predict the direction or long term trajectory of innovation. Instead complexity theory suggests something will eventually emerge as a product of 'co-evolution amongst these different interacting elements. An example might be the long-term picture of chronic disease management – we know that this is a growing problem involving a wide range of stakeholders – patients, health professionals, patient's associations, drug and medical companies, pension providers, etc. The growing incidence of chronic disease, its rising costs and increasing expectations mean that the current model is likely to be unable to deal with this challenge – but what replaces it is impossible to predict via simple extrapolation. Instead it will co-evolve out of the interactions of the various stakeholders. This does not lend itself to a structured innovation model but it is possible to develop some approaches to 'manage' innovation under these conditions. Complexity theory indicates that there are some patterns to complex system behaviour – for example, it is possible to identify 'attractor basins' zones where something begins to emerge – and to use amplifying feedback to enhance that to the point where it becomes a dominant design. The innovation management lessons here would be to be in 'there', engaged with the co-evolving space, be in there early, and to be in there actively, picking up on shifts which might become nodes around which radical new options emerge. A private sector equivalent might be the Danish diabetes care provider Novo Nordisk which invests £1m/year into the non-profit Oxford Health Alliance – a diverse group trying to work on chronic disease in radically different ways. This investment represents their 'lottery ticket' – by being close to the discussion they are 'in there' and 'in there early' and in a position to detect where early possible radical solutions might be going and to follow up on these. It is not clear where public sector equivalent organizations or approaches might be found though some of the think tanks might represent communities in which this might be happening. This was an indicative list as stated by iande.com, presenting relevant models operating in the public sector. Many combinations of the previous models can also happen. In addition, some models are better than others depending on the circumstance that are applied. More over in many cases an excellent solution is a combination of them.

4. Discussion

This paper presents an overview about innovations in the education management and how it can improve efficiencies. There is an extensive literature that covers the subject of innovation in the public sector, more precisely in the education management, sufficiently and detailed reports from institutional departments that document efforts globally. Still, innovation is an ongoing process as managers face volatile socio-political and economic environments. We made a comprehensive capture of published literature concerning technological innovations and we presented indicative cases where the efforts of managers are illustrated and assessed. Educational administration represent a significant part of the European socioeconomic activity. As the demand for educational services in many advanced countries is growing faster than the rest

of the economy, it is essential for radical innovative solutions to be applied in order to address budget constraints and higher expectations of the users.

It must be said that educational management occurs through Networks, Market mechanisms and through methods that involve governments, schools, teachers, headmasters and the state bureaucracy. Innovation in education targets at the solution of major problems and the development of new opportunities. Innovation models are complex procedures as a result of the number of participants and the activities involved. Mainly they involve, research and development processes, synergies of public authorities with the private sector and focus on the diffusion process. All those lead into an efficient mode of management for school units.

5. Conclusion

Educational structure and practices are in the centre of great reforms. These reforms associated with New Public Management. NPM is a process that involves interaction between managers and markets. It is a set of cost-cutting and management concepts from the private sector including downsizing, entrepreneurialism, enterprise operations, quality management, customer service etc. According to that concept, school managers are trying to create a smaller, more responsive, more entrepreneurial and more effective public sector. Technological innovation has a key role on this and surely it can be the cornerstone of every change which may occur on this field of public administration.

Regarding the future of technological innovations in the management of educational institutes, organizational knowledge plays a significant role at launching and implementing innovative ideas. Knowledge management efforts typically focus on organizational objectives such as improved performance, competitive advantage etc. it is a changing mix of workers experience, values, expert insight, and intuition that provides an environmental framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information.

6. Suggestions for Further Research

This paper tracks down the key issues on the Introduction and the application of technological innovations as administrative efficiency factor in education. The literature review indicated that there are many opportunities from the leverage of technological innovations. However, there is a need to proceed with a further research, which will be a qualitative research among educators so to examine this case.

References

- Ari-Veikko Anttiroiko, Stephen J. Bailey & Pekka Valkama (2011). Innovations in Public Governance in the Western World. *Innovation and the Public Sector*, 15, 1-22.
- Buchanan, D.A. & Huczynski, A. (2004). *Organizational Behavior: An introductory text*. Prentice Hall.
- Carlisle, H.M. (1982). *Management: Concepts, Methods and Applications*. Chicago: Science Research Associates Inc.
- Foot, M. & Hook, C. (2008). *Introducing Human Resource Management* (5th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.
- Gerald E. Caiden & Pushpinder S. Puniha (2011). Putting Public Governance Innovation into Perspective: From Administrative Reform to Innovation Discourse. *Innovation and the Public Sector*, 15, 23-38.
- Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.H (1969). *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing human Resources*. Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hugo Thenint, LL&A (2010). *Innovation in the public sector*. Global Review of Innovation Intelligence and Policy Studies.
- John Bessant & Joe Tidd (2011). *Innovation and Entrepreneurship* (2nd ed.). Wiley.
- Katsaros I. (2008). *Organization and Administration of Education*. Athens (In Greek).
- Lorena Rivera León, Paul Simmonds & Laura Roman (2012). *Trends and Challenges in Public Sector Innovation in Europe*. Inno Policy Trend Chart.
- Mpourantas, D. (2005). *Leadership: the road to lasting success* (1st ed.). Athens.

Naim Kapucu, (2010). New Public Management: Theory, Ideology, and Practice. *Globalization: VIII Issues in Public Management*, vol.40, pp.886-896.

Pavlopoulos P. (1983). *The administrative phenomenon under the theory of organizations*. Athens-Komotini: A.N. Sakkoula publications.

Saitis, Ch. (2008). *Organization and Administration of Education* (Self-Edition). Athens.

Saitis, Ch. (1994). *Basic issues of School management* (Self-Edition). Athens.

Saitis, Ch. (2000). *Organization and Administration of Education*. Athens.

W.J.M. Kickert (2005). Public Governance: the Context of Administrative Innovations in Southern Europe. *Organizing Innovation New Approaches to Cultural Change and Intervention in Public Sector Organizations*, 5, 173- 191).

Zileznik, A. (2004). Managers and leaders: Are they different?. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(1), 74-81.

Causative Connectors, the Difference Between Pragmatic and Semantic Connectors and Their Grammatical Function

Fabiana Velencia

“Aleksander Xhuvani” University, Albania

Abstract

The paper discusses connectors, the connectors will be analyzed in natural language and in Abstract structures. The question related to the difference of the pragmatic connectors that expresses the relation between speech acts, and the semantic connectors that give the relation between donated facts. The scholar Teun van Dijk analyses the position of these connectors in a sentence and describes the characteristics of the causative connectors, cause-effect. Based on the grammatical theory of causative linkers in English language and the Albanian language, the researcher's analyze the corresponding of each connector and the different approaches of these linkers. How do they position themselves in the sentences and what grammatical function do they have: preposition, adverb, verb, noun, prepositional phrase, linker (connector).

Keywords: pragmatic connectors, semantic connectors, English language, Albanian language, cause-effect, grammatical function.

Introduction

The connectors will be analyzed, in this paper, in natural language and in Abstract structures. We are going to give the difference of the pragmatic connectors that expresses the relation between speech acts, and the semantic connectors that give the relation between donated facts. The scholar Teun van Dijk analyses the position of these connectors in a sentence and describes the characteristics of the causative connectors, cause-effect. Teun van Dijk comes to the idea that C-Expressions (connectors) as a subcategory that serve to connect sentences¹.

Below are examples in English and Albanian of connectors:

1-John and Paul visited Amsterdam.

Xhoni dhe Pauli vizituan Amsterdamin.

2-John or Paul visited Amstredam.

Xhoni ose Pauli vizituan Amsterdamin.

3-John but Paul visited Amsterdam.

Xhoni ose Pauli vizitaun Amsterdamin.

4-John because Paul visited Amsterdam.

Xhoni sepse Pauli vizitaun Amsterdamin.

If we consider the two recent cases we notice that conjunctions do not give the connection of the nouns given in the sentence.

Teun van Dijk describes the characters in natural language and rather important he gives a description of Abstract structures. It is extremely important to understand the nature of the related objects. Dijk sees these objects as connector and connectors placed before the conjunction he calls this progressive connector and that that come after he calls that as a successor connector. Some concepts that appear are listed as follows:

¹Dijk, T. (1977). Connectives in text grammar and text logic. Dijk/ Petöfi: Grammar and description studies in text theory and text analyses. Berlin, New York, NY:de Gruyter.

- a) The general concept about the connectors is for those which are propositions.
- b) If the C-expressions come from Abstract connectives are called "Abstract sentences".
- c) Another case is that connectives present real value.
- d) The connectives can be observed as "connectors" to objects such as facts, events, situations, actions. Moreover may sign natural or logical language elements.

The difference between pragmatic and semantic connectives.

Pragmatic connectives expresses the relationship between speech acts, unlike semantics connectives that give the relationship between denoted facts that are studied by Teun van Dijk in 1979¹.

Pragmatic connectives are placed at the beginning of the sentence and followed by a pause and with a specific intonation. Moreover, the difficulties in identifying the pragmatic connectives although they are used to connections between the act of speaking, we may have traces of their semantic meaning. We can say the same thing in the case of semantic connectives. It is not easy to accomplish an analysis of pragmatic connectives, in order to realize this we should interpret in terms of a function under pragmatic context.

In the following examples Dijk² gives the difference of using the pragmatic connectives in English and those of semantic connectives which clearly are related to proposition and to the act of speech.

One of the pragmatic connective reviewed by Dijk³ is so "the semantic connection with so, it is clear that it denotes a consequence about a cause or reason given by a progressive sentence.

This is the general universal principle where the sentence states a possible fact. Although, in our case presumptive relations determine the sentences.

Van Dijk, the pragmatic connective so in relation with the semantic connective so, it denotes from the first sentence the cause with a consequence in the second sentence.

-I was sick, so I stayed in bed.

Isha i sëmurë, kështu që qëndrova në shtrat.

The pragmatic connective so is placed at the beginning of the sentence and it connects the two acts of speech where the second serves as a "conclusion" related to the previous one⁴.

The pragmatic nature of this connector is based on the fact of detention to a conclusion that is considered as an act. So, the pragmatic function can be based on the semantic relationship of cause and effect.

-John is sick. So let's start.

Xhoni është i sëmurë. Pra le të fillojmë.

These two sentences are related as indirect facts; we have John's illness and the beginning of the meeting. The connection between the allegations made here is important because if it is said by the chairman of the meeting and we notice the actual characteristics of communicative contexts, for example the notification of starting the meeting.

In other words, if specific information is given, the communicative context, allows the speaker to realize another act of speaking. The way it draws conclusions about the communicative context is typical in conversation where sentences or so it is positioned at the beginning of the sentence indicate that the speaker has come to the conclusion of the speech act carried out by the previous speaker.

- a) -I am busy.

¹ Dijk T. (1979).Pragmatic connectives. Journal of Pragmatics 3. North Holland :Publishing Company. Page 449.

² Dijk . (1979).Pragmatic connectives. Journal of Pragmatics 3. North Holland: Publishing Company. Page.450.

³ Dijk . (1979).Pragmatic connectives. Journal of Pragmatics 3. North Holland: Publishing Company. Page.453

⁴ . (1979).Pragmatic connectives. Journal of Pragmatics 3. North Holland Publishing Company.: Page 454.

b) –So, you are not coming tonight?

a)- I'm sorry. ¹

a) -Jam i zënë.

b)- Pra, nuk do të vish sonte?

a) -Më vjen keq.

The conclusion is closely related to the effect he is busy and cannot come, although not expressed by the previous speaker, the second speaker ask for the consequences of the not denoted fact, so the conclusion is drawn from the previous act of speaking.

a) – Give me that hammer!

b) –So, you are in charge here?

a) – Më jep çekiçin!

b) –Pra, ti je në detyrë këtu?

In this case according to the hierarchical position can be given some orders and ironic conclusion of the B reflects the ordinary condition that the orders are given by a person who has a certain position.

Van Dijk shows that specific characteristics of the causal implications is because of the implicit presence and empiric laws or of the regular propositions expressed by: because, therefore, so, for, since etc.

A) It has been a very hot summer; therefore the crop has been destroyed.

Ka qenë një verë e nxehtë, prandaj të korrat janë dëmtuar.

B) Because it has been a very hot summer, the crop has been destroyed.

Sepse ka qenë një verë e nxehtë, të korrat janë dëmtuar.

C) Yesterday it was very hot, therefore we went to the beach.

Dje ishte shumë nxehtë, prandaj shkuam në plazh.

D) I bought a new trunk, because I am going on vacation tomorrow.

Unë bleva një kamion të ri sepse do të shkoj me pushime nesër.

In the examples above the connectives are true in the real world because are given in: past tense (because it was a hot summer), present tense (therefore we went to the beach) and future tense (because I am going on vacation tomorrow).

In the first two sentences we have a denotation of facts by the previous sentence, facts that are causally linked to the facts denoted by the successor.

To realize the causal relationship under the condition of the truth of the previous sentence, it grants or do not denies the truth of following sentence. So we can analyze the following sentence that represents the conclusion or cause, as it is given in following example:

- This is a lump of sugar, therefore it will dissolve if put in water.
- Kjo është një petë sheqeri si pasojë (prandaj) do të shkrihet nëse e vendos në uji.

In the case of the semantic so, it denotes facts related to the real world, if is a conditional which in this case of causal relationship it "picks" the possible word or situation in which the following sentence is asked to be true.

In the contrast to the general logical analysis, we take if as general modal conditional, so it has a conditional relation of the facts, then at the same time if shows the relationship that remains only in a specific world.

¹ www.discourses.org/oldarticles/ Pragmatic Conectives.pdf Page 454.

In this sense *if* is a modal operator. Dijk specifies that this analysis with descriptive and formal details which will be removed below will give the pragmatic functions of *if*.

a) If you're hungry. There is some ham in the fridge.

Nëse je i uritur. Ka proshutë në frigorifer.

b) Take that one. If you want my advice.

Merr atë nësë më dëgjon.

c) You look fine if I may say so.

Dukesh mirë, nëse mund të them.

The logical analysis of *if* can be a basis for such examples. In a probably *if* is closer to semantic use. In the case of b the second sentence gives a non written permit (indirectly) ("You may take ..."). The first sentence gives the situation of a permit which can be equal to ("In case you are hungry").

In the example given we can say that Dijk concludes that the conditional *if* is connected to real facts, facts that bring us to causal relationships because the fact brings the condition: "If you are hungry you can get something ..." the fact brings us to the condition, the fact brings to us the consequence and the cause of getting something to eat when you are hungry".

Conclusions

The scholar Dijk has given a new nuance of connectors by approaching the difference they have in semantic and pragmatic meaning. Even though it is not easy to define each case, based on the denoted facts we can analyze the pragmatic and semantic connectors. Real facts contribute in giving cause-effect sentences, we come to conclusions derived by the previous sentence or even text, facts that can be given or understood by the speaker in a speech act.

Biography

Martinet, A. (1974). *Elemente te gjuhesise se pergjithshme*. Prishtine.

Malmberg, B. (1969). *La linguistica contemporanea*. Roma,

Dijk, T. (1977). *Connectives in Text Grammar and Text Logic*. van Dijk/ Petöfi: *Grammar and description studies in text theory and text analyses*. Berlin, New York:de Gruyter.

Dijk, T. (1979). *Pragmatic Connectives*. Journal of Pragmatics 3. North Holland :Publishing Company.

Sapir, E (1921). *Language*. New York,

Newmeyer, F. (*1980). *Linguistic theory in America*. New York.

Robins, H. (1964). *General Linguistics*. Longman.

O" Grady- Dobrovolsky. (1987) *Contemporary linguistic analysis*. Clarck Pitman Ltd.

Robinson. (1973) *The new grammarian's funeral*. Cambridge Un. Press.

www.discourses.org/oldarticles/ Pragmatic Conectives.pdf

Causative Sentence Characteristic's Based on Its Semantic-Structure

Fabiana Velencia

"Aleksander Xhuvani" University, Albania

Abstract

The paper discusses the basic characteristics of the causative connectors based on the Albanian scholars. The Albania scholar Floqi has divided in seven types the causative sentence characteristic's based on its semantic-structure: a) direct causative sentences; b) argumentative causative sentences of conclusion; c) argumentative causative sentences of order; d) causative sentences of conditional saying; e) additional and middle causative sentences; f) evaluative causative sentences; g) feelings (emotional) causative sentences. The causative sentences are grouped based on the connector that connects the two sentences, one of the sentences is the main one and the other is the subordinate one.

- 1- Causal sentences linked with the connector se (that, but)
- 2- Causal connectors pse (wherefore) less used nowadays
- 3- The causal connector që (that) can be substituted with se (that)
- 4- The causal connector sepse (because) can give all the nuances of the cause
- 5- The connectors: se, sepse, që (that, because, that...) in the spoken language are parallel.

The second part of the article analyses the type of the given connectors taken in an artistic book.

Keywords: causative connectors, Albanian language, types, characteristics.

Introduction

Authors who have studied causal conjunctions in Albanian are: Sheperit, Xhuvani, Rrota, Cipo, Domi, Floqi etc. According Sheperit' the most used conjunctions in causal statements are (than (se), that(që)) and locutions or phrases (for that, for as much as, as), (since), the author states that the causal relationship may also be provided via time conjunction.

While in his paper Floqi quotes some nuances of the causal clauses:

1- "The conjunction uniting two sentences in a period in which it is set an object relationship rich of cause nuances. This occurs when the main verb of the sentence shows an internal state, a feeling. The subordinate sentence shows the cause of the new cause in this case is the sheer of mixed relations of the object-causal, which has a great importance for the structure and the value of constitution".

2- "Keywords can express a desire, a wish, etc., and then the subordinate sentence expresses the motive, the reason for which the congratulation is said."

3- "When the main sentence is an interrogative sentence, the subordinate sentence expresses that fact, rise, cause due to the effect of which is asked through the main sentence.

4- "When the main period opens with an interrogative sentence that has the necessary structural pronoun element ç' (what) inquiring after which comes the main verb have at various tense (usually the present tense) subordinate sentence with the conjunction that shows the fact, phenomena, real state that inspire the question", in this case the question requires the because that brings the consequence and the author quotes" main clause- interrogative sentence requires the knowledge on the cause that had brought consequences expressed in the subordinate sentence.

¹ Sheperi, I. (1927). Gramatika dhe sintaksa e gjuhës shqipe. Vlore. Page 193.

In 1952 Cipo¹ wrote that the causal sentence indicates reason why resembles a work which has to do the causal sentence, but Floqi mention that explanatory causal sentence is when it shows the reason that something happened [...] and verbs that are followed by causative sentences, especially verbs that show joy, sadness, anger, such as these: glad, angry, get angry, grieve, repent."

In addition in 1966 Floqi² realizes a study examining his previous works and represents the means by which is realized the causal sentence. The author distinguishes semantic- structural types of sentences connected with the conjunctions: that, though, because:

- a) direct causal sentences;
- b) argumentative causal sentences of conclusion;
- c) argumentative causal sentences of order;
- d) causal sentences of conditional saying;
- e) additional and middle causal sentences;
- f) evaluative causal sentences;
- g) feelings (emotional) causal sentences.

Let's analyze each of the cases.

In the first case the subordinate sentence is directly related to the cause, where the lecturer insists on the cause and the represents the cause as a real fact or an action, by denying a fact or action which is affirmed or rejected as a cause. (Some of the samples are taken from the novel "The general of the dead army" Ismail Kadare)

- 1- I help you, Sir, because you are brave.
- 2- Unë ju ndihmoj, mer zot, se ju jini trima.
- 3- You Hanko, that are so charming, do not walk in the graveyard, because with your beauty you revive the dead one. (Ismail Kadare:263)
- 4- Ti moj Hanko që je kaq simpatike, mos shëtit nëpër varre, se me bukurinë tënde i ngjall të vrrarët.

In the following question-answer example can be used three conjunctions that, though, when the conjunction because is used to emphasize and the conjunction that in the spoken language.

- 5- And you, Nasho – did you say to Myth, why you helped us?
- 6- Po ti, Nasho, - i the Mitit, pse na ndihmon neve?

In the case of argumentative causal sentences of conclusion, according to Floqi³ "the sentence is mainly related to the conjunction that (less with the conjunction 'why' 'because') it may contain a real fact (actually declared by the speaker, or a fact, a authoritarian historical record serving as argument, as a proof of conclusion, eventually brought to the main clause or sub clause, the subordinate sentence is always positioned after the main sentence dependent". This type of sentence where the subordinate sentence is connected to a real result as it rests on a witness or a real fact that is used as an argument or inference that appears in the main sentence.

7-The soldier was telling a comic story that the young was laughing and was holding his hips with hands.

8-Ushitari tregonte ndonjë histori për të qeshur se djali i ri zbardhte dhëmbët dhe mbante ijet me duar.

9-It was not possible to open a hole, that the hole will be filled with water ...(Kadare:217)

10-Nuk ishte e mundur të hapje gropë, se gropa mbushej përgjys me uji...

¹ Cipo, K. (1952). Sintaksa. Tiranë: Shtypshkronja "Mihal Duri",.Page 4.

² Floqi, S. (1996). Periudha me fjali të varur shkakore I. Studime filologjike N.2. Page 9.

³ Floqi, S. (1996). Periudha me fjali të varur shkakore I. Studime filologjike No.2. Page 15.

11-In the old times the principality of Arjans extended in the inside borders of Macedonia, that mentioned in the XII century an Albanian Komnen was the Lord of Prespa.

12-Në kohët e vjetra principata e Arjanitëve zgjatej gjër brenda në Maqedoni, se në shekullin e trembëlljetë përmendej një Komnen shqiptar si kryezoti i Prespës.

The interrogative argumentative causal sentences that is given in the dialogue Floqi cites" dependent sentence given with conjunctions that, though, because, after the main sentence can always justify or motivate a question, that may indicate why the question is asked. Based in the main goal off the sentence, the main statement is the proper interrogative sentence or interrogative-order sentence.

13-Is the source away that I am thirsty for a drop of water.

14-A është larg burimi se u dogja për një pikë uji.

15-Are you coming to give me a lift, why tomorrow I need to wait and still stay on the same point?

16-A më vjen sot përcillë, pse nesër po dal pres asajë shpi e po dal në vend teme?

The conjunction that, which is placed after the main sentence shows the speaker's motive to implement the order given in a sentence.

17- Come on, Vathi, though(that) it is nearly evening.

18-Shkojmë, Vathi, se po ngryset.

Another case of the use of the conjunction that in semantic use in this case the sentence is causal adds, giving the reason, an argument of usage in a sentence or compound words in the main or subordinate sentence.

19- This is the second Dogra, as the first was brought by Bey Memish.

Floqi brings the idea of argumentative causal sentences of conditional saying. When the subordinate sentence in our case located in the middle of sentence can show what with happen in the present tense or in the future (what happens or will happen when they do not consider what is said in the main sentence).

20 -You do not know nothing, that if you knew, did not accept to hunt today.

21 -S'e di hiç, se po ta dije, sot nuk veje për gjah.

In the example below we will give the use of tone in a sentence where the subordinate sentence linked with the main sentence (the tone is lower in the subordinate sentence linked with the conjunction that) contains a fact that becomes due in subordinate sentence. These sentences will be called intermediate causal sentences.

22- You were wrong that killed the mayor.

23-Bëtë gabim që e vratë prefektin.

The usage of compound words and other verbal expressions that express a feeling, based in Floqi's studies¹, give to us causal sentences of feeling: "A range of subordinate sentences that has no intention to indicate the real cause of an action, a process or to motivate a request or a question, but they intend to show the cause, the reason of a feeling, an internal state or its expression. "

24 -Aferdita enjoyed that was seeing uncle Nelo changed, ready renewed.

25- Afërdita gëzohej që po shikonte xha Nelon të ndryshuar, gati të përtërirë.

Floqi conclusions in this study are:

1- Causal sentence with the conjunction that(se) has to do with the entire main sentence in contrast to other types of sentences.

¹ Floqi, S. (1996). Periudha me fjali të varur shkakore I. Studime filologjike No.2. Page 41.

2- The conjunction though (pse) is less used, and can be used to give the answer because (although {edhe pse}).

3- The conjunction that (që) can replace that (se), these sentences are closely related to the main sentence and are post positive.

4- In the case of the conjunction because (sepse), we can say that cannot be used in intermediary sentences and can provide all the nuances of the cause.

5- In spoken language conjunctions that (se), because (spese) and that (që) have parallels and splicing and are becoming more and more in formative use.

Floqi deepen his study of the causal subordinate clauses that join with the main sentence with simple causal conjunctions, with conjunctive expression of cause, linking words that have the sense of cause.

a) A group of conjunctive expression with the nuance of cause: that (nga që), of that (nga se), for that (prej se), from the work that (nga puna që), from work that (nga puna se), due to the fact that (nga shkaku që), due to the case that (nga shkaku se), because (për arsye se), for the reason that because (për arsye që), which can be substituted for the work that (për punën që), the fact that (për faktin që). In this case the subordinate sentence submits a fact that definitely shows the cause.

b) Another group with causal conjunctive phrases that gives a fact which can be either in the main clause or subordinate one, a fact which is taken into account in a drawing conclusion. Expression: by considering the work that (duke marrë parasysh punën se), given the fact that (duke marrë parasysh faktin se), considering that (duke marrë parasysh se). Moreover Floqi¹ states: "These conjunctive expressions have in common the fact that they have in their morphological composition, a part of the other elements, preposition (or prepositional phrase of cause that expresses these prepositions, the conjunctive expressions can be divided into two groups:

1- Conjunctive expression with the preposition of (nga) and from (prej)

2- Conjunctive expression with the preposition to (për).

Special nuances of cause are given by the preposition of (nga){and from {prej}} through a fact that is cause as starting point of another fact "on the other hand with the preposition for the nuance of the reason has to do with the origin - object, which is reinterpreted as a link of cause. "

In the case of the conjunctive expression of that (nga që), is given the starting point or origin of the causal in the subordinate sentence based on Floqi's studies.

The third singular, based to the two other cases has a wider use in Albanian language. This is because the third singular has three gender that of male, female and not given gender.

/ Son / He spoke even with the old women in this way, she strongly encouraged him some more, since she also took positive words by him.

/Djali/ Foli edhe me plakën kështu, e ajo e nxite ca më fort atë, nga që edhe ajo mirte darova prej tij.

The sentence with the conjunction of that (nga që) and from that (prej se) can be placed in three positions at the start of the main sentence, at the end or in the middle of it; whenever the sentence has nothing to do with feelings on the contrary is only positioned after the main sentence.

Moreover Floqi do not bring any difference with the conjunctive of that (nga se) and of that (nga që) by the contrast he calls those synonymous. The conjunction that (se) can be preceded by the preposition from (prej) and give us conjunctive phrase from that (prej se) where the sentence gives the idea of the baseline or the background.

-The case is the use after the main clause:

Leka felt no joy of the beauty that had surrounded him, since (from that) (prej se) his mind was summarized in a single decision.

¹ Floqi, S. (1996). Periudha me fjali të varur shkakore I. Studime filologjike No.2. Page 56

Leka nuk ndjente në veti gëzimin e bukurinave që e kishin rrethue, prej se mëndja e tij ishte e përmbledhur në një vendim të vetëm.

- The case is the use in the middle of the main clause:

When they saw the two friends of Dedalis, that the work was ok, since (from that) (prej se) they rampage, they went to the kind and told everything.

Kur panë dy shokët e Dedalis, se i shkoj puna mbarë, prej se e kishin inat, shkuen te mbreti e i thanë.

- The case is in front of the main clause:

The boy, since (from that) (prej se) he had no solution, he gave his faith to the Lord, that he will do everything he orders to him.

This conjunction is limited in use and we can find mainly in GEG dialect.

Another expression that is a limited speech and in Mallakastra region: Floqi presents from work that (nga puna që), which it is considered to be transparent morphological structure:

- In speech: preposition from + NAME work + conjunction that

- In writing: preposition from + NAME cause (reason) + conjunction that

For example:

This is the reason that (nga shkaku që) people depress peace, that statesmen, politicians, they disclose from time to time ...

Kjo vjen nga shkaku që popujt dëshpërojnë paqe, që burrat e shtetit, politikanët, u servirin kohë mbas kohe....

To the word, when the bishop sent, the exile to the Monastery of Pojanit, from work that did not want to beg the Lord ...

Që të nga fjalën, kur e dërgoj peshkopi, syrgjyn në Manastirin e Pojanit, për punë se s'deshi t'i lutej Zotit...

According to Floqi the conjunction of cause explanation are: with that since, that was it, it was that, given that, since that, because with, was that, by being that, and considering that.

Below are given some examples in different sentences.

-Pjeter, since that he did two hours of sleep. (...) entered the café, refreshed.

-Pjetri, me që kishte bërë dy orë gjumë. (...)hyri në kafene, esëll fare.

-We could not understand. It was that as the father said, he should be the person.

-Asgjë s'kuptonim. Po me që ashtu thosh babai, ai duhej të ishte.

The subordinate sentence could be positioned: at the beginning, the end or in the middle of the main sentence. According Floqi the causal sentence that is linked with the conjunction (since that) can be positioned in front of the main sentence.

- Do we know why are we gathered here today?

- Since that you do not know, the mayor is going to explain this.

In addition, he adds that the conjunctive was that since, it is imposed after the main sentence and it is divided by a comma. But today these expressions are substituted with that and being that. These conjunctives are used more in scientific and legal materials, they give the fact and in the main sentence is a cause to come in a conclusion.

Floqi brings some tools in order to highlight the cause; the subordinate sentence is placed after or in the middle of the main sentence.

a) Part defining + connector

Exactly + why
+ because

or

b) Conjunctions +defining part + conjunction

and + exactly + though
+ because

For example:

There he would get spoiled tanks, gloomy, silent (,) and exactly why he is silent, speaks.

Floqi mentioned correlative verbs so (andaj), therefore (prandaj), associated with that (se) either because (sepse). Causal sentence can also be provided with the conjunction

As I had trusted you (,) I opened my heart.

That is serious, so the priest dresses in black.

As in the given examples above the causal subordinate sentence leads the main one.

War is the natural state of this country . Therefore those in war are cruel , dangerous and do more than is needed . (Kadare:43)

Lufta është gjëndje natyrale e këtij vendi. Prandaj ato në luftë janë të egër , të rrezikshëm dhe bëjnë më tepër seç duhet. Everything was there, and all knew it , because it was inevitable. (Kadare: 254)

Gjithçka ishte atje, dhe të gjithë e dinin, sepse ishte e pashmangshme.

The general, stood up, because he felt that the woman was searching for him. (Kadare: 229)

Gjenerali, u ngrit në këmbë, sepse e ndjeu që grua kërkonte atë.

Conclusion

As a conclusion the basic characteristics of the causative connectors are analyzed based on the Albanian scholars. The author, Floqi, distinguishes semantic-structural types of sentences connected with the causal conjunctions. Moreover, what is an important role of the causal conjunction is the position given of the subordinate sentence and the main one.

The studies of Floqi bring the idea of argumentative causal sentences of conditional saying. When the subordinate sentence in our case located in the middle of sentence can show what with happen in the present tense or in the future. On the other hand, the usage of compound words and other verbal expressions that express a feeling, based in Floqi's studies, give to us causal sentences of feeling.

Biography

- Gleason, B. (1989). *The development of language*. Maxwell and McMillan.
Cipo, K. (1952). *Sintaksa*. Tiranë: Shtypshkronja "Mihal Duri".
Chomsky, N. (1976). *Reflections of Language*. Gunderson and Maxwell.
Floqi, S. (1996). *Periudha me fjali të varur shkakore I*. Studime filologjike No.2
Sosyr , F.(1977). *Kurs I gjuhësisë së pergjithshme*. Prishtine.
Holliday, K. (1973). *Exploration in the Function of language*. Edward Arnold
Hudson, R. (1966). *Word Grammar*. Basil Blackwell.
Jakobson, R. (1966). *Saggi di Linguistica Generale*. Milano.
Jacobson R. and Halle, M. (1966). *Fundamentals of language*. Mouton, L'Aja.
Sheperi, I .(1927). *Gramatika dhe sintaksa e gjuhës shqipe*. Vlore.

The Importance of Social Participation in Creating Memorials

Katarzyna Witasiaak,

Lodz University of Technology

Abstract

The paper shows the importance of memory in architecture and how social participation influence the formation of cultural memory. The article examines the issue of the importance of memory and how the popular culture coexists with highly symbolic places. The research will be conducted on the case of the "Memorial to the Murdered Jews of Europe" in Berlin, built by architect Peter Eisenman. The aim of the paper is to show that architecture of memorials restores ideas and messages to protect the community from future mistakes. Social participation supports shaping public spaces and thus participates in the creation of the memory of culture. Article points out that creating memorials is connected with a great responsibility, because they strongly affect our memory and guide future generations.

1. The Role of Memorials

There is a category of places like memorials, where we can return with our feelings to the dawn of history, to the very beginning. Pierre Nora can be regarded as a precursor of the research on "places of memory". In his article titled: "Mémoire collective" in the early seventies Nora postulated the need for research on places of memory. The author defined them in many ways but the most important is the fact that those places communities like a nation, ethnic group or a party, consider memorial spaces to be an integral part of their personality [1]. An important category of memorials are concentration camps. Contemporary school programs also devote their paragraphs to the concepts of such places. Their analysis can be the opportunity for critical reflection and it can protect young people from making big mistakes in the future. The architecture of the memory places is important motive in educational system. The crucial role in creating memorials should be played by committees and social participation, which can support shaping public spaces and contribute to the formation of collective memory. A great dialogue in different social environments preceded the creation of the Memorial to the Murdered Jews of Europe in Berlin, were designer Peter Eisenman was under enormous responsibility to create a place of universal narrative. In 1989 Lea Rosh initiated the idea of building the central monument which was associated to the challenging aspect of painful subject and the location in the German capital - Berlin [2].

2. Social Participation

Initially the idea of creating the Memorial to the Murdered Jews of Europe met with the acceptance from the residents of the city after a public consultation. This fact resulted in the creation of the Social Committee which proposed the site location of the monument to the north of the former offices of Reich Chancellor at the former Ministerial Gardens. In 1995, the board of administration of the city of Berlin announced a public art competition, which resulted in receiving 500 works. The first concepts, however, were met with a negative reception from the German public opinion. The initial favorite work of the jury was a gigantic tombstone adorned with boulders, which the author intended to bring from Masada, a place of a collective suicide of defenders of the ancient Jewish fortress. The names of the victims would have been engraved on the raised panel. A part of a Jewish community was against this concept in the reference to the protection of personal data and the distant relevance to the fortress acquired by the Romans[3]. The strong voice from the public which revealed the negative opinion about creating the monument and suggested that compensation should have been paid for the victims from Eastern Europe that survived and were alive at the beginning of the project's debate. At this moment satisfactory dialogue in public consultations was not achieved.

3. The Concept of the Holocaust Memorial

In 1998, there was a second competition for the Holocaust Memorial in Berlin which was won by American duo Peter Eisenman and Richard Serra, which was selected during a public debate. At the request of a German Chancellor, the project had to be modified, taking into account the creation of the underground museum, reducing the number of steles and planting trees on the edge of the project's site. Finally the last of the above-mentioned changes was implemented against the will of the creator of the project. As a result of imposing visions by the of Richard Serra resigned after a year in protest of the necessity creating new versions of the project [4].

In 1999, after a series of exhibitions the German Bundestag chose the project created by Peter Eisenman. The design presented the field of blocks which were arranged along undulating lines. It was the second concept, which was eventually completed with an information point [4]. According to the initiators the Memorial was to remind a Jewish cemetery, where the sarcophaguses are being stacked on one another, because of the lack of space and create a high stone blocks with a flat top. The designer himself differently interpreted his concept, which did not show clear symbols. According to Eisenman, the field of memory is silent. The lack of security and loneliness filled the atmosphere of memorial. Labyrinth impotence, enslavement by the loss of orientation and the feeling of interrupted history have a strong impact on the visitors. According to Eisenman's maze it is the only architectural metaphor for the "non-place". Jacques Derrida in an interview with the author of the monument mentioned that the structure of the maze is created by the hope of getting out of it [5].

Critics of this structure claimed that the stories of the victims would be suppressed by the Abstract concept. This fact forced the author to rearrange his labyrinth and decrease the scale of concrete blocks, which would give the opportunity to observe the surrounding city.

4. A New Era of Monuments.

The idea of the memorial emphasized differences in the attitude of society and how important is social consultation and participation. The question of a central symbol of remembrance of the victims in the capital of Germany touched the most sensitive places of the nation. The division of public opinion was caused not only by the idea of building the monument, but also by the form and ideological, moral and artistic associations. There were doubts whether a monumental form in the center of the capital would not revive the neo-Nazi movement. Some people saw in the monument the opportunity to deepen sensitivity and knowledge about the Holocaust, while others feared that the monument would release from responsibility for the difficult past and would create only the illusion of shared memory.

The field of blocks designed by the architect Eisenman intended to encourage a radical debate on typical existing forms of monuments and developing a new idea of remembrance which shapes the culture of memory. This involves not only the aesthetic dimension, but also the effort to answer the question: is it possible to reach the imagination of future generations without witnesses of National Socialism.

5. Valorization Stage of the Scheme Ladder of Social Participation.

Public presentation of the models of competition projects, public debates, the creation of a Social Committee seemed to be right, but turned out to be only a small step directed towards full social participation. Considering the collected data, the level of consultation did not reach the form of a full partnership, which evoked a sense of fiction in the social decision-making. The idea of constructing the monument was a difficult matter where the assumption of social participation easily underwent fragmentation associated with the political, ideological, ethnic oppositions. An important role was played by the "Social Committee for the Construction of the Memorial to the Murdered Jews of Europe", created by the journalist Lea Rosh and historian Eberhard Jackel. To this day, the committee raises funds to create more space for names and information about the murdered Jews. One of the important roles of the Committee during the construction was its complete openness and willingness to listen to citizens' opinions and to answer questions. This action reflected the character of tokenism associated with the social participation's ladder. This form provided information, but did not let people make decisions. It is worth noting, however, that at the very beginning the idea of creating a social committee to build a central place of Memory to the Murdered Jews of Europe, came out from the citizens' initiative in 1988. Today marks 11 years since the creation of this extraordinary Memorial created in 2005. Seemingly limited in decision-making a group of citizens has become the initiator of the successful idea and maybe reached the top of the ladder of participation in this context. The voice of citizens and their main idea was finally heard and implemented. A common dialogue and remembrance of history on the occasion of such initiatives emphasize the desire to give the human dimension to the future.

References

1. Szczepociński A. (2008). Miejsca pamięci - lieux de mémoire, *Teksty Drugie 4*, (pp.11-20) Warszawa: IBL PAN
2. Voegeli F. (2003). *Architektur als Mittel zur Machtausübung. Eine Untersuchung anhand dreier Beispiele*, Zürich: HKG.
3. Lesser G. (2000). Kłopoty z pamięcią, *Jak oni mogą tu żyć*, 2 (6), Warszawa: Biblioteka Midrasza, Retrieved from <http://www.midrasz.pl>
4. *Spółeczny Komitet wspierania budowy miejsca pamięci zamordowanych Żydów Europy* (2008), Retrieved from <https://www.holocaust-denkmal-berlin.de/fileadmin/medias/Downloads/pl-foerderkreis.pdf>
5. Kaplan B.A. (2007). *Unwanted Beauty: Aesthetic Pleasure in Holocaust Representation*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press

Theory of Architectural, Social Participation and “Contact” by Robert Zemeckis

Karol Wyszacki

Lodz University of Technology

Abstract

The paper shows the importance of memory in architecture and how social participation influence the formation of cultural memory. The article examines the issue of the importance of memory and how the popular culture coexists with highly symbolic places. The research will be conducted on the case of the "Memorial to the Murdered Jews of Europe" in Berlin, built by architect Peter Eisenman. The aim of the paper is to show that architecture of memorials restores ideas and messages to protect the community from future mistakes. Social participation supports shaping public spaces and thus participates in the creation of culture. Article points out that creating memorials is connected with a great responsibility, because they strongly affect our memory and guide future generations.

Keywords: labyrinth, memorial, social participation, architecture

1. Introduction

In this article I will try to examine the description of architectural, social participation presented in the famous science fiction movie "Contact" by Robert Zemeckis, which was based on a novel by Pulitzer Prize winner, Carl Sagan.

I will use one of the most popular social participation models, "The ladder of citizen participation" by Sherry R. Arnstein. Before we will analyse the process of portal construction, I will briefly explain the idea of social participation in the field of architecture.

2. Architectural Democracy and Architectural Tyranny

At the time when human kind was approaching the renaissance period a significant change has taken place in the world of building construction. The architects stopped being anonymous and their names started to be associated with the work they created. For example one of the first well-known architects of the era in my homeland, Poland, was named Henryk Brunsberg (Gierke, 2015).

We can perceive this moment of time as a beginning of monarchy or dictatorship in the architectural world - one person started to rule, control and be responsible for the whole construction process. With an approval of an investor the architect could do whatever he wanted.

However, soon people started to realise, that many other people may be interested in the form of the new building. For example a neighbour from the other side of the road will soon look at the new facade every day, so his opinion should be taken into consideration, when designing its shape. An ecologist will be interested in preserving a large tree which grows in the middle of the designed building. The city president has always wanted to build a new road, which would pass the property. Social participation is about listening to and trying to reconcile all these people.

The amount of ideas and problems is as large as the planned construction process. The movie I am going to talk about is telling a story of the biggest construction in the history of mankind. Therefore the director could not resist the temptation to beautifully paint the social background of the investment.

3. The Plot

A young female scientist is analysing radio - signals which come to our planet from different places in the universe. The research leads to the discovery, that one of the transmissions contains plans of a mysterious building.

Is this giant construction of unknown origin a trojan horse or a part of a communicational system, which will help to accelerate the development of the Earth's technology? The people decide to check this in an empirical way.

4. The Ladder of Citizen Participation

When we think about the story in the context of the Sherry R. Arnstein theories we can perceive the construction of the portal as the process of climbing the "ladder of citizen participation". The involvement of people grows as the building takes its shape.

Shortly after the discovery we can see the non-participatory processes. For example the idea of concealing the message from the stars can be regarded as a manipulation. However, many scientists are against this way of thinking - the building plans were surely given to the whole human kind.

The next step on the ladder of citizen participation is called "the therapy". When politicians and scientists inform the people about the forthcoming construction, they try to convince them that it is extremely important.

The research facility starts to be surrounded by the people, who want to take part in this extraordinary discovery. Some of them are for and some against the experiment. The most controversial aspect is connected with selecting the person, who will pass the portal - the one which will be a representative of the whole human kind. The committee, which is formed on the basis of the partnership (the sixth step on the ladder of Citizen Participation) creates a kind of casting and finally finds an appropriate candidate.

When the construction is completed and the experiment is about to begin, social participation reaches the highest possible level. "Citizen control" leads to the tragedy - the opponents of the project take control of the experiment and the construction is destroyed.

In my opinion this point in the screenplay shows a critical diagnosis of the social participation ideas. As we can see social disapproval may lead to the failure of one of the greatest chances of mankind.

However, despite the collapse of democratically created construction the experiment is still possible - it can be conducted in a twin copy of the portal, which was built secretly by the government on a far-away island. The justice, which is a feature of projects created with the help of citizen participation is compared with the effectiveness of those built without it.

Can we agree, that in certain circumstances, social participation can be regarded as something negative?

5. Critical look on the social participation

In the history of my country the democratic rule of "Liberum Veto" - according to many historians - has weakened Poland's political position (Jasienica, 1988). Similarly the above mentioned portal did not bear the discrepancy of views and opinions.

Can we blame the authorities, that the second construction was created with the lack of social participation? Are they justified by their faith in the meaning of the experiment?

Apparently in the history of democracy we can find many examples of decisions, which served social justice but were made in a way which could not be regarded as democratic. It was proven that Abraham Lincoln used bribery and traded positions in order to impose the thirteenth amendment to the constitution of United States, which illegalised slavery (Foner, 2010).

In Poland one of the biggest national holidays is the third of May - the day, when the country imposed the second constitution in the world. However, not all the people know, that in order to achieve this success work on the document was kept in secret (Foner, 2010) and during the vote political opposition was cheated and kept guarded (Adamkiewicz, 2012).

If a man believes strongly in an idea, but knows that in order to achieve the goal he has to violate the rules of democracy - what should he do? Do the ends justify the means? How far in marginalising the role of social participation can the authorities go, when working on the project of high economic, scientific or aesthetic value?

All these questions can only be left unanswered. However, there is one particular problem, which the movie tries to solve at its very ending. It can be stated in a following way: what should we do to make the freedom, democracy and social participation possible? To show the intentions of the director we will have to analyse one of the most interesting threads of the movie - the relation between science and religion.

6. Science and Religion

In the background of the main, science - fiction action we can find a love story between Ellie Arroway, an earlier mentioned female researcher who is an atheist and Palmer Joss, a theologian who is a would-be priest. Their discussions, which are a confrontation of scientific and emotional way of thinking, become surprisingly important in the context of the ending of "Contact".

The portal experiment finally takes place. The heroine has an interesting vision of meeting alien life forms, as she falls in special capsule between rotating rings. However, her cameras do not record any image. Arroway, who cannot show material evidence of the adventure must refer to the criteria of faith and trust - what unexpectedly helps her understand Palmer Joss.

In my opinion the message of the movie can be analysed in the context of the topic of this article. Social participation is a great idea as long as we will try to understand the beliefs of other people, who take part in the negotiations. An attempt to perceive the disputed matters from our opponents' point of view not only can help us find the best solution to the problem, but also begin a new friendship.

7. Conclusion

To sum up, "Contact" by Robert Zemeckis can be read as a critical essay on the topic of social participation in the world of architecture. Although the reflection is rather pessimistic a careful audience may also see the final, hidden message of tolerance and brotherhood.

References

Adamkiewicz, Sebastian (2012), *Konstytucja 3 maja – wola narodu czy zamach stanu?*, available online on 30.01.2016: <http://histmag.org/Konstytucja-3-maja-wola-narodu-czy-zamach-stanu-6646>

Arnstein, Sherry R. (1969), *A Ladder of Citizen Participation*, JAIP, Vol. 35, No. 4, p. 216-224

Foner, Eric (2010) *The Fiery Trial: Abraham Lincoln and American Slavery*. New York & London: W. W. Norton & Company.

Gierke Michał (2015), *Innowacja i tradycja. Henryk Brunsberg i późnogotycka architektura ceglana Pomorza i Brandenburgii*, Stowarzyszenie Historyczno-Kulturalne „Terra Incognita”, Chojno, Deutsches Kulturforum östliches Europa e.V

Innes Judith E., Booher David E. (2000), *Public Participation in Planning: New Strategies for the 21st Century*, IURD Working Paper Series, Institute of Urban and Regional Development, UC Berkeley

Jasienica, Paweł (1988), *Polska anarchia*, Kraków, Wydawnictwo Literackie

Kallas, Marian, (2011) *Konstytucja 3 Maja*, available online on 30.01.2016: <http://edukacja.sejm.gov.pl/historia-sejmu/polskie-konstytucje/konstytucja-3-maja.html>

Kontakt (1997) - movie, dir. Robert Zemeckis, Warner Home Video

Labour Mobility Within the Eu: Major Effects and Implications for the Main Sending and Receiving Economies

Noja Gratiela Georgiana, PhD, Lecturer

PhD Cand. Moroc Andrei

West University of Timisoara, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Romania

Abstract

The paper aims to analyse the effects induced by labour mobility within the European Union, focusing both on emigration and immigration effects for major sending and host economies in terms of the overall economic activity, empowering the business enterprise sector and labour market, as well as on economic (labour force) and non-economic (humanitarian, asylum seekers) migration. Labour mobility within the European Union is an important coordinate of the economic integration process and one of the freedoms granted to the member states, with significant consequences upon their economies. Nevertheless, the international labour migration mainly resides from wage differentials, working conditions or opportunities between sending and host economies, thus proving to be an important symbol of global economic inequality. Taking into consideration all these aspects, our analysis is based on developing various double-log fixed (LSDV) and random (ECM) effects models, using a panel structure that covers five main EU destination countries and ten New EU Member States, respectively a complex set of indicators compiled during 2000-2014 and 2006-2015. The models are processed through OLS and GLS methods of estimation, as well as by using the correlated panels corrected standard errors (PCSE) method, being completed by in-sample and out-of-sample predictions. The results show that immigration flows have important economic consequences leading to significant changes in labour market performances both for natives and foreign population (decreases in employment rates and lowering wage levels). Still, one of the most important positive effects of immigration reflected by the results obtained is represented by an increase in the number of innovative enterprises in the host country, thus confirming the theories linking migration to innovation. In terms of labour emigration, there is evidence to attest that it generates positive effects on the main sending economies from Central and Eastern Europe on the GDP per capita, earnings and exports, especially through remittances, but the overall negative impact is predominant.

Keywords: international migration, economic integration, innovation, employment, economic growth

JEL Classification: F22, F63

1 Introduction

Europe is facing nowadays one of the major challenges induces by international migration, a major frontier of globalization. Labour mobility within the EU is an important coordinate of the economic integration process and one of the four freedoms granted to the member states, with significant consequences (both positive and negative) upon their economies. Thus, the EU tends to be divided into two main areas in terms of migration (economic and humanitarian), respectively the New Member States (EU-13, since 2004, 2007 and 2013), as migrant sending countries, and the Old Member States (EU-15), most of them being migrant receiving countries or host economies (especially Germany in absolute terms, Austria and Sweden relative to their population, along with Italy and Spain even though with a slight decrease compared to previous years, but still among the top destinations especially for the emigrants coming from Central and Eastern Europe).

Thus, most countries from Central and Eastern Europe are labour exporting economies, Romania and Poland having a large stock of emigrants, respectively a major part of their labour force (especially highly skilled labour) is working outside their borders, thus inducing significant economic consequences. At the same time, Bulgaria, Slovak Republic and Lithuania have registered in 2015 large emigrant stocks. Still, on the other hand, if we analyse the entries of money sent by the

emigrants back to their families in the source country, we can observe that Hungary, Czech Republic, Lithuania and Romania have also registered large levels of remittances.

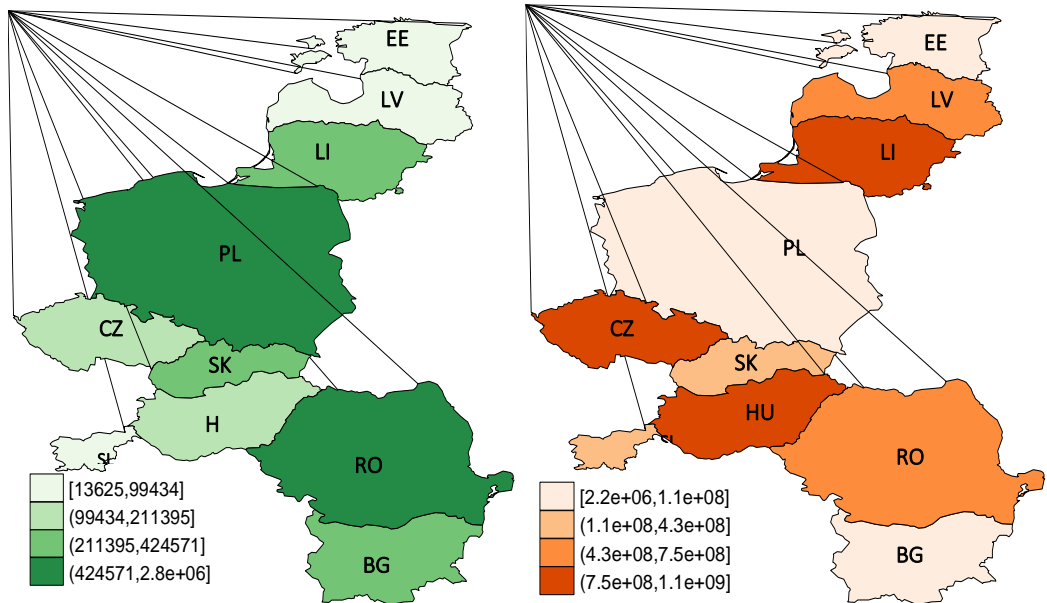


Figure 1: Stock of emigrants (left) and remittances (right) for the main sending countries from Central and Eastern Europe, 2015

Source: own process based on Brucker et al. (2009) and World Bank data through Stata 13

Thus, even though the stock of emigrants is extremely high in the case of Poland or Bulgaria, remittances are at a much lower level compared to other neighbouring migrant sending countries.

Therefore, not all of the migrant origin countries from Central and Eastern Europe are necessarily characterized by an equivalent, proportional, level of remittances with respect to the number of registered emigrants. Still, Romania tends to differentiate itself from this point of view, in 2015 registering both high levels of emigrants and associated high remittances.

At the same time, Romania and Bulgaria are confronting with very low per capita incomes, labour market imbalances (high unemployment rates and low employment growth rates), along with a high at-risk-of-poverty rate, remittances thus representing an important source of external financing with positive effects upon their economies and especially for the families back home in terms of income, consumption, savings and investment.

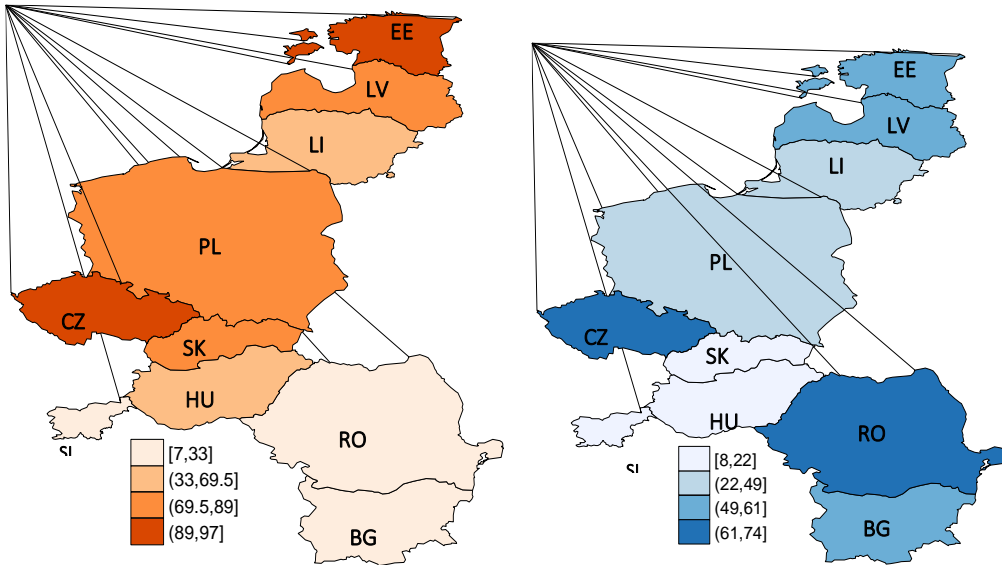


Figure 2: Per capita income (left) and at-risk-of-poverty rate (right) for the main sending countries from Central and Eastern Europe, 2015

Source: own process based on World Bank data through Stata 13

Moreover, according to Noja and Son (2016) the anxiety towards emigrants from Central and Eastern Europe in the context of the latest enlargements, mainly 2007 (Romania and Bulgaria) and 2013 (Croatia), but as well towards asylum seekers and refugees coming from Syria and other Arab countries, highlights the importance of international migration policies, along with accurate and efficient immigrants integration strategies defined by the main European destination countries (Germany, Austria, Sweden).

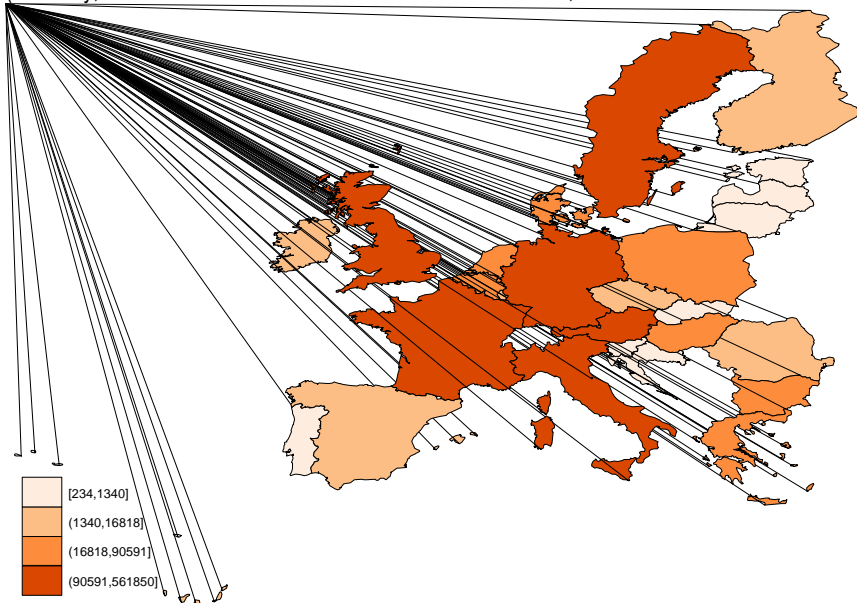


Figure 3: Total refugees and asylum seekers by country or territory**of asylum within the EU, mid-2015**

Source: own process based on UNHCR data through Stata 13

As in the case of previous refugee crises in the early 1990, the migration impact is cumulated in a few countries. Thus, across OECD, Turkey is the most affected, hosting at present approximately 1.9 million Syrians, mostly with a temporarily protective status, as well as a significant number of persons coming from Iraq. Moreover, other 300000 persons, mainly from Afghanistan, Iraq and Pakistan have an illegal residence in Turkey, waiting to transit towards the European Union to seek asylum. At the same time, more than 1.1 million Syrians find themselves in Lebanon, where the situation is increasingly uncertain, while a large number of refugees are in Jordan (about 630000) and Egypt (130000).

The large variety of migration corridors, migrant sending countries and migration motives shape this refugee crisis into one extremely difficult to approach and coordinate. Moreover, not only the fact that migrants came from various countries and territories of origin, but at the same time the main destination and asylum countries vary significantly across the EU. Thus, according to the OECD (2015) in Germany, during the first six months of 2015, Kosovo and Syria have each accounted 20% of the total asylum seekers, followed by Albania (15%). In Sweden, Syrians have represented 27% of total migrants, followed by Eritreans and Afghanis with few over 10%, while in Italy, Gambia was the first migrant sending country, followed by Senegal and Nigeria.

2 Literature Review on International Migration and Labour Market Interdependencies

The economic literature provides various theories and perspectives trying to explain international migration, both in terms of the migration decision and shaping factors of the migratory flows, and with respect to the economic consequences for migrant sending and receiving economies. Some of the most important approaches are the classical and neoclassical migration theories (mainly promoted by Lewis, 1954; Harris and Todaro, 1970; Massey *et al.*, 1993). The classical migration approach explains the fact that migration and capital movements are performed with a certain intensity due to wage differentials between two capitalist economies, one characterised through labour surplus and the other by capital surplus. On the other hand, in the neoclassical perspective migration represents a complex phenomenon which induces unbalances, the migratory flows seizing when the equilibrium is reached (Harris and Todaro, 1970, p. 129).

Goss and Lindquist (1995) suggest that international labour migration generates a competition between migrants, which will thus lead to a decrease in wage levels for capital plentiful regions. At the same time, remittances towards the origin country can alleviate inequalities and wage differences that induce international labour mobility.

Moreover, the theory of migrant networks highlights the fact that international migration tends to increase as result of the interpersonal connections established between migrants that link origin and destination countries, due to relatively lower costs and associated risks. As a representative of this theory, Taylor (1986) reveals one of the most important incentives for international migration within host economies, respectively the presence of interpersonal migrant networks.

As considering the both sides on international migration and the main research questions regarding the emigration impact on sending countries and immigration effects on native workers and host economies, there are various theories trying to solve these questions.

Krause *et al.* (2016) considered the labour market integration of migrants, focusing on the Single European Labour Market, its performances, risks and opportunities, as well as the importance and usefulness of European labour mobility. Thus, they performed an online study among labour market experts in Europe and concluded that most experts confirm the importance of a Single European Labour Market for improving the economic conditions, thus leading to welfare. Still, they seem to be uncertain about achieving these benefits. Moreover, in the case of EU labour mobility, the experts questioned by Krause *et al.* (2016) consider that the recognition of professional diplomas and qualifications, an optimization of the social security systems and over-passing the language barriers are some of the most important drivers to enhance labour mobility.

Bosetti *et al.* (2015) have analysed the interdependencies between highly skilled labour migration and innovation for a panel of 20 European economies during 1995-2008. Their empirical results suggest that a higher percentage of tertiary

educated migrants integrated into the host economies labour markets and holding a job that requires higher qualifications and studies is also associated with a higher degree of knowledge creation. Thus, the brain drain-brain gain theory tends to be also confirmed by the Bosetti *et al.* (2015) which conclude that highly skilled migration leads to knowledge creation and innovation (measured through the number of patent applications), as well as to an increase in the general public scientific research (measured by the number of citations in published articles). Within this perspective, Bosetti *et al.* (2015) mention that the overall political efforts performed under the framework of Europe 2020 strategy will contribute to enhancing EU's competitiveness in innovation.

At the same time, Ozgen (2015) assessed the labour immigration effects on the firm innovation process within Western Europe, focusing on the main influential channels. The author mentions that in most of the European countries the migrants have significantly diversified in terms of origin country, gender or educational level, all of these aspects generating major economic consequences on the innovation performance of firms, as well as on intra-firm diversity.

Moreover, in terms of the general welfare impact of international migration in EU countries, Aubry *et al.* (2016) have quantified the effects induced by international migration upon the living standards of natives. The authors have developed a model which takes into account the interactions between the labour market, fiscal and market size effects (such as changes in the variety of goods available for consumers) induced by migration, along with trade relations between countries. Their results highlight that recent migration flows have generated positive effects on 69% of the native population in 34 OECD member states, respectively for 83% of the natives from the 22 richest OECD economies.

The emigration approach focuses more on migration effects on labour market outcomes, unemployment and economic growth generated through remittances and household impacts on those left behind.

The large economic literature on the impact of labour emigration on migrant sending economies highlights that it significantly depends on the way the capital-labour ratio is affected related to the persons remaining in the origin country. Moreover, the emigration effects are extremely different from one socio-economic group to another. Thus, overall, emigration tends to have a positive impact on those remaining, by increasing the economic welfare and reducing income inequalities in migrant sending countries (Clemens, 2011; de Haas, 2010; Taylor *et al.*, 1996).

In Europe, Fertig and Kahanec (2015) have analysed the potential migration flows in the context of EU constant enlargement. Their results suggest that migration flows are largely shaped by policy variables and to a smaller extent by those economic and demographic. Thus, within the perspective of adopted and implemented migration policies, granting labour market free access to migrants by the hosting countries (Germany, Italy and Austria, in absolute terms and relative to their population) significantly increases the migration waves, especially on the short run.

3 Methodology and Data: Developed Models, Equations, Limits and Testing

3.1 General form of developed models

Our models follow the specific linear representation of the regression models with panel data, described by Baum (2001, p. 219) in order to properly analyse the emigration and immigration effects upon sending and receiving economies, configuration that was also used in previous researches (Son and Noja, 2012):

$$y_{it} = \sum_{k=1}^k x_{kit} \beta_{kit} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

$$i = 1, \dots, N \quad (1)$$

$$t = 1, \dots, T$$

where: N is the number of panel units (countries), while T represents the number of periods (time).

The *fixed effects model* or the *Least Squares Dummy Variable (LSDV) model* has the following representation (Baum, 2001, p. 220):

$$y_{it} = x_{it}\beta_k + z_i\delta + u_i + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (2)$$

where x_{it} is a $1 \times k$ vector of variables varying between countries and in time, β represents a $1 \times k$ vector of x coefficients, z_i is a $1 \times p$ vector of the variables that are constant in time, but vary between countries (as elements of the panel), δ represents a $p \times 1$ vector of z coefficients, u_i is the individual effects, for every element of the panel, and ε_{it} is the disturbance term.

The *random effects model* or the *Error Component Model (ECM)* has the following representation (Baum, 2001, p. 227):

$$y_{it} = x_{it}\beta + z_i\delta + (u_i + \varepsilon_{it}) \quad (3)$$

where: $u_i + \varepsilon_{it}$ represents the compounded disturbance term, and u_i reflects the individual effects.

The models developed in order to assess the immigration effects upon native workers and host country's labour market, including humanitarian migration, as well to evaluate the emigration impacts on sending economies, follow the specification of double-log simple and multiple regression models with panel data. These models were processed through OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) and GLS (Generalized Least Squares) methods of estimation in the case of fixed and random effects, respectively through the correlated panel corrected standard errors method (PCSE) method.

3.2 Variables and indicators used for the empirical analysis

In the analysis we focused on the international migration effects upon the general economic activity (economic growth, business enterprise sector, innovation) and labour market fundamentals (employment, employees with temporary contracts, earnings), respectively on the educational background (participation rate in education, upper-secondary and tertiary education) within the context of the globalization process and increased interdependencies between the economies globally.

We thus selected a large scale of indicators as proxy for the variables of developed models, ranging from the economic activity, labour market outcomes and education to various sides of the international migration process (immigration vs. emigration, labour vs. humanitarian migration), thus comprising:

i) international migration specific indicators: immigration flows and stocks, flows of refugees and asylum seekers, the stock of emigrants, remittances (mil. USD);

ii) economic activity and labour market indicators: total (mil. Euro) and per capita (Euro) GDP and the GDP per person employed (USD); employment and unemployment rates (%) –total, foreign population; part-time employment rate and temporary contracts; earnings by two-earner married couple with two children (Euro) and earnings dispersion among employees (Decile 9/ Decile 5), average annual wages (USD); the educational attainment (both general and vocational) through secondary and tertiary education levels (the highest ISCED - International Standard Classification of Education level successfully completed) and the participation rate in education covering participation in formal and non-formal education and training; at-risk-of-poverty rate; business enterprise statistics – number of enterprises, number of innovative enterprises, total business expenditures on research and development.

iii) the globalization process: KOF Index of Economic Globalization and the value added by foreign controlled enterprises as a share of total value added (foreign affiliate statistics); international trade (exports and openness degree) and international investment (inflows and outflows of foreign direct investment).

The panel structure covers five main EU destination countries (Germany, Austria, Sweden, Italy and Spain) and ten New EU Member States from Central and Eastern Europe (Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Czech Republic, Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia). Within the performed analysis we covered the 2000-2014 period of time for the immigration analysis and the 2006-2015 period for the emigration analysis due to differences in data availability and

used as main data sources the statistical database of the European Commission - Eurostat, the international migration database of OECD, World Bank – World Development Indicators and United Nations Database – UNHCR, ETH Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zurich, UNU WIDER World Income Inequality Database.

4 Results and Discussions

The empirical analysis of labour mobility in Europe has a double objective: (i) *first*, to assess the emigration process for considered sending countries from Central and Eastern Europe through identifying the main modellers of emigrant stocks (migration incentives/ decisions), as well as in terms of the economic consequences induced by emigration (through the loss of a significant part of the origin country's labour force and remittances); (ii) *second*, to evaluate the immigration effects (both economic and humanitarian) within the main EU destination countries and upon their natives in terms of wages, labour market performance and integration of immigrants, business sector development and innovation, openness degree.

Therefore, in the first stage of our empirical research we developed a set of five macroeconometric models, processed through random-ECM (model 1) and fixed-LSDV (model 2) effects (the Hausman test validated the results of the random effects models with a $\chi^2(6)=1.43$ and $\text{Prob}>\chi^2=0.9641$), two-stage (model 3) and three-stage (model 4) least squares regressions and correlated panels corrected standard errors (PCSE – model 5).

Table 1 Results of the models developed and processed for the analysis of emigration shaping factors

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	log_Emigrants	log_Emigrants	log_Emigrants	log_Emigrants	log_Emigrants
log_GDP_cap	0.0353 (0.0202)	0.0340 (0.0204)	-0.0345 (0.112)	-0.0345 (0.108)	-0.0345 (0.0904)
log_Temp_contr	-0.0810 (0.0469)	-0.0738 (0.0476)	-0.651*** (0.137)	-0.651*** (0.132)	-0.651*** (0.107)
log_Open_degre	0.714*** (0.0973)	0.700*** (0.101)	0.980*** (0.134)	0.980*** (0.130)	0.980*** (0.0633)
log_FDI_inward	0.343 (0.189)	0.373 (0.194)	0.317 (0.302)	0.317 (0.291)	0.317* (0.138)
log_Earnings	0.0958* (0.0372)	0.0979* (0.0376)	0.145 (0.134)	0.145 (0.129)	0.145 (0.123)
log_Poverty	-0.0778** (0.0300)	-0.0789* (0.0301)	0.355** (0.115)	0.355** (0.111)	0.355*** (0.0984)
_cons	3.322*** (0.954)	3.327*** (0.880)	1.142 (1.702)	1.142 (1.642)	1.142 (0.801)
N	100	100	100	100	100
R ²	0.3074	0.652	0.542	0.542	0.542

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: own process of panel data through Stata 13 econometric package

We selected several independent variables according to the relevant literature and constrained by low data availability which try to better capture the emigration incentives. Thus, the results obtained confirm the main migration decision theories, highlighting that the migrants primarily search for higher living standards abroad and better working conditions.

Basically, according to our results an increase in poverty rates in the origin country induces higher emigrant stocks (a 3.55% increase confirmed by three of the five methods of estimation used).

Moreover, the labour market fundamentals and flexibility measures used to increase employment reflected here through an increase in the number of persons employed on a temporary contracts basis represent a disincentive to migrate, thus reducing the size of the emigration stocks (by 0.651% also confirmed by three of the five methods of estimation used). Another important factor that can contribute to increased labour mobility in the present context of globalisation is the openness degree. Thus, higher openness degrees of migrant sending economies (in terms of exports and imports as percentage of the GDP) lead to an increase in the stock of emigrants for panel comprised economies.

Taking into consideration these aspects, we expanded our emigration analysis by considering its effects and thus developing a different set of eight simple regression models (one having as explanatory variable the stock of emigrants and the other remittances) processed through the correlated panels corrected standard errors (PCSE) method of estimation.

Table 2 Results of the models developed for the assessment of emigration impacts on sending economies

	(1) log_GDP_cap	(2) log_Export	(3) log_FDI_out	(4) log_Earnings
log_Emigrants	0.195*** (0.0260)	0.368*** (0.00671)	-0.419*** (0.0279)	0.0724 (0.0421)
_cons	1.023** (0.315)	6.079*** (0.110)	6.870*** (0.286)	2.755*** (0.516)
N	100	100	100	100
R ²	0.073	0.336	0.317	0.012
	(5) log_Empl_rate	(6) log_Temp_empl	(7) log_Poverty	(8) log_Edu_part
log_Emigrants	-0.274*** (0.0608)	-0.207*** (0.0290)	0.119*** (0.0216)	-0.00118 (0.0707)
_cons	6.729*** (0.701)	5.913*** (0.348)	1.956*** (0.282)	3.484*** (0.919)
N	100	100	100	100
R ²	0.190	0.111	0.033	0.000
	(1) log_GDP_cap	(2) log_Export	(3) log_FDI_out	(4) log_Earnings
log_Remittances	0.290*** (0.0730)	0.241*** (0.0533)	0.0326 (0.0336)	0.131*** (0.0340)
_cons	-2.310 (1.418)	5.815*** (1.050)	1.146 (0.656)	1.056 (0.694)
N	100	100	100	100
R ²	0.150	0.134	0.002	0.037
	(5) log_Empl_rate	(6) log_Temp_empl	(7) log_Poverty	(8) log_Edu_part
log_Remittances	-0.0620 (0.0550)	-0.00270 (0.0387)	0.0254 (0.0471)	-0.168*** (0.0463)
_cons	4.628*** (1.058)	3.459*** (0.745)	2.901** (0.948)	6.772*** (0.890)
N	100	100	100	100
R ²	0.009	0.000	0.001	0.055

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: own process of panel data through Stata 13 econometric package

The results highlight positive effects of emigration for migrant sending economies from Central and Eastern Europe only in terms of the overall economic activity (increases in the GDP per capita, level of household earnings through remittances, international trade operations).

There are significant negative effects on labour market outcomes (decreases in employment rates - both total and temporary employment), especially through the loss of a significant part of the labour force (mostly highly skilled labour), as well as on the educational background reflected by a reduction of the participation rate in education and training. Moreover, the results highlight that emigration tends to deepen the poverty levels by increasing the at-risk-of-poverty rates for considered economies.

From the immigration perspective, our main focus was on the major challenges faced by Europe nowadays, where large migrant flows have emerged in the context of European integration, and moreover recently due to increased waves of refugees and asylum seekers targeting Germany, Austria, Sweden or Turkey as main destination countries, through Eastern and Central Mediterranean or Western Balkans routes.

We thus developed two sets of twelve simple regression models processed through the correlated panels corrected standard errors method of estimation (in the first set we used as explanatory variable the stocks of immigrants and in the second set we used as independent variable the inflows of asylum seekers).

Table 3 Results of the models developed for the extended analysis of immigration economic consequences within main receiving countries

	(1) log_GDP_cap	(2) log_GDP_empl	(3) log_Unempl_rate	(4) log_Unempl_rate_forei gn
log_lmig_stock	-0.0862*** (0.0164)	-0.0662*** (0.00464)	0.108*** (0.0197)	0.168*** (0.0257)
_cons	10.88*** (0.133)	11.20*** (0.0419)	1.106*** (0.154)	1.357*** (0.195)
N	70	75	75	75
R ²	0.172	0.533	0.182	0.142
	(5) log_Empl_rate	(6) log_Empl_foreign	(7) log_Wages	(8) log_Earn_disp
log_lmig_stock	-0.0436*** (0.00675)	-0.0249*** (0.00683)	-0.0746*** (0.00958)	0.0288*** (0.00367)
_cons	4.512*** (0.0494)	4.284*** (0.0514)	11.26*** (0.0789)	0.362*** (0.0263)
N	75	75	75	75
R ²	0.180	0.031	0.254	0.065
	(9) log_Edu_sec	(10) log_Edu_tert	(11) log_BERD	(12) log_Innov_entrep
log_lmig_stock	-0.0945*** (0.0202)	0.00970 (0.0167)	-0.330*** (0.0536)	0.863*** (1.82e-08)
_cons	4.475*** (0.152)	2.901*** (0.130)	8.378*** (0.437)	3.398*** (0.000000143)
N	75	75	70	5
R ²	0.073	0.001	0.166	0.777

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: own process of panel data through Stata 13 econometric package

Our results suggest that there is evidence to confirm some of the major concerns regarding the negative impact of immigration on host economies. Thus, an increase in both stocks and inflows of immigrants within the five analysed countries leads to a reduction in GDP per capita and per person employed levels, reduces the labour market performances both for natives and other immigrants already established there (reflected to an increase in total and foreign unemployment rates and associated decreases in total and foreign employment rates), a decrease of wages and increased earnings dispersion. Still, one of the most important positive effects of immigration reflected by the results obtained is represented by an increase in the number of innovative enterprises in the host country, thus confirming the theories linking migration to innovation.

Table 4 Results of the models developed for the analysis of asylum seekers

economic consequences within receiving countries

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	log_GDP_cap	log_GDP_empl	log_Unempl_rate	log_Unempl_rate_forei gn
log_asylum_infl	0.128*** (0.0209)	0.0251*** (0.00696)	-0.0201 (0.0238)	-0.0646 (0.0805)
_cons	8.962*** (0.213)	10.45*** (0.0671)	2.132*** (0.242)	3.280*** (0.806)
N	70	75	75	75
R ²	0.280	0.062	0.005	0.017
	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	log_Empl_rate	log_Empl_foreign	log_Wages	log_Earn_disp
log_asylum_infl	0.0604*** (0.00796)	-0.0505 (0.0309)	0.0996*** (0.0121)	-0.0780*** (0.00997)
_cons	3.581*** (0.0809)	4.594*** (0.300)	9.701*** (0.120)	1.353*** (0.0961)
N	75	75	75	75
R ²	0.281	0.104	0.371	0.389
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
	log_Edu_sec	log_Edu_tert	log_BERD	log_Innov_entrep
log_asylum_infl	0.292*** (0.0328)	-0.0129 (0.0202)	0.546*** (0.0501)	0.143 (.)
_cons	0.867** (0.321)	3.103*** (0.205)	0.461 (0.478)	8.777 (.)
N	75	75	70	5
R ²	0.565	0.001	0.390	0.028

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: own process of panel data through Stata 13 econometric package

On the other hand, if we consider only the asylum seekers inflows into the main EU host economies analysed within the panel, the results tend to be contradictory and show positive effects of immigration (a possible explanation being the

relatively small number of asylum seekers compared to labour immigrants during the analysed period, even though there are significant increases in the latest years).

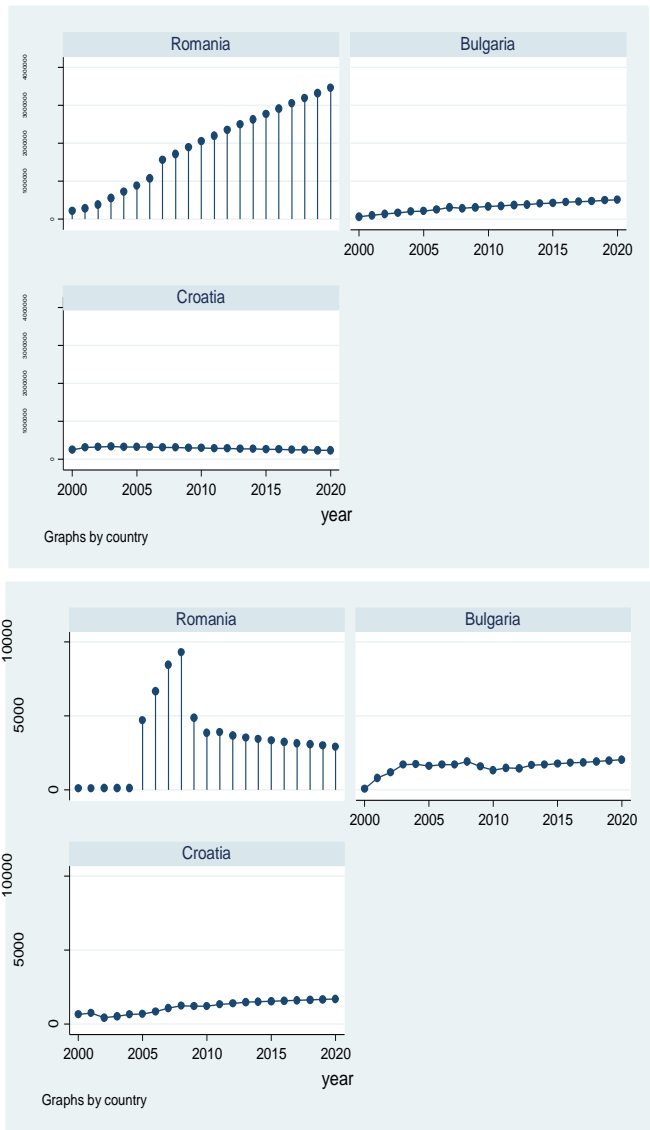


Figure 4: Estimated emigrants (stock) for the New EU Member States since 2007 (Romania and Bulgaria) and 2013 (Croatia), during 2000-2020

Source: own process based on panel data through Stata 13

We completed the empirical analysis with in-sample and out-of-sample predictions until 2020 of the emigrants stock and remittances for three of the New EU Member States as sending economies considered in the panel – Romania, Bulgaria and Croatia and of the immigrants and asylum seekers inflows into one of the main destination country – Germany.

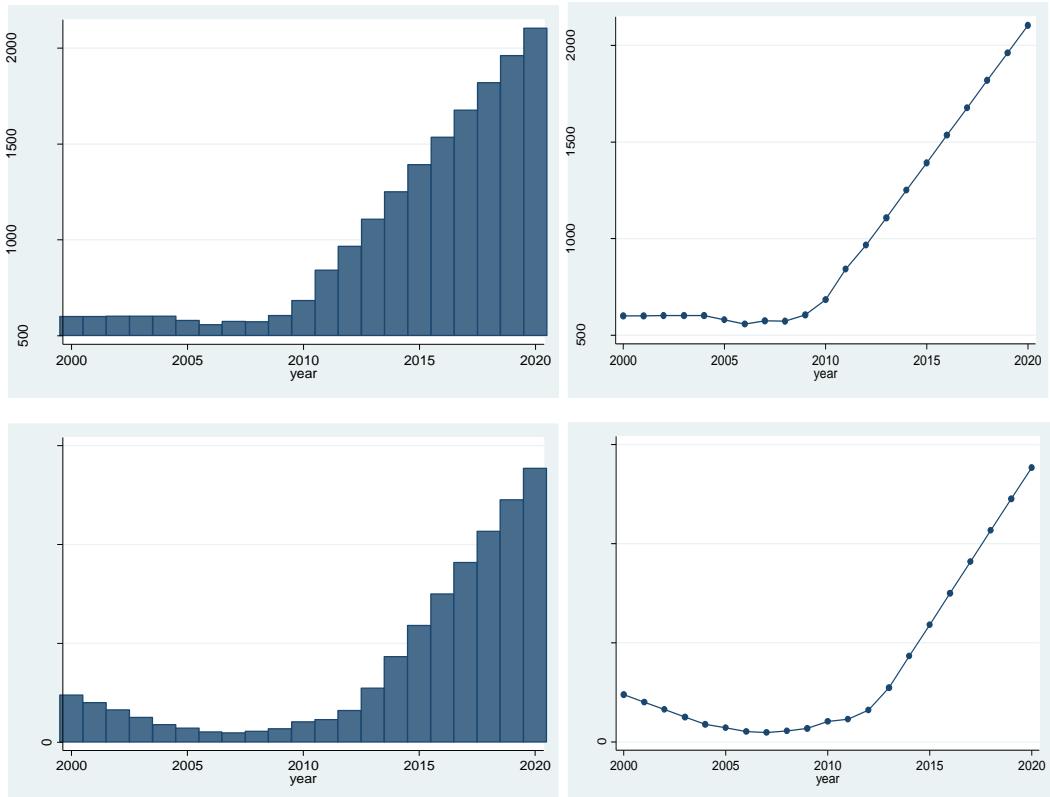


Figure 5: Estimated flows of immigrants and asylum seekers in the case of Germany during 2000-2020

Source: own process based on panel data through Stata 13

We could thus observe that the stock of emigrants will continue to follow an increasing trend in the case of Romania, but the volume of remittances will decrease significantly, while Bulgaria and Croatia will register an approximately constant evolution, with a slight increase in remittances. At the same time, the inflows of immigrants and asylum seekers into Germany will continue to register an upward tendency, with major increases by the end of 2020 compared to previous years.

5 Concluding Remarks

Labour mobility in Europe is facing a major challenge nowadays in framework of the socio-economic and geopolitical context induced by the globalization process through increased interdependencies between economies globally.

Our empirical analysis was focused on developing various models which try to better capture the effects induced by increased migration flows (economic and humanitarian) from the broader perspective of emigration and immigration, thus trying to answer to some of the major questions and related concerns.

The results show that immigration flows have important economic consequences leading to significant changes in labour market performances both for natives and foreign population (decreases in employment rates and wage levels, higher earnings dispersion), which largely vary from one country to another, so on the short-run, the negative effects of immigration are extremely significant. Still, one of the most important positive effects of immigration reflected by the results obtained is represented by an increase in the number of innovative enterprises in the host country, thus confirming the theories linking migration to innovation.

Thus, migrant host economies need to consider several specific labour market policies in order to cope with large inflows of immigrants and refugees. Active labour market policies (ALMPs) focus on unemployed persons, their implementation providing assistance in finding a job, training for professional development and skills acquirement, wage incentives and direct job creation in the public sector, all of these being extremely necessary for the inclusion of immigrants. The flexicurity policies combine the two perspectives on flexibility and security as main components of European employment strategies. Within this perspective, the overall focus should be on new employment guidelines and job creation for a better coordination of the compatibility between labour demand and supply, together with an improvement in the educational level of the labour force, better working conditions and wage increases for all the EU Member States (both labour exporting and receiving ones).

From the emigration perspective, the findings show positive effects of labour emigration on sending countries, on short-terms, by upgrading the living standards for those remaining (reflected to an increase in earnings level and GDP per capita), mainly through remittances. Still, there is a significant negative impact induced by the loss of a large part of the labour force through emigration (especially highly skilled labour) for the considered economies from Central and Eastern Europe, reflected by the results obtained through decreases in employment rates - both total and temporary employment, as well as on the educational background reflected by a reduction of the participation rate in education and training. Moreover, the results highlight that emigration tends to deepen the poverty levels by increasing the at-risk-of-poverty rates for considered economies.

Overall, the performed analysis confirms some of the main economic consequences of international migration in a global era advanced by the literature regarding the fact that labour mobility, induces both negative and positive effects for migrant sending and receiving economies, which largely vary from one country to another, according to the measures and policies adopted to better cope with this complex phenomenon.

6 References

Aubry Amandine, Burzynski Michal, Docquier Frederic (2016), „The welfare impact of global migration in OECD countries”, *Journal of International Economics*, issue 101, pp. 1-21.

Baum F. Christopher (2001), “An Introduction to Modern Econometrics Using Stata”, *Stata Press*, ISBN 1-59718-013-0, pp. 1-341.

Bosetti Valentina, Cattaneo Cristina, Verdolini Elena (2015), „Migration of skilled workers and innovation: A European Perspective”, *Journal of International Economics*, issue 96, pp. 311-322.

Brücker Herbert, Baas Timo, Beleva Iskra, Bertoli Simone, Boeri Tito, Damelang Andreas, Duval Laetitia, Hauptmann Andreas, Fihel Agnieszka, Huber Peter, Iara Anna, Ivlevs Artjoms, Jahn Elke, Kaczmarczyk Pawel, Landesmann Michael, Mackiewicz-Lyziak Joanna, Makovec Mattia, Monti Paola, Nowotny Klaus, Okolski Marek, Richter Sandor, Upward Richard, Vidovic Hermine, Wolf Katja, Wolfeil Nina, Wright Peter, Zaiga Krisjane, Zylicz Anna (2009), *Labour mobility within the EU in the context of enlargement and the functioning of the transitional arrangements*, European Integration Consortium Final Report, Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities Directorate General of the European Commission (contract VC/2007/0293), Nuremberg 2009.

Clemens Michael (2011), „Economics and Emigration: Trillion-Dollar Bills on the Sidewalk?”, *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 83–106.

Dustmann Christian, Frattini Tommaso, Glitz Albrecht (2008), “The Labour Market Impact of Immigration”, *CREAM Discussion Paper no. 11*, Centre for Research and Analysis of Migration, Department of Economics, University College London, pp. 1-27.

- Fassio Claudio, Kalantaryan Sona, Venturini Alessandra (2015), „Human Resources and Innovation: Total Factor Productivity and Foreign Human Capital”, Institute for the Study of Labor, Discussion Paper No. 9422, pp. 1-35.
- Fertig Michael, Kahanec Martin (2015), “Projections of potential flows to the enlarging EU from Ukraine, Croatia and other Eastern neighbours”, *IZA Journal of Migration*, no. 4, issue 6, pp. 1-27.
- Goss Jon, Lindquist Bruce (1995), „Conceptualizing International Labor Migration: A Structuration Perspective”, *International Migration Review*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp. 317-351.
- Harris R. John, Todaro P. Michael (1970), „Migration, Unemployment and Development: a Two-Sector Analysis”, *The American Economic Review*, volume 60, issue 1, pp. 126-142.
- Hein de Haas (2010), „Migration and Development: A Theoretical Perspective”, *International Migration Review*, Vol. 44, No. 1, pp. 227-264.
- Krause Annabelle, Rinne Ulf, Zimmermann Klaus (2016), “European Labour Market Integration: What the Experts Think”, forthcoming *International Journal of Manpower* 2016, IZA Discussion Paper no. 8383, pp. 1-27.
- Kerr William (2014), „U.S. High-Skilled Immigration, Innovation and Entrepreneurship: Empirical Approaches and Evidence”, WIPO Economics & Statistics Series, Economic Research Working Paper No. 16, pp. 1-26.
- Kwok Viem, Leland Hayne (1982), „An Economic Model of Brain Drain”, *American Economic Review*, Vol. 72, No. 1 (March 1982), pp. 91-100.
- Massey S. Douglas, Arango Joaquin, Hugo Graeme, Kouaouci Ali, Pellegrino Adela, Taylor Edward (1993), „Theories of International Migration: A Review and Appraisal”, *Population and Development Review*, vol. 19, issue 3, pp. 431-466.
- Noja Gratiela Georgiana, Son Liana, Caran Margareta (2015), “Key Challenges of Emigration from Central and Eastern European Economies: Empirical Evidence”, *The MacrotHEME Review*, no. 4, issue 6, pp. 97-110.
- Ozgen Ceren (2015), „Immigration and Firm Innovation in Western-Europe: Understanding the Channels of Influence”, *Migration Policy Centre, EUI*, ISBN 978-92-9084-235-4, pp. 1-12.
- OECD (2015), “Is this humanitarian migration crisis different?”, *Migration Policy Debates*, no. 7, September 2015.
- OECD (2014), *International Migration Outlook*, Mobilising Migrants' Skills for Economic Success.
- Son Liana, Noja Gratiela Georgiana (2012), „A macroeconomic panel data analysis of the shaping factors of labour emigration within the European Union”, *Theoretical and Applied Economics*, Vol. XIX, No. 11(576), pp. 15-30.
- Taylor J. Edward (1986), „Differential Migration, Networks, Information and Risk”, pp. 147-171 in Oded Stark (ed.), *Research in Human Capital and Development*, Vol. 4, *Migration, Human Capital, and Development*, Greenwich, JAI Press.
- Taylor J. Edward, Arango Joaquin, Hugo Graeme, Kouaouci Ali, Massey S. Douglas, Pellegrino Adela (1996), „International Migration and Community Development”, *Population Index*, Vol. 62, No. 3, pp. 397-418.
- Zimmermann F. Klaus (2005), *European Migration: What Do We Know?*, Oxford University Press, New York, ISBN 978-0-19-925735-5, pp. 1-653.

Notion of Strategic Control

Qemajl Sejdija

PhD Cand. European University of Tirana

Abstract

With strategic control, we understand the special type of strategic control which is aimed to monitoring and evaluation of strategic management process in order to ensure its functioning and progress. In fact, the strategic control is applied to ensure if all the planned results are accomplished during the process of strategic management. The basic purpose of strategic control is to assist senior management in achieving the objectives of the enterprise with the assistance of monitoring and evaluation of strategic management in general, and particularly in the implementation of the selected strategy. Relying on the preliminary explanation, the results of the assessments are reflected in the strategic management of the enterprise environment, the establishment of vision, mission and goals of the strategy and the conversion of strategy into shares. Strategic control in this case appears as a reverse link that provides feedback to determine whether all stages of the process of strategic management and how they function have been implemented in harmony.

Keywords: Notion of Strategic Control

Introduction

The stages of strategic control are closely linked among themselves while comprising a compacted integrity, in which each of these stages is of uniform significance and therefore with an equal impact on the success of the entire control system. Therefore, upon the designing process of this system in current terms, to each of these respective organizational stages an appropriate responsibility should be given, regardless of the fact that some of these steps will be shaped easier and some more difficult. In other words, the duration of the configuration of any phase of the process and the complexity of its processing must not affect the favouring, i.e. their discrimination, while taking into account that the success of the control system depends on the success of each stage of this system.

In the context of reviewing the model of strategic management process it is clear that control and evaluation give the feedback of the entire model. The emitted information through this itinerary are the outcome of the current collected performance measurements. If any avoidance occurs between the achieved standards and performance, then operational managers need to know how, in what way they can correct the activities of the employees. In this case the involvement of senior management is not necessary. However, if such deviations result of the standards themselves, both, senior management as well as other management levels needs to know how to develop new programs and implementation procedures. In other words, high levels of management need to establish new standards of performance that will be in harmony with existing circumstances.

Process of control and its features

Determination of measuring sizes

Determining of the measuring size means to measure what should be the starting point in shaping the control system. In other words, management must demonstrate what it wants to measure, i.e. what are the processes and outcomes, by measuring the accomplishment of which is understandable that a company is making its own strategy. The ability to solve these processes and results constitutes one of the basic skills of managers. Related to this following questions should be made:

1. What processes and results represent the best the intentions of the responsibility scope of the respective manager?
2. What is the failure of the responsibility goals of the respective manager manifested with?

3. What is the best measure of critical accomplishment deviation from the goal?
4. In what way it can be learned who is responsible for the respective error?
5. Which indicators of goals development will cause the least cost?
6. For which indicators can be obtained information in economic terms?

Resolved processes and results should be measured through appropriate measurement and in rational way. Thus, the most important elements of the process are placed in the centre and the elements that have the greatest impact on costs or those that cause the biggest problems in the enterprise.

When defining the performance of the goals, which will be measured in the process control, it is usually initiated by the aspirations of all stakeholders, such as owners, managers, employees, buyers, suppliers, banks, government and others.

Setting of standards

Standards represent the size of goals by which is compared the current or expected effects (performance). In this sense, the standards are represented as measures or criteria under which it estimated the accomplishment of the goals and tasks of individuals, workgroups, and organizing units and the enterprise as a whole. If the standards are set properly, from the early development process of any activity they signal that this process is being developed within or outside the planned framework. In this case they also signal the manager to take certain actions, which will return the process of such planned framework, in cases when deviations are outside the limits of tolerance.

Standards can be of quantitative and qualitative character; the first ones are measurable, while the latter ones are appreciated.

Quantitative standards usually appear as physical (neutral) and valuable standards, whereas, quality standards appear as descriptive, programmatic and targeting.

Physical standards are neutral sizes presented in absolute or relative way - kilograms, tons, meters, ton- kilometres hours according to tons hours, according to the production unit, etc.

1 Compare: Weichrich, Koontz, H. Op. ciut. page 581

Standards with valuable are absolute or relative sizes presented in currency, and deal with expenses, (direct and indirect, special and general), expenses, incomes (general and specific), then capital (rate of return, the ratio between net debt and the ratio of the following assets and subsequent debt, etc.).

Descriptive standards deal with such measures which may be presented in a quantitative way. This primarily has to do with the features, activities and processes which can be evaluated later.

Program standards are of such nature that some activities from a certain program (eg program of new product acquisition), or even the whole program is treated as a standard.

Aimed standards are issued from set goals and deal with those purposes that are not of quantitative character (eg increase the level of knowledge or ability, creating better working brightness).

Each of these standards will be applied in this case depends on the type of activity which is developed by the manager. In an enterprise, according to the set rules all types mentioned standards will be used.

Measurement of current performance

Measurement of current performance a procedure in which is determined if the set standards have been accomplished and to what degree they have been accomplished, then the reasons are determined why possible deviations have happened to achieve the same, it is necessary to provide the relevant information regarding what has been accomplished and has failed to accomplish in terms of the enterprise as a whole, the said information has to deal with the marketing and sales, production, supply and stocks of materials, capacities, defects and maintenance, workforce, involved capital and the success of the business. Collection and processing of this information can be performed by the manager himself,

appropriate service which is relevant to the manager or a separate service outside the jurisdiction of the relevant manager information systems based on electronic computers that are designed for these purposes (EIS, MIS) are particularly effective.

To ensure the effectiveness of performance of measurement, collection and processing of information must have a certain dynamic-certain information will be collected during the day, others within a week or 10 days, some within a month, and some even within 3 months, half a year or a year. Processing of such information is done in a way to be comparable with set standards, in order to make the possible deviation visible.

In terms of the possibility of influencing the accomplished results if possible, it is the best that during their period of their accomplishment to collect information about deviations in order to act preventively. More often here we have to deal with the costs and expenses that about to be made for any final accomplishment. In this case the standards are set for each part of the final performance, so the implementation process signals that are part of this implementation present avoidance of costs and expenses, in order to take preventive actions prior to the end of the whole process. On the analogue way the measurement of performance is set with respect to the implementation of the investment program, implementation of which is followed according to the stages of development.

Comparison of current performance standards

Comparison of performance and standards is a procedure in which a comparison of different data on these performances and performance standards is done. The purpose of this comparison is to determine:

1. Avoidance of performance standards,
2. The sizes of deviations from standards,
3. The causes of deviations from standards.

In cases where the current performances sizes are within the desired tolerance, measurement process stops here. However, if the deviations are outside the tolerance limits, it is necessary to first prove their pre-signals. In this way, we should note that avoidance from standards can be negative and positive. Not only negative avoidance signal for action, but action signals can be both positive deviations, thus any avoidance from standards must be subjected to detailed analysis. This analysis should also provide answers to the question of why the avoidance has happened –was it conditioned to the subjective or objective reasons.

As the comparison of performance standards with determining of the size and direction itself (pre-signal) avoidance can be performed automatically, the determining of the avoiding cause is a matter of special analysis. Such analysis, in certain cases is carried out by the manager, whereas in other cases, they should be carried out by a special team of experts. It can be said that at the operational level the standards are usually of common size, and therefore the caused avoidance can be verified more easily. Despite this, at the strategic level the standards comprise complex accomplished sizes that are subjected to numerous influenced factors. Therefore, the determination of the causes of avoidance in such cases is a complicated process which requires long and detailed analysis.

Evaluation of performance and corrective actions

Evaluation of performance means analytical and diagnostic means of the manager's ability, regardless whether if it develops the analysis of the causes of avoidance or is carried out by specialized service. Without this ability the manager would be handicapped upon decision-taking on actions that should be taken to eliminate or soften such avoidance. Most often three following aspects of these actions are distinguished:

1. Maintaining of the status quo
2. Correction of avoidance
3. Change of standards

The maintaining of the status quo is recommended in cases where deviations from the standards are so small and it's not worth to undertake any actions that would ensure the implementation of standards. However, when the avoidances are

large, then the correction of avoidance is indispensable. If such actions aren't taken than major disturbances will take place in the enterprise business. What corrections will be taken depends on the causes that have contributed to the avoidances from the set standards, and it is determined by analysis. Considering it from the functional point of view, such causes can be identified in planning, organizing, and management of human resources –i.e. with functions of management,

Griffin, W. R. , *Management*, 3rd Edition, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1990, page 606.

that precedes the control. This means that corrections can be made in the plans and purposes, organizing and determination of the staff and the style of leadership itself. This shows that the control is not only an integral feature of the management of the main action, but also retroactive for all previous functions.

The change of standards is usually a consequence as they are unrealistically set, too high or too low. Very high set standards, are usually diagnosed when with those whom we have to do, they are not capable to accomplish. In contrast, very low set standards are diagnosed when most are implemented very easily but fail too high.

All this indicates that the evaluation of performance in selection of appropriate management action is fair.

Types of control systems

The enterprise acts (operates) in certain environments and by its existence depends upon its reception. Therefore, it must control how the environment reacts to its outputs. On this occasion we constantly have to bear in mind such outputs are the result of the internal operation of the company (the process of transformation or conversion), therefore, from such an action depends the solvency of outputs, and that means its acceptance them from the environment. All this shows that the determining of the success of the chosen strategy should control two basic sets of performance-a group comprised of performances of which mediation the company defines its accession (corrections) in the environment, whereas the other group consists of performances that define the ability of the enterprise for acceptance. Therefore, there are two basic types of control system:

1. Out-organized system control,
2. Organizational system control.

That both systems present a reality of each enterprise - the fundamental question is how are they formed and implemented. In this case we must consider that the control systems are very expensive, but they are often the only means of the enterprise to monitor and evaluate the performance in cases when organizational activities are complex.

Out-organizational system control

As the name itself indicates, this control system is operating outside the enterprise, and is comprised of market mechanisms that through the action of the offer and demand shows if the enterprise has been accepted and to what extension of the environment. This mechanism is most commonly called market control; implemented through the establishment of a system of prices, followed by mediation and the performance of the enterprise is evaluated. This is the objective of the control outputs. It is possible only when the enterprise is able to impose objective financial measures of performance.

There are three general forms of market control:

1. The market price of shares
2. The rate of return of capital,
3. Transfer of prices.

Out-organizational system control can work out successfully only if an adequate system of comparison is set In this case the system of comparison should first of practices should include the so-called special comparison, which means individual comparison of enterprise with competitors, in groups or branch of the activity.

The market price of the share. The share price is a performance measure of the company considering that it is the result of supply and demand in the market of capital. The changes imply reaction of the actors-starting from stock owners, managers of enterprises and to a range of external stakeholders-suppliers, buyers, banks, governments, etc. However,

considering that we are dealing here with controlling the implementation of the chosen strategy of the enterprise, these implications are primarily related with the management of the company, which should adapt its behaviour to such changes. In fact, if the share prices have risen compared to their nominal value, this is a sign that management has chosen a real strategy, so it will still enjoy the support of shareholders. Otherwise, if the stock prices have fallen below the nominal value, this may be a sign that management hasn't chosen the true strategy; therefore, it will lose the support of shareholders. Particular sensibility of management occurs when the changes in stock prices reflect the level of management compensation. This happens not only when a part of the management of share profits is paid, but particularly when applying the system of values of options. This is such a form of compensation which is paid to the managers in shares under a fixed price, which in most cases is equal to their market price on the day of admission. Options are usually allowed primarily, and then later are allowed the General Assembly. Stimulating character of these options is whether the difference between the prices according to which the share is estimated for managers and the real price that will be achieved for such shares in the capital market, presents a motivation of successful enterprise business. Thus, in this case for managers it is very important that they choose and implement the strategy that will ensure continuous growth as the value stock, but it is a strategy that ensures the success of enterprise business.

The rate of capital return

This indicator shows the ability of the enterprise to the set deadline to return the capital to the investors. In this case the invested capital can be understood as the invested capital and used capital (total equity and long-term total shareholder) from which derive other different indicators such as, ROI, ROCE, ROA.

It is understandable that each strategy will not be equally successful – the more successful the strategy will be the strategy that provides the fastest return of the invested material. In other words, if the management has chosen

Hill, G. R. , Jones, C. W. L. , *Strategic Management – An Integrated Approach*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1989, page 264.

a strategy that within a short period has enabled the return of their capital, this strategy is successful. For this reason, the height of the rate of return on the invested capital is the best indicator of the speed of this conversion and thus the success of the chosen strategy.

It should be noted that the rate of return of the capital is not only a measure of the performance of the enterprise, but it is also a measure of performance units of the divisions. In fact, even when the rate would to be used in comparison with the same enterprise or different groups and their subsidiaries, it will in deal the same way with comparisons to the same inter-divisional enterprise. Thus, this is a very important measure of the performance of the enterprise and once the key control of the mechanism to the success of the chosen strategy.

Transfer prices

In multi-divisional enterprise, where relatively autonomous parts operate undertaking, (profit centres, business units, and strategic business units) the overall quality performance is expressed in the quality of each of these parts. Thus, the fundamental issue is how in the system of price as a mechanism of control that is outside of these parts, can control, check and evaluate the performance of the said parts. What we are dealing here with is the choosing of such price strategy in exchange with inter-divisional, which shall ensure the success of the enterprise as a whole. In this sense it is possible to distinguish two types of transfer prices - established market prices and established expendable prices.

The prices established in the market are those transfer prices in exchange with inter-divisional, which are determined based on market prices of internal transferred premises and these most often they are the prices of full market prices adjusted to market prices or contracted in basis of the market price.

Based expendable prices are in exchange with inter-divisional transfer prices which are determined based on the costs of internal transfer premises and these are mostly full costs, variable costs or fully increased costs.

Each of the mentioned systems of the price has its advantages and disadvantages, requiring a strengthened analysis of all the factors that affect their resolution. Therefore, it is great responsibility of management that within the overall strategy to

choose what price strategy which will ensure adequate admissibility enterprise in extreme environment and appropriate recognition of its parts due to the internal environment.

Organizational control system

Unlike outside the organizational control system which is set off the units, by which it controls the success of the chosen strategy, organizational control system is located in the unit. It applies in all cases where there is no possibility to use outside organizational control, because objective standards cannot be placed, objective measurement and evaluation of performance control. Therefore, in all these cases it is difficult and expensive to develop, even when they do not have a sufficient budget to overhaul enterprise control of the enterprise goals, the manager must implement the organizational control.

There are two types of control -The first type of bureaucratic control and the second is the group control.

Bureaucratic control

Bureaucratic control is based system on the general rules and procedures for guiding the behaviour of stock or divisions, functions and individuals. These are not just impersonal rules and procedures, but also the budget rules and procedures and standardization of shares.

It is worth mentioning that this control system requires the active involvement of management, which here has the role of the instrument controller. In certain cases it is necessary to constitute a special body to control. All this has significant impact on the costs of the system and organizational control.

The rules of procedures Accomplishment of the chosen strategy is precisely conditioned with the certain behaviour of participants. Therefore, from the manager is expected to specify in advance which behaviours should be present, and this can be achieved with the issuance of rules and procedurave.⁴

1. The mode of action of future shares with procedures is determined in details; these are chronological sequences of implementing shares. With such is best described how the implementation of specific work routines and repetitive and are built for the enterprise as a whole and about its organizational units. The procedures are the basis of every part of the organization, so their absence would open the way to anarchy and thus the destruction of the enterprise.
2. The rules are specific requirements that do not allow freedom decision-making, which means that they are of directive character. They vary from the procedures, but are in the process, there are procedures that deal by any rule, but these rules are self-applicable. Therefore, rules and procedures are taken in those cases when the business of the enterprise is not desirable that the employees, respectively, executives of such rules and procedures, shall use free decision- taking.
3. The power of rules and procedures is that they standardize the behaviour of the employees. If the employees respect the rules set forth, actions or decisions will be implemented in the same manner and at the same time, so the result will be the expectation and accuracy, which is the purpose of the control system.

The budget is usually defined as a numerical overview of the outcomes. This transcript can be in the form of value (cash) or in neutral form. In fact, it is a collection of rules for the allocation of the resources, primarily financial ones.

There are three types of budget of classification, but all can be summarized in⁵:

4. types of budget considering the budget period,
5. types of budget considering the inclusion of activity levels ,
- 6t. types budget regardless to its content,
7. types of budget considering the methodology of research of budget sizes.

Buble, M. , op. cit. faqe 214 – 215.

For more details see:: Buble, M. , op. cit. page 655 – 657.

8. The period related to the budget may be different, but it should be careful to enable more precise evaluations and with best opportunities for implementation of the chosen strategy. Relying on this aspect the annual budget and the capital budget usually changes.

a. The annual budget is the basic and the most important type of the budget, which as part of the strategic plan of the enterprise is transformed into an expression over a period of one year. Different from this, the capital budget includes pre-calculation of necessary capital investments for five to ten years.

9. Taking into account the activity of the enterprise the budget usually differs from its budget units.

a. The budget of the enterprise includes all activities of the enterprise as a whole and deals with long term or short term.

b. The parts of the enterprise covers only those parts of the budget of activity dealing with the relevant parts of the enterprise. The content of this budget depends on the type of organizational unit this budget deals with-whether it is strategic business unit, business unit, profit centre or just spending centre.

10. Taking into account the main budget usually is differs from particular special budgets that are directly or indirectly part of the main budget.

a. The main budget (Master Budget) usually consists of separate budgets connected between them, which in this total symbiosis represents the business activities of the future enterprise. Special budgets in this structure vary in content depending on the type and size of the company, however, including certain fixed contents.

b. In large enterprises, especially those multi-divisional, in addition to the main budget other budgets are constituted about each centre of responsibility. They are usually called responsibility budgets (Budget Responsibility).

11. Depending on the way they express the size, the budgets presented in the way of values and natural are usually the different.

a. The most common occurrence is the budget presented as a value, but any of the budgets of the budget follows the natural budget, it is the budget of working hours, budget machinery working hours, the budget of the quantity of products, etc.

b. Taking into account that the budget represents the state and the real state of certain sizes that have character of inputs or outputs, it enables dual control of the budget:

12. the budgetary control of the following activities,

13. budgetary control of performed activities.

14. Budgetary control of the following activities has a preventive control character, considering that it has to do with the ongoing activities. This means that it can be maintained within the framework of the planned activities. On the contrary it will signal the need for specific actions (corrective) which will provide a new alignment between separate budgets.

15. Budgetary control of the accomplished results is of correctional character, as presented after the activity is implemented-it means this control is the output control. It is implemented by comparing the planned sizes and the executed ones, how the management will be able to:

16. determine the causes of these avoidances,

17. foresee and take appropriate measures,

18. localize the responsibility of such avoidances,

19. assess the performance.

In case of avoidance (deviations) between the planned and the implemented sizes ones it is possible to use the static and dynamic sizes that are formed in budget planning. Until the static access takes to compare the sizes of the budget, despite the volume of accomplished production (or sales), dynamic approach to control firstly the size of planned results in the volume of accomplished production (or sales), and then compares with real sizes. According to the last method the real result of expenses is, which enables an adequate action to be taken.

For standardization it is possible to speak about the case when the content of the labour is specified or programmed. This means that in this direct way it affects the stand of the organization, with the aim of accomplishing the chosen strategy. It can be said that organizational control in the majority is based on standardization, since all the rules and procedures as well as budgets are based precisely on standardization. However, the rules are only a segment of standardization considering that it includes three aspects, as follows:

1. standardization of inputs,
2. standardization of throughputs,
3. standardization of outputs.

Standardization of inputs is a route how the organization can conduct human and material resources, even before engaging them in the process of work. Therefore, here we have to deal with so-called preliminary control (control Navigator motion control or retrospective), which is focused on the input of all resources in the enterprise. As for the human resources, this control is focused on recruiting and their selection and in accordance with the requirements of the work. In other words, in the process of human resource control will be accepted only those individuals whose performances are in line with the performance of the work.

In terms of material resources, this control is focused on the performance of materials such as quantity, quality, design, and trust, etc. Their behaviour in relation to the requirements of performance and on the basis of this decision-making whether, the inputs will be accepted or not accepted. In this way, the solvency of inputs is provided which is one of the assumptions that even further processes the processes in such inputs will be satisfactory.

Standardization of throughputs includes all activities pertaining to the transformation or conversion of inputs into outputs. Its task is to ensure that it takes place exactly as it is defined before

(solved in technological way or programmed) and activities to be developed in a manner and at the same time. Therefore, the desired goal of this standardization is predictable. Technological rules and procedures are key paths to achieve this standardization.

Control is selective (check yes/no and simultaneous control) and is focused on the process of transforming inputs into outputs.

Standardization of outputs has to do with what becomes specification of the characteristics of the performance of the product or final service (dimensions, tolerances etc.) in order to provide them the company applies the so-called after-action control, which is focused on the output or result of the enterprise, following the completion of the transformation process. For this purpose, the enterprise control systems use attributes such as QC, TQC and others.

Control of the group

Different from bureaucratic control, control of the group is no formal arrangement and structured organic view of the behaviour of individuals and groups in the enterprise, and is a characteristic of the organizational structures of authorities. The behaviour is by group standards with culture of the corporate culture and self-control. The system of services is not individual performances but in groups.

Different from bureaucratic control which is a mechanism that is outside the group, the control group is the mechanism that formed by the group itself by setting an internal system of values and organizational standards. Its purpose is self-control, when the individual feels a responsibility to work at his/her best, both for its own interests, as well as the for the interests of the enterprise. Therefore, the control group of employees are not controlled by any violent external system, such as direct superiors or separate control group. In this case, they create themselves their own system of standards and values according to which they behave.

Conclusion

Thus, with full responsibility we can say that values are relatively stable concepts, durable and fundamental in what they tend to achieve and strategies are specific types of operationalization. They constitute the basic framework for behaviour and leader. Important elements of successful enterprises are fundamental values such as quality, trust and service. The

respect toward them in individual level presupposes the existence of the organization, reward, status, etc., but at the level of organization -successful implementation of the strategy.

Standards are concepts of desired behaviour forms, respectively standards for behaviour at work and the expected effects, by which the values are operationalized, respectively, the values are transformed into daily rules for the employees. It is believed that compliance of arranged standards is a condition for the existence and as well as the condition for profitability and success of the enterprise.

Values and standards are two important elements of organizational culture which is a part of each organization as a cause and consequence of the behaviour of individuals and groups in the organization. It is regarded as the most effective instrument of implementation of the strategy, therefore, without an adequate organizational culture, strategy simply cannot be implemented.

LITERATURE

CompareE: Wehrich, Koontz, H. Op.cit. PAGE 581.

Griffin, W.R., *Management*, 3rd Edition, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1990, page 606.

Hill, G.R., Jones, C.W.L., *Strategic Management – An Integrated Approach*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1989, page 264.

Buble, M., op.cit. page 214 – 215.

For more details see: Buble, M., op. cit page 655 – 657.

Job Satisfaction in the Health Care Sector: Empirical Evidence from Medical Care in Greece

Alexandra Gkliati, PhD Cand.

Harokopio University Athens

Dr. Anna Saiti

Professor, Harokopio University Athens

Abstract

It is extremely important for employees in every sector of an economy to be satisfied with their work since job satisfaction contributes significantly to improvements in their productiveness and performance. This paper deals with the very sensitive sector of health care in which medical staff provide citizens with health care services. The job satisfaction of these medical care providers is of particular importance when aiming to improve the quality of their services. Literature on job satisfaction among the providers of medical care is limited since researches have focused mainly on users' satisfaction with the medical care services provided. In an era in which many countries worldwide are facing uncertainty and the social insurance systems are confronted with serious problems as they strive to respond to a number of changes, the Greek health care sector is no exception. With particular reference to the Greek reality, due to the heavy recession that the country has been facing for a number of years, health care expenditures have been cut dramatically and, as a result, the working conditions in public hospitals have been negatively influenced. Based on the above, the purpose of this paper is, through empirical investigation, to examine the levels of job satisfaction among Greek doctors who work in public hospitals and to determine the factors that may influence the satisfaction they gain from their work.

Keywords: job satisfaction, medical care, doctors, Greece

Introduction and aims of the study

Employment is a concept inextricably linked with adult's life. In the relevant literature, there is a wide range of work-related topics that aim to the investigation of aspects that can improve working conditions, productivity and the well-being of employees. A typically-related topic is the one of job satisfaction which is extremely important for the productiveness and performance in every occupational sector (Spector, 1997, Brown et al., 1993, Judge et al., 2001). Furthermore, higher levels of job satisfaction can ensure lower absenteeism (Wu et al, 2007), and satisfied employees are more likely to be satisfied with their lives (Lease, 1998). There is also a strong link between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Alpader, 1990).

It is evident that the last years reflect a period of radical changes as Greece is suffering from severe economic problems and Greek ministers are expected to reduce to a minimum their expenditures. Based on this rule, the Greek health sector has reduced its expenditures while the salaries of doctors have also being subjected to reduction. Apart from the changes, the social security system faces serious problems and there is a general dissatisfaction for the quality of the health services (Moumtzoglou et al., 2000). In the same time, the private expenditures for the health sector have being increased to such an extent that brings Greece to the first places in Europe, given that the effectiveness of the public health system is not adequate (Tountas et al., 2005). On the other hand, apart from the changes in the structure of health care systems, the financial crisis has an impact on the physical and psychological health of employees. In the years of recession, the job satisfaction levels are questionable and a great challenge for the global community is the avoidance of financial crisis' conversion to a social crisis or to a crisis of healthcare systems.

Based on the above, this study aims to investigate the levels of Greek public sector doctors' job satisfaction and to determine the factors which may influence these levels.

Job Satisfaction

Undoubtedly, job satisfaction is a complex concept that has attracted the attention of researchers for several decades now, and many theoretical approaches have been developed for its explanation. In 1911, Frederic Winslow Taylor was the first researcher to introduce the concept and many researchers tried to define its meaning afterwards. However, there is not one universal definition, thus complicating the concept of what job satisfaction is. A wider and predominant definition came from Locke (1974) who defines job satisfaction as 'a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences' (p.1304). Locke considers professional values as subjective, acquired, and their hierarchy is determined by individuals' assessment based on their significance. Hulin (1991) and Brief (1998) were influenced by Locke's definition and they highlighted the importance of the mental processes, thoughts and feelings.

Another interesting definition is the one of Vroom (1964), who considers satisfaction as a connection between the subjective perception of an employee and the extent to which a person is attracted to the work and manages the achievement of the desired results in his workplace. Alderfer (1972) describes satisfaction as a subjective internal state which is based on the interaction between the individual and the environment and it is synonymous with the fulfillment.

Several theories have been developed for job satisfaction. Content theories highlight that an individual can be satisfied with a job when particular needs or values are attained (Locke, 1974). Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory indicates that the presence of 'motivators' (such as recognition and achievement) leads to job satisfaction while the absence of 'hygienes' (workplace environment, pay) leads to job dissatisfaction. This theory has been criticized due to the fact that it predicts the same levels of job satisfaction for the employees in the same contexts while it seems to ignore the individual differences (Schneider and Locke 1971). On the other hand, the need-based theories focus on the individuals and the level of job satisfaction is defined to the extent of which these needs are fulfilled in a workplace environment (McClelland, 1961). Within this framework, many instruments have been developed in order to measure job satisfaction.

A large amount of research concerning the factors that determine levels job satisfaction has been undertaken. According to Blegen (1993), job satisfaction is a dynamic situation which may vary depending on the personal characteristics, expectations, management or changes in the organisational policy. Several studies such as Bolton (2005) and Wise (2007) revealed the impact of managerial responsibility and style while McNeese Smith (1996) highlighted the importance of management in the organization. Job satisfaction has been playing a crucial role in the management research (Fisher, 2003).

Sutherland and Cooper (1992) suggested that an important factor which contributes to job satisfaction is the social support. A study conducted in United States of America (Eric et al., 2003) showed that the interpersonal relationships between doctors and their colleagues or patients are important contributors to job satisfaction. Another determinant factor for job satisfaction is the wage and the pension systems (Case et al. 2002). To sum up, research suggests that both personal (Kaplow, 1996) and organizational factors (Adams and Parrott, 1994) are linked to job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction in the medical care sector

Job satisfaction is a concept that has been studied globally in different workplace contexts and the same applies in the medical care sector as it has received increasing attention in America and Europe in the last decades (Flood & Fennell, 1995, Davies et al., 2000). Apart from the general positive outcomes of job satisfaction for an organization, these studies revealed that there is a link between doctors' job satisfaction and quality of patient care (Alken et al., 1994, Norrish & Rundall, 2001). Moreover, doctors' levels of job satisfaction may be of importance to individual career choices (Shanafelt et al., 2002).

In Greece, research for job satisfaction has been conducted mainly in the sectors of education and health (Demoussis and Giannakopoulos, 2007, Koustelios, 2001, Theodossiou and Pouliakas, 2005, Togia et al., 2004) however, doctors are not a sample (professional group) commonly used. Studies suggest that there is a general dissatisfaction from the Greek healthcare system (Moumtzoglou et al., 2000) due to the failure of the public medical care systems to provide adequate health services (Tountas et al., 2005). With particular reference to Greece, literature on job satisfaction among the providers of medical care is limited since researches have focused mainly on users' and nurses satisfaction (e.g. Theodossiou and Pouliakas, 2005, Togia et al., 2004) with the medical care services provided. However, in recent years it appears that some Greek researchers such as Sourmpasi (2006), Papanikolaou (2007), Gerovasiliou (2009), etc., have attempted to analyse this issue as indicated by their Master's thesis and although the sample used by those studies were rather small they have converged to the conclusion that doctors appeared to be satisfied with their jobs.

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants and procedure

This cross-sectional study was based on a survey conducted using a sample of doctors coming from 6 Greek hospitals in the metropolitan area of Athens. In total, the sample consisted of 156 doctors (response rate= 94%) and included 86 males (55.1%) and 70 females (44.9%). The mean age of respondents was 38.4 years (SD= 9.1) and the mean of the years worked in the specific hospital was 6.88 years (SD=7). A total of 47.4% of the participants worked in Athens.

Following the official consensus of the hospitals in Athens, the questionnaire was distributed to doctors in person. The questionnaire was accompanied by information related to the aims of the study and their right to withdraw from the research at any stage. In addition, the study's confidentiality and anonymity were emphasized. The participants had one week to complete the questionnaire.

2.2 Measures

The questionnaire used in the current research included two different sections. The first section of the questionnaire explored personal and professional characteristics of the respondents, such as age, gender, position and department in the hospital.

Job Satisfaction. The concept of job satisfaction was measured by the sort version of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss and his colleagues in 1967. This version includes 20 of the 100 original items and each question represents one subscale of the long version. The 20 items are rated on 5-point Likert scale from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). The 20 item responses are averaged to create a total score- the higher the score, the higher the level of job satisfaction. The manual, which examined a wide range of occupational groups, indicates that the median reliability coefficient for intrinsic scale is .86, for the extrinsic .80 while the reliability of the general satisfaction scale is .90. That being said, the norms of the questionnaire have been calculated for several groups but doctors are not included. Therefore, a factor analysis for doctors' job satisfaction has been selected for the analysis.

2.3 Data analysis

The analysis of the results was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences 23. The aim of the study was the exploration of the levels of job satisfaction and the determination of the factors that may influence it. Therefore, the mean of job satisfaction's questionnaire has been calculated and a factor analysis has been conducted.

Results

First, the mean of job satisfaction's questionnaire has been calculated in order to identify the levels of doctors' job satisfaction. The mean was 3.46 (SD=0.51) and this result demonstrates that doctors are satisfied with their jobs in public hospitals.

The application of factor analysis resulted in the extraction of 4 factors that have an Eigenvalue above 1. Of these, four factors were selected (see Table 1) which account for 69.8% of the total sample. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was 0.88. Based on the empirical findings, the following factors were extracted:

The *first* factor was intrinsic motives including creativity, initiatives. These were: The chance to work alone on the job, The chance to do different things from time to time, The chance to be "somebody" in the community, The way my job provides for steady employment, The chance to do things for other people, The chance to tell people what to do, The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities, The way company policies are put into practice, The freedom to use my own judgment, The chance to try my own methods of doing the job, The praise I get for doing a good job, The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.

The *second* factor covered considerations relevant to task enrichment and work climate. These were: Being able to keep busy all the time, being able to do things that don't go against my conscience, The working conditions, The way my co-workers get along with each other.

The *third* factor was supervision and leadership. This covered: The way my boss handles his/her workers, The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.

The *fourth* factor was extrinsic motives. This covered: The way company policies are put into practice, My pay and the amount of work I do, The chances for advancement on this job.

Table 1: Variables included in each factor and factor Loadings

Factors	Variables	Loadings
Factor 1 Intrinsic motives including creativity, initiatives	The chance to work alone on the job	0.875
	the chance to do different things from time to time	0.821
	The chance to be "somebody" in the community	0.876
	The way my job provides for steady employment	0.731
	The chance to do things for other people	0.700
	The chance to tell people what to do	0.877
	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	0.857
	The freedom to use my own judgment	0.857
	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	0.890
	The praise I get for doing a good job	0.849
	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	0.861
Factor 2 Task enrichment and work climate	Being able to keep busy all the time	0.631
	being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	0.488
	The working conditions	0.791
	The way my co-workers get along with each other.	0.523
Factor 3 Supervision and leadership	The way my boss handles his/her workers	0.853
	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	0.808
Factor 4 Extrinsic motives	The way company policies are put into practice	0.453
	My pay and the amount of work I do	0.845
	The chances for advancement on this job.	0.627

4. Discussion

This study was designed to investigate the levels of job satisfaction among doctors of Greek public hospitals. The findings of the present study revealed that doctors appeared to be satisfied with their jobs. These findings are in accordance with the relevant Greek studies (Sourmpasi, 2006, Papanikolaou, 2007, Gerovasiliou, 2009) regarding job satisfaction in the medical care sector (doctors).

The factor analysis revealed the four factors which contribute to the degree of job satisfaction for doctors. According to the empirical results, these factors are: the intrinsic motives including creativity and initiatives, the task enrichment and work

climate, the supervision and leadership while the fourth factor related to the extrinsic motives (such as pay). A significant difficulty in assessing job satisfaction is that people might be satisfied with some aspects of their jobs while being dissatisfied with others (Spagnoli et al., 2012) and this is the reason why multidimensional measures of job satisfaction have been developed and they have been adapted as the main way of measurement from the occupational psychology (Hirschfeld, 2000).

Previous research on factor structure of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire states different results. For example, Moorman (1993, in Fields, 2002) found two factors; the intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction while Schriesheim and his colleagues (1993) suggested that there is also the factor of general satisfaction. On the other hand, Mathieu (1991) yielded four factors. These factors are: intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, recognition and authority/social utility. A recent study (Martins, 2012) in Portugal suggests that Minnesota Satisfaction questionnaire is a valid instrument for measuring the job satisfaction of global hospital workers.

Intrinsic motives, which is the most important factor of our analysis, includes eleven questions for creativity, initiatives and work autonomy. Research on job satisfaction suggests that creativity can affect job satisfaction (Shalley et al., 2000). Finn (2001) highlighted the work autonomy as one of the most important component of nurses' job satisfaction. Hence, this analysis revealed that Greek doctors pay most attention to their sense of freedom in their work and to their sense of offering to other people.

With regard to the second factor, namely, task enrichment and work climate, this can also be confirmed by the literature which states that enrichment is a very important job characteristic and a predictor for job satisfaction (O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1979). Work climate in various occupational contexts has also been considered as a factor that can affect the levels of job satisfaction (Babin and Boles, 1996). Regarding the factor of the supervision and leadership, there is a great amount of research (Hurlbert, 1991) that confirms their contribution to the development of job satisfaction and it also suggests that it can provide lessons for management (Kim, 2002).

The final factor revealed by the empirical results was the extrinsic motives which include pay, policies and chances for advancement. Malka and Chatman (2003), found a positive correlation between the pay and the satisfaction levels while the policies of the organization have been extensively studied as a part of the organization's culture (Trice and Beyer, 1993). The latter might be able to explain the reason why Greek doctors are satisfied with their jobs, even if the recession has affected their salaries and hospitals' policies, employees still be satisfied since the most important factor appeared to be the intrinsic motives instead of the extrinsic.

The main limitation of the present study is its cross-sectional design which cannot provide evidence for casual references or relationships and the fact that this study was based on self-report measures. Furthermore, the sample of the research was relatively small and it was derived from only six hospitals of the Greek public healthcare system. Nevertheless, the sample cannot be characterized as homogenous due to the fact that participants were working in different departments in the hospital, so they deal with different tasks. Regarding the period when the study was conducted is one of many changes occur in the public hospitals due to the fact that some hospitals have new managers while other hospitals expect the allocation of new managers.

5. Conclusion

Future research could include a wider sample of doctors from Greek hospitals both from the capital, Athens, and from the province so as to confirm the factors which contribute to doctors' satisfaction. Another suggestion for future research is external validity's verification of factor structure. Moreover, a questionnaire with more than twenty questions can provide enhanced factor loadings that may reveal more factors contributing to job satisfaction.

The current study has shown that doctors of the public hospitals in Greece are satisfied with their jobs. Furthermore, the most important factor for employee's satisfaction appears to be the intrinsic motives. These results suggests that even in the years of recession, employees in the public contexts can be satisfied with their jobs as the work autonomy, the chance of multi-tasks and the sense of the accomplishment are considered as more important for their satisfaction.

References

Adams, R.J., & Parrott R. (1994). Pediatric nurses' communication of role expectations to parents of hospitalized children. *Journal of Applied Communications Research*, 22(1), 36-47.

- Alderfer, C.P. (1972). *Human need in organizational settings*. The Free Press of Glendoc. New York.
- Alken, L. H., Smith, H.L., & Lake, E.T (1994). Lower Medicare mortality among a set of hospitals known for good nursing care. *Med care*, 32, 771-787.
- Alpander, G.G. (1990). Relationship between commitment to hospital goals and job satisfaction: a case study of a nursing department. *Health Care Management Review* 15(4), 51-62
- Babin, B.J., & Boles, J.S. (1996) .The effects of perceived co-worker involvement and supervisor support on service provider role stress, performance, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing*, 72(1), 57–75.
- Blegen, M.A. (1993). Nurses job-satisfaction- A metaanalysis of related variables. *Nursing Research*, 42(1), 36-41.
- Bolton, S. (2005). Making up managers: the case of NHS nurses. *Work Employment and Society* 19(1), 5-23.
- Brief, A.P. (1998). *Attitudes in and around organisations*. California: Sage Publications.
- Brown, S.P., Cron, W.L., & Leigh, T.W. (1993). Do feelings of success mediate sales performance-work attitude relationships? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 21, 91-99.
- Case, B., Himmelstein, D. Woolhandler, S. (2002). No Care for the Caregivers: Declining Health Insurance Coverage for Health Care Personnel and Their Children. *American Journal of Public Health*, 92,404-408.
- Davies, H.T, Nutley, S.M, Mannion, R. (2000). Organisational culture and quality of healthcare. *Quality healthcare*, 9, 111-119.
- Demoussis, M., & Giannakopoulos, N. (2007). Exploring Job satisfaction in private and public employment: Empirical evidence from Greece. *Labour*, 21(2), 333-359.
- Eric, S.W, Linzer, M., Pathman, E.D. (2003). What do physicians want in their ideal job? *Journal of Medical Practice Management*, 179-183.
- Fields, D.L. (2002). *Taking the Measure of Work: A Guide to Validated Scales for Organizational Research and Diagnosis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Finn, C.P. (2001). Autonomy: an important component for nurses' job satisfaction. *International Journal of Nursing Studies* 38, 349–357.
- Fisher, C.D. (2003). Why Do Lay People Believe That Satisfaction and Performance Are Correlated? Possible Sources of a Commonsense Theory. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(6), 753-77.
- Flood, A.B, Fennell, M.L. (1995). Through the lenses of organizational sociology: the role of organization theory and research in conceptualizing and examining our health care system. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 1, 154-169.
- Herzberg, F. (1966). *Work and the nature of man*. Cleveland, OH: World Publishing Company
- Hirschfeld, R.R. (2000). Does Revising the Intrinsic and Extrinsic Subscales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form Make a Difference?, *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 60(2), 255-70.
- Hulin, E. (1991). Adaptation, persistence and commitment in organization. In M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook in Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, 2, 445-506
- Hurlbert, J.S. (1991). Social networks, social circles and job satisfaction. *Work and Occupations*, 18, 415-430.
- Judge, T.A., Bono, J.E., Thoresen, C.J., & Patto, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction–job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 376-407.
- Kaplow, S.R. (1996). Dispositional antecedents of job satisfaction: an exploration of mediating processes. Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: *The Sciences and Engineering* 56(11-B), 6434.
- Kim, S. (2002). Participative management and job satisfaction: Lessons for management leadership. *Public Administration Review*, 62, 231–241.

- Koustelios, A. (2001). Personal characteristics and job satisfaction of Greek teachers. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(7), 354-358.
- Lease, S.H. (1998). Annual review, 1993–1997: Work attitudes and outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 53, 154–183.
- Locke, E.A. (1974). The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction, in Marvin D. Dunnette, ed., *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, New York: Holt Rinehart, 1297-1349.
- Malka, A., & Chatman, J.A. (2003). Intrinsic and extrinsic work orientations as moderators of the effect of annual income on subjective well-being: A longitudinal analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29, 737–746.
- Martins, H. (2012). Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire – Psychometric properties and validation in a population of Portuguese hospital workers. *FEP Working Papers*, 471.
- Mathieu, J.E. (1991). Across Level Nonrecursive Model of the Antecedents of Organizational Commitment and Satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 607-18.
- McClelland, D.C. (1961). *The achieving society*. New York: Van Nostrand.
- McNeese-Smith, D.K. (1996). Increasing employee productivity, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. *Hospital Health Service Administration*, 41(2), 160-175.
- Moumtzoglou, A., Dafogianni, C., Karra, V., Michailidou, D., Lazarou, P., Bartsocas, C. (2000). Development and application of a questionnaire for assessing parent satisfaction with care. *International Journal of Quality Health Care*, 12(4), 31–7.
- Norrish, B.R., Rundall, T.G. (2001). Hospital restructuring and the work of registered nurses. *Milbank Q* 2001, 79, 55-79.
- O'Reilly, C.A., & Caldwell, D. (1979). Informational influence as a determinant of perceived task characteristics and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 64, 157-165.
- Schneider, B., & Locke, E. A. (1971). A critique of Herzberg's classification system and a suggested revision. *Organisational Behavior and Human Performance*, 12, 441-458.
- Schriesheim, C.A., Powers, K. J., Scandura, T.A., Gardiner, C.C. and Lankau, M.J. (1993). Improving Construct Measurement in Management Research: Comments and a Quantitative Approach for Assessing the Theoretical Content Adequacy of Paper-and-Pencil Survey-Type Instruments. *Journal of Management*, 19(2), 385-417.
- Shalley, C.E., Gilson, L.L., & Blum, T.C. (2000). Matching creativity requirements and the work environment: Effects on satisfaction and intent to turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43, 215–224
- Shanafelt, T.D., Bradley, K.A., Wipf, J.E., & Back, A L. (2002). Burnout and self-reported patient care in an internal medicine residency program. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 136, 358–367.
- Spagnoli, P., Caetano, A., & Santos, S.C. (2012). Satisfaction with Job Aspects: Do Patterns Change over Time? *Journal of Business Research*, 65(5), 609-16
- Spector, P.E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage
- Sutherland V.J, Cooper C. (1992). Job stress, satisfaction, and mental health among general practitioners before and after introduction of new contract. *BMJ*, 304, 1545–1548.
- Taylor, F.W. (1911). *The principles of scientific management*. Harper & Brothers, New York.
- Theodossiou, I., & Pouliakas, K. (2005). Socio-economic differences in the job satisfaction of high-paid workers in Greece. *Economic Bulletin of Bank of Greece*, 24, 83-115.
- Togia, A., Koustelios, A., & Tsigilis, N. (2004). Job Satisfaction among Greek academic librarians. *Library and Information Science Research*, 26, 373-383.

Tountas Y., Karnaki P., Pavi E., Souliotis K. (2005). The “unexpected” growth of the private health sector in Greece. *Health Policy*, 74, 167–180.

Trice, H., & Beyer, J. (1993). *The Culture of Work Organization*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and Motivation*. New York: Wiley.

Weiss, D.J., Dawis, R.V. England, G.W. & Lofquist, L.H. (1967). *Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire*. Vol. 22, Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Industrial Relations Center.

Wise, S. (2007). Wanted: the next generation of nurse and midwifery managers. *International Journal of Public Sector Management* 20(6), 473-483.

Wu, S., Zhu, W., Wang, Z., Wang, M., Lan, Y. (2007). Relationship between burnout and occupational stress among nurses in China. *Journal of Advanced Nursing* 59, 233-239.

In Greek:

Gerovasilou, S. (2009). The job satisfaction of Doctors and nurses in a public hospital of the National Healthcare System; The case of Hippocratic general regional hospital of Thessaloniki. Greek Open University, Unpublished postgraduate thesis.

Papanikolaou, G. K. (2007). Job satisfaction and burnout of doctors, nurses and administrative staff in the Papageorgiou general hospital of Thessaloniki. University of Patras, Unpublished postgraduate thesis.

Sourmpasi, M. (2006). Work fatigue, professional commitment, job satisfaction and quality of life of the medical and nursing staff in Lefkada General Hospital. University of Patras, Unpublished postgraduate thesis.

The Influence of Public Service Motivation on Service Quality of Civil Servants in West Sumatra Indonesia

Syamsir

Senior Lecturer of Padang State University, West Sumatra Indonesia;

Abstract

Background – Most of PSM studies tend to conclude that PSM cases and theories are cross-culturally viable. Besides, so far, most PSM research focuses more on employees (public and private) in the Western and developed countries; and almost no study of the PSM in developing countries. In addition, most of the PSM theories tended to generalize the assumptions of the PSM among employees and often ignore cultural dimensions in their analysis, including in relation to the effect of PSM on the quality of work. **Purpose** – The purpose of this study was to find out the influence of Public Service Motivation (PSM) on service quality of civil servants in a wide range of government agencies in the province of West Sumatra. **Design/methodology/approach** – This study used quantitative methods. Data were collected through proportional stratified random sampling from a sample consisted of 1,270 respondents from some government institutions in West Sumatra province. Data were analyzed with multiple regression analysis. **Finding** – The finding of this study indicated that the overall public service motivation significantly influenced on the service quality of civil servants in a wide range of government agencies in West Sumatra province. Besides, the results of this study also indicated that the PSM dimension associated with commitment to public interest have a greater influence than the other dimensions of PSM, namely attraction to public policy making, compassion, and self sacrifice. **Practical Implications** – This study would be offering a consideration and advice to the local government about the need to consider the aspects of public service motivation in improving the service quality of civil servants, especially in West Sumatra Indonesia.

Keywords : Public Service Motivation (PSM), service quality, civil servants

Introduction

The study of Public Service Motivation (PSM) has become one of the most popular studies in public administration in more than three decades. In addition, PSM is still a new concept and theory that need to be tested with more research findings. The earliest investigation of PSM was conducted in 1982 by Hal G. Rainey, when he tried to measure PSM by asking public and private sector managers about their desire to participate in “meaningful public service” (Brewer and Selden, 1998).

PSM has often defined as ‘an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations’ (Perry and Wise, 1990). In their definition, Perry and Wise thus focused on the unique features of government that might drive individuals. Based on rational, norm-based and affective ground, Perry (1996) found four dimensions of PSM: attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest and civic duty, compassion, and self-sacrifice. On the other side, Brewer and Selden (1998) have defined PSM as ‘the motivating force that makes individuals deliver significant public service’. While Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) define PSM as a ‘general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humanity’. Crewson (1995) also defined the PSM as an individual service orientation that is useful for society, the orientation of helping others, and the feeling of accomplishment as intrinsic or service orientation.

From these definitions, it could be understood that PSM is a characteristic or special features and should be manifested among public servants. But, on the other side, it does not mean that PSM is only belonging to public servants. PSM is also very likely found among the employees of the private sector or other sectors. Many studies in developed countries have shown that individuals with greater public service motivation (PSM) values are more likely to work for government (Perry and Wise, 1990; Ertas, 2014), because government jobs offer more public service opportunities. The question then arises

of whether they are also give well performance and good quality service to citizen. Based on his study on the relationship between employment in the government sector and self-reported volunteering in organization, Ertas (2014) found that government employees engage in significantly more volunteering than their private-sector counterparts. It means that employees with greater public service motivation values are more likely to be volunteering thus they are more likely to perform and address good service to citizens.

Based on their study related to extrinsic motivation, PSM and labour market characteristics in a multilevel model of public sector employment preference in 26 countries, Van De Walle, Steijn, and Jilke (2015) found that on the individual level, public service motivation and extrinsic motivation are both important drivers for this preference. Intrinsic motivation, in turn, is negatively related to people's inclination to work for the public sector. Working for the public sector is seen as a good and safe career option. In countries with a career-rather than position-based system of public employment, people are more likely to prefer public employment. The findings reveal that public service motivation (helping other people, being useful to society) and extrinsic motives (job security, a high income, opportunities for advancement) play an important role in this preference.

Many studies on PSM generally assumed that PSM have a positive effect on job performance (Perry and Wise, 1990; Schott, Van Kleef, and Steen, 2015; Van Loon, 2015; Taylor, 2011). It means that PSM also influenced on the service quality of employees, including civil servants. In addition, numerous studies have shown that public service motivation (PSM) is positively associated with public sector employment (Kjeldsen and Jacobsen, 2013). Besides, Rose (2013) also argued that public service motivation (PSM) research has demonstrated the association of PSM with interest in government and nonprofit careers.

According to studies that have been conducted in some developed countries, PSM were found to have significant influences and correlations with job performance, service quality, and the success of employees or organizations to achieve their objectives. Some researchers have put their attention and look at the importance of studies on PSM. However, the studies so far were more conducted in the developed countries, both in Western and other developed countries. Perry and Wise (1990), for instance, found that public service motivation is positively related to individual performance in public organizations. However, the research finding among public servants in the developed countries certainly can not be generalized to the case and the PSM among the public servants in other countries, especially the third world country like Indonesia, where the context of the countries and the characteristics of the employees might be different compared to those in the West or developed countries in terms of demographic conditions, culture, religious (belief), etc.

This paper will try to analyze the influence of public service motivation on service quality of public servants in West Sumatra, Indonesia. Then the main research question of this study can be summarized as: Is there a significant influence of PSM on service quality of civil servants in West Sumatra? This study was conducted in 2014 in collaboration with and supported by General Directorate of Higher Education, the Ministry of National Education of Indonesia.

The Literature Study and Concept of Public Service Motivation (PSM)

In the last three decades, study about PSM and related constructs in other fields has grown significantly. In a subsequent analysis of PSM and government effectiveness, Rainey and Steinbauer (1999), for instance, offered a more general definition of PSM. They associated the construct with altruism in referring to PSM as a "general, altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind". The Rainey and Steinbauer definition is similar to that of Brewer and Selden (1998), who defined the concept of PSM as "the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful public, community, and social service". Brewer and Selden emphasize its behavioral implications and applicability beyond the public sector.

The most recent variation of the definition within public administration emanates from research in Europe by Vandenberghe (2007), who defined PSM as "the beliefs, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate". Beside, PSM can also be broadly defined as the beliefs, values, and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest to energize employees to do good for others and contribute to the well-being of organizations and society (Perry and Hondeghem 2008).

However, the most commonly cited definition of public service motivation (PSM) literature is credited to James L. Perry and Lois R. Wise that defines PSM as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations." In their definition, Perry and Wise thus focused on the unique features of government

that might drive individuals. Building on Rainey's work, Perry and Wise (1990) identified three bases of PSM: rational, norm-based, and affective. First, rational motives are grounded in individual utility maximization, and they are operative when individuals want to participate in the policy process, are committed to a public program because of personal identification with it, and serve as advocates for a special or private interest. Second, norm-based motives are grounded in a desire to pursue the common good and further the public interest, however one perceives it. These motives include patriotism, duty, and loyalty to the government. Third, affective motives are grounded in human emotion, and they are characterized by a desire and willingness to help others.

After establishing this theoretical framework, Perry and Wise (1990) formulated three propositions: 1) The greater an individual's PSM, the more likely it is that the individual will seek membership in a public organization. 2) In public organizations, PSM is positively related to performance. 3) Public organizations that attract members with high levels of PSM are likely to be less dependent on utilitarian incentives to manage individual performance effectively.

In addition to valuing intrinsic rewards over extrinsic ones, public service motivation suggests that public employees or civil servants are more likely than private sector employees to possess attitudes that are other directed. While other studies found that civil servants (public employees) to be more altruistic (Rainey 1997), supportive of democratic values (Blair and Garand 1995), and committed to civic duty (Conway 2000) than private sector employees. For these reasons, Brewer (2003) concludes that civil servants are motivated by a strong desire to perform public, community, and social services. This also means that quality service of civil servants should be assumed to be influenced by PSM level of the civil servants.

Public service motivation (PSM) is one the most important ideas introduced into the field of public administration within the last three decades. Scholars have characterized PSM in many different ways, such as a service ethic, calling, or altruistic aims that motivate individuals to serve the public interest, help others, and be useful to society (Leonard Bright, 2011). Some scholars have also argued that people with high levels of these characteristics are good employees in public organizations.

Based on their study in North Carolina, USA, Clerkin and Cogburn (2012) found that PSM is a moderate indicator of an individual's sector preference. It means that as PSM increases, the attractiveness of working also increases; and, finally it is expected that the service quality of the individuals in the work also increases. Focusing on a pre-service sample of undergraduate students allows them to conclude that PSM is a need people have prior to entering the workplace, and it may indeed drive whether an individual works in the government, nonprofit, or for-profit sector.

The theory of PSM is generally used to suggest that individuals with greater PSM are more likely (1) to be found working in government because of the opportunities it offers to provide meaningful public service, and (2) to perform better in – and feel more satisfied with – their public sector jobs because they find this type of work intrinsically rewarding. Based on this proposition, one of the fundamental assumptions in PSM research is that individuals with greater PSM are more likely to work in government because of the opportunities it offers to provide meaningful public service (Bradley E. Wright and Adam M. Grant. 2010). This assumption is supported by a growing body of empirical research that has found PSM to be higher among public sector employees than among private sector employees. Unfortunately, the evidence for the second part of the assumption, focusing on the cause of these differences, is largely circumstantial. While public employees may have higher PSM because the work of government agencies attracts individuals with those values, the differences may also be a result of organizational environments that cultivate those values in their employees over time (Pandey and Stazyk, 2008; Moynihan and Pandey, 2007).

Determinants for Service Quality

Service quality is often and generally defined as a comparison of expectations about a service with performance. Service quality can also be simply defined as an achievement in customer service. In general, customers or citizens compare perceived service with expected service in which if the former falls short of the latter the customers are disappointed. Service quality could be related to service potential (such as, worker's qualifications); service process (such as, the quickness of service) and service result (that is, customer satisfaction). A public service with high service quality will meet customer or citizen needs and improved service quality may increase the trust of citizens to civil servants.

Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) have defined service quality as the ability of the organization to meet or exceed customer expectations. Service quality can also be defined as an overall judgment similar to attitude towards the service and generally accepted as an antecedent of overall customer satisfaction (Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996). There is usually the difference between customer expectations of service and perceived service. Perceived service quality results from comparisons by

customers of expectations with their perceptions of service delivered by the suppliers. If expectations are greater than performance, then perceived quality is less than satisfactory and hence customer dissatisfaction occurs (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985; Lewis and Mitchell, 1990).

In their previous studies on a conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research, Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) proposed three themes on service quality, that is: 1) Difficult and complicated to evaluate as compared to tangible goods quality; 2) Service quality perception results from actual service performance vs consumer expectations, and 3) Quality evaluation not solely focuses on outcome of service. But also involves the evaluation of service delivery process.

Service quality in various service activities has gain a lot of attention from researches and practitioners. The origins of numerous instruments measuring service quality can be traced back the pioneering work of Parasuraman and his colleagues. Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1990) described that there are ten determinants that may influence a service quality, as they described in the SERVQUAL model, that is: reliability, responsiveness, competence, access, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, understanding the customer and tangibles. These determinants were later reduced to five, that is: tangibles; reliability; responsiveness; service assurance, and empathy (so called as RATER model). *Reliability* means the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately; *Assurance* referred to the knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence; *Tangibles* means the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials; *Empathy*, that is the provision of caring, individualized attention to customers, and *Responsiveness* referred to the willingness to help customers and to provide prompt service.

The simplified RATER model allows customer service experiences to be explored and assessed quantitatively and has been used widely by service delivery organizations. Nyeck, Morales, Ladhari, and Pons (2002) stated the SERVQUAL measuring tool appears to remain the most complete attempt to conceptualize and measure service quality. The SERVQUAL measuring tool has been used by several researchers to examine numerous service industries such as healthcare, banking, financial services, and education. Nevertheless, based on some considerations, the current study have referred the concept of service quality to the opinion of Dwiyanto, *et al.* (2002). Dwiyanto *et al.* described that there are eight indicators to measure (or influence) the service quality among civil servants in Indonesia, that is: 1) Immediacy in the delivery of services; 2) Timeliness of services; 3) Ease in the service process; 4) Funding reasonable in the service process; 5) easiness in communication access; 6) Readiness of employees if necessary; 7) Justice in providing services; and 8) public satisfaction with the service.

Public Service Motivation and Service Quality

The generally assumption underlying the research on public service motivation is that individuals working in government demonstrate a commitment to the public interest, a desire to serve others, and self-sacrifice (Houston 20006). Hence, issues regarding PSM (and work motivation in general) have generated particular interest because they are assumed to have a positive influence on job satisfaction and fulfilment; and appear to have a positive impact on the job behaviour of individuals and their respective level of performance (Emanuel Camilleri, 2007). Thus, it is also assumed that the PSM influence the quality of service among employees. Besides, one of three PSM propositions formulated by Perry and Wise (1990) stated that in public organizations, public sector motivation is positively related to performance. This proposition means that PSM is assumed to have positive influence on service quality of a civil servant.

Van Loon, Vandenabeele, and Leisink (2015) argued that a core proposition of public service motivation (PSM) theory is that PSM is positively related to individual performance. The PSM-performance relationship may be more complex than previously envisioned, as both type of performance and person-job fit matter. On the other side, public service as a calling leads civil servants to share knowledge in order to create more advanced organizational knowledge and accordingly improve public service performance (Chen and Hsieh, 2015). Generally, in public institution, public sector managers want to attract employees with high public service motivation as they are expected to perform better (Andersen, 2012).

Many literature of public service motivation expects public service motivation (PSM) to affect performance, but most of the existing studies of this relationship use subjective performance data and focus on output rather than outcome (Andersen, Heinesen, and Pedersen (2014). On the other side, most of motivation scholars have argued that intrinsic motivation is an important driver of employee attitudes (Cho and Perry, 2012). Based on this, it is expected that with higher level of public

service motivation, civil servants will perform better in their task to serve citizens. Thus, it is also assumed that the PSM influence the quality of service among civil servants.

Steijn (2008) found that PSM's effect on public employee job satisfaction and intention to stay in their jobs was stronger when employees felt that their work was useful to society. In addition, Van Loon (2015) argued that empirical studies have found a positive relationship between public service motivation (PSM) and individual performance. However, it is uncertain whether PSM inspires similar behaviors among employees in different contexts. In addition, based on their study in Denmark, Andersen, Heinesen, and Pedersen (2014) investigated the association between PSM and the performance of Danish teachers using an objective outcome measure. Based on the study they found that PSM is positively associated with examination marks. The result indicated that PSM may be relevant for performance (service quality) improvements.

Beyond job reward motivators, PSM suggests that public employees are more likely than private employees to possess attitudes that are "other directed." Consistent with this expectation, Brewer (2003) finds that public employees score higher on attitudinal items related to social trust, altruism, equality, tolerance, and humanitarianism. Other studies have found public employees to possess more altruistic attitudes than private sector workers (Rainey 1997), be more supportive of democratic values (Blair and Garand, 1995), and possess a higher sense of civic duty (Conway, 2000). Based on these findings Brewer (2003) concludes that public servants "are motivated by a strong desire to perform public, community, and social service". As a result, based on this proposition, it is expected that PSM will have a significant influence on service quality of an employee, especially civil servants.

Research Methods

This study used quantitative approach. The data upon which this paper is based were collected in a survey among civil servants from some government institutions in West Sumatera, Indonesia. Data in this study were collected through questionnaires distributed to respondents from some regency government institutions in West Sumatera.

As stated before, public service motivation consists of a number of dimensions. However, in order to limit the analyses, this paper only considers an aggregate instrument of PSM. This instrument involves averaging the score on a set of PSM items, scored from 1 to 5 (1 for 'strongly disagree' to 5 for 'strongly agree') for positive items and from 5 to 1 for the reversed items. The items used in this study referred to Perry's subscales of PSM dimension and measures (Perry, 1996). While service quality in this study referred to Dwiyanto et.al. (2002) indicators consisting of: 1) Immediacy in service delivery; 2) Timeliness of services; 3) Ease in the service process; 4) Funding reasonable in the service process; 5) easiness in communication access; 6) Readiness of employees; 7) Justice in providing services; and 8) public satisfaction with the service.

The target population for this study focused on all civil servants in local government institutions in West Sumatra. Number of public servants who served in West Sumatra province based on data from the Central Bureau of Statistics in 2014 is around 139,020 employees. The sample for this study were determined through *disproportional stratified random sampling*. It consisted of employees from some institutions of public sector in some regencies in West Sumatera. From the number of 1,500 questionnaires distributed in this study, it is only 1,270 respondents of public servants who give feedback.

Data in this study were collected through questionnaires with a closed set of five alternative answers using the Likert scale. Data analyzing in this study used quantitative analysis. The data in this study was also double entered to check for errors and analysed with multiple regression.

Finding and Discussion

The main hypothesis of this study stated that there is a significant influence of PSM on service quality of civil servants in West Sumatra, Indonesia. After the coefficient of determination and the adjusted coefficient of determination have calculated, the regression statistic through ENTER method is used in this study. As can be seen in Table 2, the regression analysis indicates the relationship between the variables. Since the computed significance level is 0.000 and less than 0.5, with a 95% confidence level, then the null hypothesis is rejected and the research hypothesis is confirmed. In other words, there is a significant influence of the variables of PSM on service quality among civil servants.

Almost all of studies on PSM in developed countries, as conducted by Perry and Wise (1990), Perry (1996 and 2000), Choi (2001), Andersen (2012), Cho and Perry (2012), Andersen, Heinesen, and Pedersen (2014), Van Loon, Vandenabeele, and Leisink (2015), Chen and Hsieh (2015), and others, generally found that there was a significant influence of PSM on job performance among civil servants. This means that the PSM is also assumed to have influence on service quality.

Based on various research findings, the main objective of this study is to determine the influence of PSM on service quality of civil servants in West Sumatra, Indonesia. To meet this objective the main hypothesis of this study stated that: There is a significant influence of PSM on service quality of civil servants in West Sumatra, Indonesia. Testing on this hypothesis has been made using multiple regression tests. The result is as seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Influence of PSM on service quality of civil servants

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.163	.027	.026	.56262	1.106

The results of data analysis using multiple regression shows that PSM has weak influence and little contribution on service quality, with the correlation coefficient of 0.163. This shows a quite far relation (far from 1) on service quality. The direction of positive relation (no negative sign in figure 0.163) shows the higher the PSM level the higher service quality of the civil servants. Likewise, the lower the PSM level the lower service quality of the civil servants.

In addition, based on the table 1 (Adjusted R Square = .026), PSM contributed only 2.6 percent on service quality. It means that PSM has only very little contribution on service quality (only 2.6%). In other words, it could be stated that 2.6% of the variation of service quality can be explained by the PSM. Meanwhile, the rest (100% - 2.6% = 97.4%) could be influenced by other reasons that have not been revealed in this study.

Furthermore, the level of influence significance of the output (measured by probability) gives the figure of 0.000 or practically 0, as seen in Table 2. Because the probability is far below 0.05, then the influence of PSM on service quality is very real and could be trusted up to 100% or even more.

Table 2: Significance of PSM influence on service quality

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10.989	1	10.989	34.716	.000 ^a
	Residual	401.376	1268	.317		
	Total	228.334	1269			

The present study aimed to investigate the influence of PSM on service quality of civil servants in West Sumatra, Indonesia. Generally, the studies related to influence of PSM on job performance (including service quality) demonstrated a significant and strong relationship (influence) among the variables. The findings of the current research also illustrated a significant influence of PSM on service quality. However, PSM only contributed very little and weak to service quality.

Furthermore, the results of this study is of course in line with almost all of studies on PSM as conducted by Perry and Wise (1990), Perry (1996 and 2000), Choi (2001), Andersen, et.al. (2012), Cho and Perry (2012), Andersen, Heinesen, and Pedersen (2014), Van Loon, Vandenabeele, and Leisink (2015), Chen and Hsieh (2015), and others, which found that there was a significant influence of PSM on job performance or service quality among civil servants. However the present study demonstrated that the influence of PSM on service quality is very weak (only 2.6%).

Research findings on PSM in many developed countries often found something different compared to the research findings in the third world countries. Therefore, it is understandable that the current findings quite differ in many ways compared to the findings on the same case in the developed countries. Studies from several developed countries in the West, such as the United States, Britain, Sweden, Australia, and others, including findings about the level of PSM in Korea, as has been conducted by Choi (2001), found that in general PSM has strong influence on job performance or service quality of civil servants.

Most of motivation scholars have argued that intrinsic motivation, including PSM, is an important driver of employee attitudes (Cho and Perry, 2012). Based on this, it is expected that with higher level of public service motivation, public servants will perform better and address good service quality in their task to serve citizens. Nevertheless, Van Loon (2015) argued that although empirical studies have found a positive relationship between public service motivation (PSM) and individual performance, the relationship may be differed in any contexts.

In addition, Houston (2000) and Willem et.al (2007) also found that the employees in the public sector puts a higher value on intrinsic rewards of work in the form of work performance (service quality), good social relations, and self-esteem of the rewards that are extrinsic, such as financial payments, promotions, career advancement, job security, status and prestige. This means that the employees at the government organizations or positions more motivated by their awareness to the community and a desire to serve the public interest and less concerned with rewards that are extrinsic to purely personal interests. Based on this, it is more likely that civil servants will perform better and address good service quality in their tasks to serve public interest.

However, most of general conclusions which states that "PSM has strong influence on job performance or service quality", as often founded by researchers in the West or other developed countries, could not be applied to the public servants in West Sumatra. This also shows that it appears to assume that Choi's finding (2001), based on his study among civil servants in Korea, does not generally occur in any area of the country. As stated above, Choi was of the opinion that PSM is a common and important basis for public servants, and the implications of the PSM on the employee behavior in developed countries in the West, such as the United States, also occurs among the civil servants in Korea. Thus Choi viewed that the theory of PSM might occur in cross-cultural (cross-culturally viable). However, this assumption does not occur in the case of PSM and service quality of civil servants in West Sumatra.

Thus in general, it is understandable that the theories related to the study of the PSM in various public sectors in developed countries, especially in the United States, Australia and other developed countries, could not be generalized to all contexts, especially for public servants in developing or third world countries that have characteristics of a social, cultural, economic, ideological, religious, and other values which might be different from those of in the West. As a result, these differences may lead to the different situation and influences of PSM on service quality of civil servants in different places (countries).

Conclusion

More than three decades, scholarly interest in Public Service Motivation (PSM) has grown remarkably. Theories and findings on PSM have also been debated in various studies in some developed countries more than three decades. However, those studies have not managed to get a strong theory to explain these PSM cases among the employees. The findings still need new evidences based on studies in various contexts and regions of the any countries so that they can find a stronger theory at one time.

Most of PSM studies conducted in developed countries so far, especially in the West, generally found that the PSM has very strong influences on service quality or job performance. The higher level of PSM the higher service quality performed by civil servants. In addition, several findings also imply that the level of the PSM and its influence on service quality of civil public servants in developed countries in the West is also assumed to exist among public servants in any area of the country. A few scholars argued that the theory of PSM might be cross-culturally viable. But, of course, this conclusion is not entirely true and does not occur in the case of PSM among public servants in West Sumatra.

The findings of this study have several implications for the theory, particularly to the development of public administration, especially further to the matters related to the administration of public services and the influence of PSM on service quality of civil servants. This means that the results of this study can contribute ideas and more enriching knowledge related to public administration and public service motivation.

The findings of this study clearly show that the theory of PSM can not be generally comprehended and concluded as a valid theory. As to understand so far, the theories of PSM in Western countries or other developed countries almost generally view that the theory of PSM might be cross-culturally viable. However, this assumption could not be applied in the case of PSM among civil servants in West Sumatra. PSM in the different areas and conditions will naturally show different things as well. The studies of PSM so far might have assumed that the level of PSM tends to have strong influence on service quality of civil servants. However, it seems that these studies did not take into account the existence of the aspects of culture, ideology, economic level of a community, and other unique characteristics of the civil servants. In other words it can be assumed that the theory of PSM is not cross-culturally viable as we knew so far.

Note

This article is Abstracted from the results of study funded by the Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of National Education of Indonesia in 2014.

References

- Andersen, Lotte Bogh (2012) Attracting public service motivated employees: how to design compensation packages. *International Review of Administrative Sciences* December 2012 78 (4).
- Andersen, Lotte Bogh, Eskil Heinesen and Lene Holm Pedersen (2014) How does public service motivation among teachers affect student performance in schools? *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* July 2014 24: 651-671.
- Andersen, Lotte Bogh, Thomas Pallesen and Lene Holm Pedersen (2011) Does ownership matter? public service motivation among physiotherapists in the private and public sectors in Denmark. *Review of Public Personnel Administration* March 2011 31 (1).
- Blair, Williams and James C Garand (1995) Are bureaucrats different? democratic values, political tolerance, and support for the political system among government employees and other citizens. In: *Annual Meeting of the American Political Science Association* August 31-September 3, Chicago.
- Bradley E. Wright and Adam M. Grant (2010) "Unanswered Questions about Public Service Motivation: Designing Research to Address Key Issues of Emergence and Effects". *Public Administration Review*. September - October 2010, 691-700
- Brewer, GA (2003) Building social capital: attitudes and behavior of public servants. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 13 (1): 5-26.
- Brewer, GA and Selden SC (1998) Whistle blowers in the federal civil service: new evidence of public service ethic. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 8 (3):413-39.
- Chen, Chung-An and Chih-Wei Hsieh (2015) Knowledge sharing motivation in the public sector: the role of public service motivation. *International Review of Administrative Sciences* December 2015 81: 812-832.
- Cho, Yoon Jik and James L Perry (2012) Intrinsic motivation and employee attitudes: role of managerial trustworthiness, goal directedness, and extrinsic reward expectancy. *Review of Public Personnel Administration* December 2012 32 (4).
- Choi, Young Joon (2001) *A Study of Public Service Motivation: The Korean Experience*. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Idaho.
- Clerkin, Richard M and Jerrel D Coggburn (2012) The dimensions of public service motivation and sector work preferences. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, September 2012 32 (3).
- Conway, M Margareth (2000) *Political Participation in the United States*. 3rd Ed. Washington, DC: CQ Press.
- Dwiyanto, A., et.al. (2002) *Public Bureaucracy Reform in Indonesia (Reformasi Birokrasi Publik di Indonesia)*. Yogyakarta: PSKK UGM.
- Emanuel Camilleri (2007) "Antecedents Affecting Public Service Motivation". *Personnel Review*, 2007, Vol. 36, Issue: 3 pp. 356 – 377.
- Ertas, Nevbahar (2014) Public service motivation theory and voluntary organizations: do government employees volunteer more?. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, April 2014 43 (2).
- Houston, David J (2000) Public service motivation: a multivariate test. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory (J-PART)*, 2000 10 (4): 713-727.
- Kjeldsen, Anne Mette and Christian Botcher Jacobsen (2013) Public service motivation and employment sector: attraction or socialization?. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* October 2013 23: 899-926.
- Leonard Bright (2011) "Does Public Service Motivation Affect the Occupation Choices of Public Employees?" *Public Personnel Management* Volume 40 No. 1 Spring 2011; 11-23
- Lewis, B.R. & Mitchell, V.W. (1990) "Defining and measuring the quality of customer service," *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, vol. 8(6), p.11-17.
- Moynihan, D.P. and S.K. Pandey (2007) "The Role of Organizations in Fostering Public Service Motivation" in *Public Administration Review* 67 (1): 40 - 53
- Nyeck, S., Morales, M., Ladhari, R., & Pons, F. (2002) "10 years of service quality measurement: reviewing the use of the SERVQUAL instrument." *Cuadernos de Difusion*, 7(13), 101-107. Retrieved July 8, 2007, from EBSCOhost database.
- Pandey, Sanjay K. and Edmund C. Stazyk (2008) "Antecedents and Correlates of Public Service Motivation" in James

- Perry and Annie Hondeghem: *Motivation in Public Management. The Call of Public Service*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. and Berry, L.L. (1985) A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research, *The Journal of Marketing*, p. 41–50.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, Valerie A. & Berry, Leonard L. (1988) "SERVQUAL: a multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality," *Journal of Retailing*, vol. 64(1), p. 12-40
- Perry, James L (1996) Measuring public service motivation: an assessment of construct reliability and validity. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory (J-PART)* 6 (1): 5-23
- Perry, James L (2000) Bringing society in: toward a theory of public service motivation. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* April 2000: 471-488.
- Perry, James L and Lois Recascino Wise (1990) The motivational bases of public service. *Public Administration Review* May/June 1990 50:367-373.
- Perry, James L. and Annie Hondeghem (2008) *Motivation in Public Management. The Call of Public Service*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Rainey, Hal G (1982) Reward references among public and private managers: in search of the service ethic. *American Review of Public Administration* 1982 16: 288-302.
- Rainey, Hal G (1997) *Understanding and Managing Public Organizations*. 2nd ed. San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Rainey, Hal G and Paula Steinbauer (1999) Galloping elephant: developing elements of theory of effective government organizations. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* January 1999 9 (1): 1-32.
- Rose, Roger P (2013) Preferences for careers in public work: examining the government–nonprofit divide among undergraduates through public service motivation. *The American Review of Public Administration* July 2013 43: 416-437.
- Schott, Carina, Daphne D van Cleef and Trui Steen (2015) What does it mean and imply to be public service motivated? *The American Review of Public Administration* November 2015 45 (6).
- Steijn, B. (2008) "Person-environment fit and public service motivation", *International Public Management Journal*, 11 (1), pp. 13-27.
- Taylor, Jeannette and Randal Taylor (2011) Working hard for more money or working hard to make a difference? Efficiency wages, public service motivation, and effort. *Review of Public Personnel Administration* March 2011 31 (1).
- Van De Walle, Steven, Bram Steijn and Sebastian Jilke (2015) Extrinsic motivation, PSM and labour market characteristics: a multilevel model of public sector employment preference in 26 countries. *International Review of Administrative Sciences* 2015 81 (4): 833-855.
- Van Loon, Nina Mari (2015) Does context matter for the type of performance-related behavior of public service motivated employees?. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, June 2015.
- Van Loon, Nina Mari, Wouter Vandenebeele and Peter Leisink (2015) Clarifying the relationship between public service motivation and in-role and extra-role behaviors: the relative contributions of person-job and person-organization fit. *The American Review of Public Administration*, December 2015.
- Vandenebeele, Wouter (2007) "Toward a Public Administration Theory of Public Service Motivation: An Institutional Approach", *Public Management Review*, 9 (4), pp. 545-556.
- Willem, Annick, ANS de Vos and Marc Buelens (2007) Differences between private and public sector employees' psychological contracts. *Working paper*. Belgium: Ghent University, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Department Management and Entrepreneurship, Tweekerkenstraat 2, 9000.
- Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry, "Delivering Quality Service; Balancing Customer Perceptions and Expectations," Free Press, 1990.
- Zeithaml, Valerie A. & Bitner, Mary J. (1996) *Services Marketing*, McGraw-Hill, New York, N.Y.

The International Company and Tax Avoidance

Viola Tanto

PhD Candidate in Tax Law, Business & Private Law Department European University of Tirana

Abstract

In combination with sluggish economic development, the financial crisis and the debt crisis that it triggered have contributed to the fact that tax evasion, tax fraud and tax avoidance are recognized as a serious problem. Tax evasion and tax fraud by well-known personalities from politics, sport, the arts and commerce also attract intensive coverage in the media. In the companies sector, internationalization makes it easier for global corporations to shift their profits to low-tax countries and thus to minimize their tax bill. This paper shall discuss also, the measures to combat international tax evasion to be worked out by the OECD and the G20. The fact that multinational corporations are able to reduce their tax burden on profits through tax-saving plans has been known for decades. There are several reasons for the massive increase in this phenomenon in recent years. On the one hand there has been increasing globalisation, on the other corporate structures have also changed massively in recent decades. Tax havens play an important role in this context and there is practically no global player without branches in tax havens.

Keywords: tax evasion, tax avoidance, international corporate, tax heavens, profit shift.

Introduction

Tax is at the centre of the global political and business debate. The consequences of the 2007–8 global financial crisis have increased pressure on governments to fund more with less. Business practices have changed with the rise of globalisation and the digital economy and the question arises as to whether tax rules have kept pace.

Businesses function as more than simply vehicles for generating profit. It is being argued increasingly, with legislation in some cases, that profit maximisation should not be the only goal of companies. There is an increasing drive towards 're-incorporating society into corporate purpose'.

To have a better understanding of how companies are working around the tax system, we first need to understand the different tax systems in several parts of the world. There are many different opinions on the avoidance of taxes by international companies. While companies are trying to reduce their tax expenses, many believe that companies should pay their full fair share of taxes to support their governments.

into this paper we will show what authors say about the subject and the different methods that companies are using. Before getting into how companies decrease their annual tax liability, we first need to have a general idea of how corporate taxes work in different countries. There are two main types of systems implemented in the world today. The first is the transaction based system, which is used in the U.S., Canada, and Germany. In accordance with this system, except for the U.S., taxes on active business income in a foreign country are exempt from their home country corporate taxes such as company sales and service income. The US does tax all active business, income from foreign countries which leads to the taxation of income in the foreign country as well as in the US. The difference is that the U.S. allows a foreign tax credit of income that has already been paid to foreign countries to avoid a double taxation of income. This gives companies with operations in a foreign country a tax break from their US expenses.

The second type of system is used in countries such as France, Japan, and the UK. They have a jurisdiction based approach which taxes all income of foreign subsidiaries. They exempt any active business income with a local connection from home country taxation (Hines Jr., 2009). This encourages foreign investment and allows a tax break for jurisdiction based countries. They do however tax all income of subsidiaries from low tax countries, such as tax havens.

Taxation, like any type of economic regulation, must be seen not merely as a series of more or less functional decisions by

the state and its officials, but as a dynamic and in many ways contradictory process. Business taxation, in particular, is a process primarily of negotiation between tax officials and corporate managers and advisors.

The officials, usually structured in a hierarchic bureaucracy, have the important advantage of access to state power: they can order an audit, issue an assessment to tax, publish regulations and statements of practice, or resort to the courts or legislature to clarify or amend the law. Recourse either to legal adjudication or legislative intervention depends not only on technical legal issues such as the interpretation of statute or the logic of case-law, but a variety of other factors.

The form of state regulation which most closely corresponds to a fully developed market-economy society is liberal regulation. Liberal forms of regulation require the maximum freedom for social actors to engage in economic transactions, within a framework of fixed and settled laws which enable them to choose and plan their transactions (Smith and Kinsey, 1987). Law enforcement is indirect, relying primarily on voluntary compliance, supplemented by inducements, or post facto sanctions on detected lawbreaking. The processes of legal regulation of economic relations are therefore essentially structured by markets and competition. The regulators, on behalf of the state, enforce the laws and seek to implement and develop policy, while the economic actors whose activities are regulated are free to choose and adapt their transactions. They may comply with or breach the law. More importantly, their actions may influence the patterns of development of legal relations as much as do the measures taken by regulators.

Methodology

In this article is used a traditional legal methodology, which means that the hierarchy of the legal sources is followed.

Instead of domestic interpretation principles many states.

I will be looking at several international companies and studying their relationships with corporate tax rates. Companies continuously avoid paying taxes by using various techniques. Looking at the past, records of these companies will show the different methodologies they use to manage their way through tax laws. Governments are losing huge revenues to these tax avoidance schemes. In recent years, governments have started to track down international companies and question their various ways of tax avoidance. In this paper I will be asking the question of what are the different tax avoidance techniques that international companies use and how are different national governments trying to control them?

Besides the fact that many companies are trying to keep up with competition and continuously grow, many need to find ways to gain an advantage over the competition. To increase revenue and expand on profits, companies need to find ways to avoid paying unnecessary expenses. By moving their operations overseas, corporations largely reduce, or avoid paying altogether, corporate taxes. Corporate taxes play a vital role in governmental revenue generation, however, by reducing corporate taxes, multinational companies gain an enormous advantage over their competitors and greatly increase their after tax profits. There are many different ways multinationals do this which we will look at.

Looking at the different tax laws regarding the taxation of multinational companies shows how these companies avoid paying taxes on the international scale. Though they play an important role in government revenue generation, corporate taxes are avoided in many different ways by multinational companies to increase their income and reduce their expenses. Through the examination of company tax payments we will see how much they actually pay in taxes and the various implementations they use to avoid the payment of corporate taxes.

Concepts and Issues of International Tax Evasion and Avoidance

Various features of the globalized economy have enabled an increasing number of individuals and companies to resort to tax evasion or tax avoidance. These features include the ease and rapidity of communications, the progressive elimination of obstacles to the movement of persons and property, the expansion of international economic relations, the differences in national tax systems and hence in the tax burden from country to country, and the growing sophistication and aggressiveness of taxpayers and their advisers in developing legal and illegal techniques for taking advantage of weaknesses in national tax systems.

The terms "tax evasion" and "tax avoidance" (Maurice H. Collins, 1988) have not always been used precisely or with a uniform meaning. Tax evasion is usually associated with the commission of a criminal offense. It can be considered to consist of wilful and conscious non-compliance with the laws of a taxing jurisdiction which can include a deliberate concealment of facts from revenue authorities. Tax evasion is an action by which a taxpayer tries to escape legal obligations by fraudulent or illegal means. It may result from the evasion of tax on income that arises from illegal activities, such as

smuggling, drug trafficking, and moneylaundering. Some xamples of tax evasion include:

- The failure to notify the taxing authorities of one's presence in the country if he is carrying on taxable activities;
- The failure to report the full amount of income;
- Deductions of claims for false expenses;
- Falsely claiming relief that is not due;
- The failure to pay over the proper amount of tax due;
- Departing from a country without paying a tax due with no intention of paying them;
- The failure to report items or sources of taxable income, profits or gains where there is an obligation to provide such information or if the taxing authorities have made a request for such information.

Tax avoidance is not tax evasion. In contrast, It involves the attempt to reduce the amount of taxes otherwise owed by employing legal means. According to (Palumbo, 2011), tax avoidance occurs when persons arrange their affairs in such a way as to take advantage of weaknesses or ambiguities in the tax law. Although the means employed are legal and not fraudulent, the results are considered improper or abusive. Because of the subjectivity of the interpretation and application of tax avoidance the borderline between evasion and avoidance in specific cases may be difficult to define. For one thing, the criminal laws of countries differ, so that behaviour that is criminal under the laws of one country may not be criminal under the laws of another. In addition, the definitions of civil and criminal tax fraud may overlap, so that it is within administrative discretion whether or not to pursue a criminal fraud case in a specific instance. In reality, there is a continuum of behaviour, ranging from criminal fraud on one extreme, to civil fraud, to tax avoidance that is not fraudulent but which runs afoul of judicial or statutory anti-avoidance rules and therefore does not succeed in minimizing tax according to law, and finally to tax-planning behaviour which is successful in legal tax reduction.

Tax avoidance is defined as all practices of individuals and organisations which are intended to avoid the payment of taxes, whereby:

- tax laws are not formally contravened, discerning tax avoidance from tax evasion which implies the use of illegal practices;
- the intentions of tax laws are violated, i.e. loopholes in tax laws are used to obtain tax advantages that the government never intended;
- transactions do not follow logically from the economic "substance" (assets, employees, revenues, etc.) of the company but are set up with the purpose to reduce tax liability.

Courts in most countries have consistently recognized the right of taxpayers to avoid taxes by means that are within the law. However, courts in many countries have also found that the tax laws should be interpreted so as to prevent their avoidance by the use of transactions that have no business purpose, although there is considerable variety in the approaches of courts in different countries. Tax avoidance typically involves four basic techniques:

- Deferred payment of tax liability;
- Re-characterization of an item of income or expense to tax at a low rate;
- Permanent elimination of tax liability, and
- Shifting income from a high taxed person to a low taxed person.

These goals can be accomplies through the use of international tax shelters through artificial intermediary companies; excessive use of debt over equity; and non-arm's length transactions.

Depending on the existence of judicial or statutory anti-avoidance rules, tax avoidance may or may not be successful if a case is audited and litigated. To apply antiavoidance rules, the tax authorities typically must discover the relevant transaction in a tax audit and obtain and analyse the information necessary to apply the anti-avoidance rules, that in a cross-border situation, it may be difficult.

Globalization and the removal of impediments to the free movement of capital and exchange controls have promoted

sustainable economic development. However, they have also increased the scope for tax avoidance and evasion with consequential substantial loss of revenue. International tax avoidance and tax evasion cause many problems. Governments lose significant amounts of revenue and hence the honest taxpayers who do not escape their liability to pay tax must bear an additional burden to plug the gap.

Tax authorities in the Member States of the OECD have responded to concerns about avoidance and evasion by taking on new powers to collect information from taxpayers¹.

Tax Avoidance Through Low-Tax Jurisdictions

In general terms, a low-tax jurisdiction can be defined as a jurisdiction which imposes little or no tax on companies, trusts or other entities organized there. By forming a company in such a jurisdiction and arranging for that company to derive income from third countries, a multinational enterprise may be able to shelter income from taxation both at the source and in its residence country. By forming a holding company or a trust in a tax haven, an individual or institution may similarly be able to shelter investment income from taxation. The OECD has distinguished between two types of low-tax jurisdictions – those that simply offer a low-tax environment and those it has identified as “non-cooperative jurisdictions”. The OECD has sought to combat the threat of non-cooperative jurisdictions to the legitimate tax-policy objectives of its Member States by putting economic pressure on those jurisdictions to cooperate in the prevention of tax fraud and evasion.

Non-cooperative jurisdictions may be defined as jurisdictions which do not participate in effective exchange of tax information between tax authorities. A lack of effective exchange of tax information may occur where bank secrecy or other laws prohibit the disclosure of information concerning financial transactions carried out in the country, or where there is inadequate information available regarding the beneficial ownership of accounts, financial instruments and other assets held in the country. A multinational enterprise may be able to shelter income from taxation both at source and in its residence country by forming a company in a non-cooperative jurisdiction which has lower or no tax on relevant income. Similarly, an individual may be able to shelter income by forming a holding company or trust in a noncooperative jurisdiction which has lower or no tax on relevant income. Examples of both tax avoidance and evasion are as follow.

1. Practices resorted to in order to reduce taxes imposed on international income

These practices, fall into four categories: a) practices resorted to in order to reduce income taxes imposed by the country of residence or citizenship; b) practices resorted to in order to evade or avoid taxes imposed by the country of source; c) institutional devices and arrangements that facilitate the evasion or avoidance of taxes imposed on international income; and d) the use of related tax-haven entities to reduce such taxes.

2. Practices resorted to in order to reduce taxes imposed by the country of residence or citizenship

Many countries impose taxes on income received from abroad by residents or nonresident citizens. The practices resorted to in order to reduce payment of these taxes include the following:

Failure to file a return- One of the most common practices resorted to in order to reduce payment of taxes on international income consists in the deliberate failure of resident aliens to file tax returns in the country in which they are residing. Persons who spend a portion of each year in each of two or more jurisdictions often make inconsistent claims of residence. When a country taxes the worldwide income of its citizens, a citizen who is residing abroad may fail to file a return in the country of his citizenship.

Failure to report all income subject to tax- Another important practice in this category is the wilful or negligent failure to report all items of international income that are subject to tax. The items most often omitted are salaries, wages and non-commercial income, interest and dividends, business income, income from real estate, gains on the disposition of property and royalties.

3. Salaries, wages and non-commercial income

¹ Ways of increasing compliance in cross-border financial transactions and on access to bank information for tax purposes are the focus of current work. Additional work will also be carried out to identify and address other barriers to the identification of beneficial ownership and exchange of such information. The OECD Model Convention contains an article on exchange of information. Current work to improve exchange of information includes looking not only at barriers to effective exchange of information but also at how better use of the latest information technology can help. OECD countries have adopted a standard magnetic format for exchange of information.

Persons receiving remuneration from abroad in payment for services, in the form of pensions and annuities frequently fail to report this income in tax returns to their country of residence. Consequently, such income, if not taxed at the source, is apt to escape taxation both in the country where it is acquired and in the country in which the recipient is resident.

4. Interest and dividends

In the view of many tax administrators, tax evasion or avoidance is probably most prevalent in connection with this type of income, since interest and dividends can easily be collected anonymously at a financial institution in a third country where the securities are held in custody. This type of income also lends itself to many fraudulent practices through the skillful use of certain special provisions of domestic laws. Thus, certain institutions whose prime purpose is economic or financial are frequently used to facilitate tax evasion or avoidance.

5. Business income

Taxes on business income are reduced at times by means of deliberate failure to keep accurate books and records within the taxing jurisdiction. A second set of books, which is accurate, may be maintained outside the taxing jurisdiction, and beyond the reach of the authorities of that country. In some instances, the maintenance of false books within the taxing jurisdiction is facilitated by limitations in domestic law on the extent to which the taxpayer's books and records may be examined by the tax authorities. Business profits properly allocable to the source country may be shifted to other countries by such devices as the establishment of artificial transfer prices for imports and exports, the improper allocation of costs, and licensing agreements under which the user of technology is obliged to purchase imported inputs, equipment and spare parts at inflated prices. Such devices, which transnational corporations are particularly well situated to use, are of great concern to developing countries, whose tax officials often lack the time and expertise to challenge effectively the prices set between affiliated companies.

6. Thin capitalization

Many countries allow corporations to take a deduction for interest expenses but do not allow a deduction for the payment of dividends. This differential treatment of interest and dividends creates a bias in favour of debt finance over equity finance. The bias is particularly strong when the dividends or interest would be paid to an affiliated company. For example, if Company A owns all the stock of Company B, it is generally indifferent, aside from tax considerations, as to whether it receives dividends or interest payments from Company B. To prevent corporate taxpayers from distributing their profits to their parent corporation mostly in the form of deductible interest, many countries have adopted so-called "thin capitalization" rules. Under these rules, a corporation that has what is deemed to be an excessive amount of debt capital will be prevented from taking a deduction for payments made with respect to that excessive debt capital. The amount of debt capital of a corporation typically would be characterized as excessive if the ratio of debt to equity exceeded some number.

7. Royalties

Royalties paid abroad for the use of or the right to use patents, trademarks, know-how or other intangible property may be used to shift profits out of high-tax countries into low-tax or into no-tax countries by fixing the royalties at artificially high rates. Such devices are facilitated by difficulties in estimating the arm's length value of monopoly rights. In addition, multinational firms may transfer intangible property to an affiliated corporation under conditions that would not occur between unrelated persons. For example, a multinational corporation might transfer highly profitable know-how that it would never share with an unrelated person to a corporation organized in a tax haven simply for the purpose of generating a deduction in the country where the intangible property is located.

8. Technical assistance

Affiliated corporations may charge improper technical fees as a way of minimizing taxes for the corporate group. In some cases, they may set the fees too high. For example, a corporation engaged in business in a country may pay an excessive technical assistance fee to a related corporation located in a low-tax jurisdiction in order to take an excessive deduction. The source country may have difficulty determining a proper price for technical assistance because those services tend to be unique and difficult to value. In other cases, a corporate group may set the technical assistance fees too low. For example, a foreign corporation making sales of goods into a country may provide technical assistance in conjunction with those sales. Under its tax treaty, the sales income would be exempt if the foreign corporation has no permanent establishment in the country, whereas the fees for technical assistance may be the subject to a withholding tax. To minimize the withholding tax, the foreign corporation may claim that the technical assistance has little value.

9. In a variety of circumstances, a taxpayer may claim fictitious or inflated business expenses as deductions. In employing this tactic, the taxpayer may claim that the purported payment was made to a person located outside the taxing jurisdiction, thereby making an audit of the expenses difficult for the tax authorities. For example, if the taxpayer purchases goods outside the taxing jurisdiction, false invoices may be prepared to show a purchase price greater than the actual amount paid by the taxpayer.

Tax may be reduced by improperly characterizing an income or expense item in order to make use of an exemption or reduced rate. Where taxation is based on a temporary status, tax evasion or avoidance may occur through transactions that take advantage of that temporary status. For example, because a borrower is not liable to tax on the proceeds of a loan, a foreign national may arrange an ostensible loan while he is a resident of the taxing jurisdiction, and then sell the collateral for the alleged loan to the lender following his departure from the taxing jurisdiction (when he is no longer taxable on sales profit within that jurisdiction), with the "loan" being credited against the sale price.

10. Foreign holding companies and trusts

Under the laws of some countries, a resident may legally avoid tax by placing income producing property in a foreign corporation or trust which he controls. Under the laws of other countries, the investment income is taxable by the country of residence whether or not it is actually distributed by the foreign corporation or trust to the resident owner.

11. Artificial bank loans

A major technique for international tax evasion consists of purportedly borrowing funds that are actually owned by the borrower. This practice not only enables the "borrower" to make open use of funds previously concealed in the name of a nominee or in a numbered bank account, but it also gives the borrower a pretext for claiming fictitious interest deductions.

12. Use of related tax-haven entities to reduce taxes

Taxpayers sometimes utilize entities organized in tax-haven countries to reduce taxes legally, the legality of the transactions depending on the laws of the country where taxpayers are located. The presence of tax-haven countries, however, invites tax evasion activities that initiate essentially false or illegal relationships with the tax-haven country. Some of the latter situations are described below.

- i. Transfer of income-producing assets to a tax-haven entity
- ii. Nominal transfer of income-producing functions to a tax-haven entity
- iii. Payment of deductible expenses to a tax-haven entity (such as management fees, technical service fees, or other deductible fees).

Some of the techniques described above may be legal methods of reducing tax, rather than illegal methods of evading tax, depending on the law of the particular countries involved.

Legislative and Judicial Anti-Avoidance Measures

The manner in which tax avoidance can be met can include legislative and judicial response. In some cases a jurisdiction will enact specific provisions that identify the type of transaction to be dealt with and prescribe specific legislative remedies to combat such avoidance.

Another legislative method would be to enact broad types of avoidance practices in specific areas or to control tax avoidance through the discretion of the tax authorities.

Finally requiring related parties treat transaction in the same manner as independent parties can be another response. Most jurisdictions rely on specific anti-avoidance rules in their domestic legislation and judicial case law.

Where the legislative response to tax avoidance has been ineffective court have developed judicial doctrines to counter serious cases of tax avoidance. These judicial decisions tend to be more flexible than statutory rules under the domestic law and often overlap with each other.

Common judicial doctrines are derived from common law and include:

- *Business Purpose Rule*-the business purpose rule attacks avoidance transactions which have no business purpose and

are created to avoid taxes;

- *Substance of Form*- Under the substance over form principle, the facts must be assessed according to *bona fide* substance and not formal content;
- *Sham Transactions*- a sham transaction conceals the true nature of a transaction that exist in form only;
- *Doctrine of the Label*- the parties use the wrong label or description to classify or characterize a transaction or relationship for tax purposes;
- *Step Transaction Doctrine*- in a step transaction, the intermediate steps in a chain of predetermined transactions may be disregarded and several related transaction may be treated as one integrated transaction. Alternatively the transaction may be broken up into its distinct steps to determine their acceptance for tax purposes.

The step transaction doctrine maintains that “purely formal distinctions cannot obscure the substance of the transaction”.

- *Abuse de droit* (“Abuse of Right”) – An abuse of right is the manipulation of the intention or spirit of the law in such case the court will disregard the legal form where the transaction is undertaken solely or predominantly to avoid tax without a *bona fide* business purpose;
- *Fraus Legis* (“Abuse of Law”) the *fraus legis* principle allows a court disregard a transaction entered for tax avoidance purposes and to substitute it by a “normal” transaction. The tax is imposed as if the taxpayer did not carry out the “disregarded” transaction but a similar taxable transaction.
- *Simulation*- Certain civil law countries apply the doctrine of simulation to ensure “substance over form.”
- *Mutual administrative assistance*- Tax treaties are stipulating assistance in collecting taxes. Such an article would have two main advantages: it increases the chance of collecting taxes from taxpayers living abroad and it reduces tax evasion possibilities through emigration. It goes without saying that a State has to be sure that the aim of assistance in collection of taxes is suitable and desirable within its treaty policy before it inserts such a provision in a treaty.

A State which wishes to introduce such an article has to consider at least the following issues. In the first place, a State needs to possess a legislative framework which allows the implementation in practice of this provision. Secondly, the tax administration should be capable and able to collect the tax revenues. Furthermore, it should be considered whether the mutual advantages would justify the new obligations between the two Contracting States.

The Multilateral Convention generally requires that each Contracting State provide administrative assistance in tax matters to each other Contracting State. The Convention provides for three basic categories of assistance, with regard to a wide range of taxes: exchange of information, assistance in the collection of taxes, and service of documents.

Conclusions and Recommendations

State taxation begins from the primary purpose of raising money for the treasury. In that sense, it always involves a political choice which affects differently specific individuals or groups, i.e. a collective decision to deprive some of wealth for the benefit of others or for the common good. However, in a society where market relations are dominant, the dominant considerations are those of liberalism: that the tax burden should fall equally on all and that its enforcement should interfere as little as possible with private economic activity. These were classically expressed in Adam Smith's four canons of taxation: equality, certainty, convenience and economy (Smith & Kinsey, 1987).

The notion of equality, however, is clearly problematic, since it involves attempting to treat as equal legal subjects social actors who may be economically quite unequal. Smith's general notion was that citizens should contribute to the treasury in proportion to the revenues they enjoy under the protection of the state. His principle therefore favoured the direct taxation of the incomes of all citizens, rather than specific levies such as stamp duties or window-tax, which were unrelated to ability to pay.

The principle of ability to pay and the view that a uniform rate bears unfairly on those with middle and low incomes justifies progressively higher rates on higher bands of income, sometimes referred to as equity.

Should business or corporate profits be treated as income and taxed on the same principles as individual income, so that the sole trader, the partnership and the company are taxed in the same way? Is there a clear and valid distinction between

income and capital gain? Underlying all these questions is the definition of income itself, the tax base, which is at the heart of the operation of direct taxes. It is also at the heart of the problem of avoidance.

Taxation is not an Abstract exercise in political or economic philosophy, but a practical matter of raising state finance for the public good. The overriding aim is therefore effectiveness, which must be predicted, based on estimations of the patterns of compliance, non-compliance and avoidance. It is in this sense that the question of legitimacy is central to the evaluation of taxation, as well as other types of legal regulation of economic activity. Legitimacy in this sense combines the interrelated issues of equity and effectiveness. To the extent that a regulatory system lacks fairness it fails in political acceptability, and will also tend to fail in effectiveness as enforcement becomes difficult and noncompliance grows. Equally, a system which has problems of enforceability and therefore of effectiveness will tend to lose political acceptability.

Governments need tax payments to stimulate national prosperity, welfare and an equitable economic development. Only through levying taxes they can fund facilities such as infrastructure, education, healthcare and a social safety net. Companies can contribute to these public facilities by paying a fair amount of tax. All countries, but especially developing countries need additional income to realise the mentioned facilities, and it is a heavy burden that companies and wealthy individuals avoid taxes on a large scale.

Tax avoidance is a problem for everyone and provides relatively little benefits. This is the case for both poor and rich countries, and for both citizens and small and medium-sized enterprises. The premise of this study is that companies should pay taxes where their economic activities take place. Taxation should be based on the nature and scope of the economic activities (the *substance*) which companies have in each jurisdiction they are active in, in accordance with the applicable tax regulations in these jurisdictions. Individuals with large financial wealth should also pay their fair share of taxes.

International transactions between companies which are based in different jurisdictions but belong to the same business group, offer many options for tax avoidance schemes. Multinationals can reorganize their financial flows (payments for goods and services, dividends, interest payments, etc.) and set up foreign subsidiaries which undertake no real economic activities, for the sole purpose of utilizing the differences in tax rates and regulations between jurisdictions. With such transactions often no tax laws are violated officially. Nevertheless, the tax regulations and tax rates in one jurisdiction are undermined by making use of more favourable tax regulations in another jurisdiction.

In many international tax avoidance structures tax havens play a prominent role. Tax havens are jurisdictions which have a legislative environment which provides opportunities to individuals and/or companies domiciled elsewhere to evade or avoid taxes due in other jurisdictions. *Classic tax havens* generally offer very low income tax rates and no withholding taxes, in combination with very limited disclosure requirements for companies and limited exchange of fiscal data with other jurisdictions. *Tax-treaty jurisdictions* generally have concluded tax treaties with many countries and have very low withholding tax rates, enabling financial flows to pass through the jurisdiction easily. In these jurisdictions, income taxes usually have a normal level and transparency is higher than in classic tax havens.

The manner in which tax avoidance can be met can include legislative and judicial response. In some cases a jurisdiction will enact specific provisions that identify the type of transaction to be dealt with and prescribe specific legislative remedies to combat such avoidance.

Another legislative method would be to enact broad types of avoidance practices in specific areas or to control tax avoidance through the discretion of the tax authorities.

Companies should be more transparent and act responsibly when making decisions that possibly could lead to forms of international tax avoidance. They should comply to the fullest extent possible to the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises' chapter about taxation, which says, "Corporate citizenship in the area of taxation implies that enterprises should comply with both the letter and the spirit of the tax laws and regulations in all countries in which they operate, co-operate with authorities and make information that is relevant or required by law available to them," as well as measures following from the ongoing OECD initiative against base erosion and profit shifting (BEPS).+

References

- Antonini L., 1966, *Equivalenza di fattispecie tributarie ed elusione di imposta*, Riv. dir. Fin.
- Amatucci F., 2009, *L'abuso del diritto nell'ordinamento tributario nazionale, Clausola generale antielusiva*, Corriere giuridico.
- Brown Karen B., *A comparative look at regulation of corporate tax avoidance, Comparative perspectives on law and justice*, 12, Springer editor, p.p 1-5.
- De la Feria R. & Vogenauer S., 2011, *Prohibition of Abuse of Law, A New General Principle of EU Law?*, Studies of the Oxford Institute of European and Comparative Law.
- Ivo Caraccioli, 2009, *Elusioni o forzature nell'applicazione dell'imposta di registro*, Gianni Marongiu; *Spunti di metodo in tema di "abuso del diritto"*, Paolo Gentili; Neotepa- Periodico ufficiale dell'A.N.T.I. – Associazione Nazionale Tributaristi Italiani, Milano.
- Cowell, F. A. (1992). "Tax Evasion and Inequity." *Journal of Economic Psychology* 13, 521–543.
- Galdieri E., 2009, *General anti-avoidance rules & doctrines*, EUCOTAX Wintercourse 2009, Barcelona, Università LUISS – "Guido Carli" – Roma, *Facoltà di Giurisprudenza, Cattedra di Diritto Tributario*.
- Garbarino C., 2009, *The development of a judicial anti-abuse principle in Italy*, *British Tax Review*, B.T.R.
- Lavoisier, 2009, *L'abuso di diritto nell'ordinamento tributario italiano*.
- Losurdo F., 2011, *Il divieto dell'abuso del diritto nell' ordinamento europeo, storia e giurisprudenza*, G.Giappicheli Editore, Torino.
- Maurice H. Collins, 1988, *Evasion and Avoidance of Tax at the Unternational Level (Eurpoean Taxation, September 1988)*
OECD Guidelines and OECD Model Conventions
- Orow Nabil BEc, LLB (Hons), 2000, Department of Business Law and Taxation, Faculty of Business and Economics, Monash University, Victoria, Australia, *General anti-avoidance rules, A comparative International analysis*, Jordans Editor, Bristol.
- Palumbo G., 2011, *Elusione fiscale e abuso del diritto, L'aggravamento degli obblighi impositivi tra legittimo risparmio ed evasione fiscale*, Cesi Multimendia, Milano, 1-3.
- Piantavigna P., 2011, *Abuso del diritto fiscale nell' ordinamento europeo*, G.Giappicheli Editore, Torino.
- Pistone P., 1995, *Abuso del diritto ed elusione fiscale*, Padova, p.p 7-8.
- Picciotto, S., 2015, *A Study in the Internationalization of Business Regulation*, Emeritus Professor, University of Lancaster
- Smith, K. W. and K. A. Kinsey. (1987). "Understanding Taxpaying Behavior: A Conceptual Framework with Implications for Research." *Law and Society Review* 21(4), 639–663
- Terracina D., 2012, *Riflessi penali dell' evasione fiscale, Tra ricchezza nascosta e regime del dichiarato*, Dike Giuridica Editrice, Roma, 183-190.

Social Media's Position in Web Within the Scope of Online Information Flow

Burak Polat

Marmara University Faculty of Communication

Abstract

World Wide Web (Web) is commercialized at the very end of 20th century and now, in the 21st century, almost half of the human society is using it. Web technologies have evolved and a relatively small set of them has a capacity of simulating complexity of sociality via interpersonal interactions; to define this small set many terms have been suggested, yet *social media* has been widely used by many scholars. Social media is a set of online communication networks that constitutes a crucial hub for producing, accessing and diffusing information. Inquiry on understanding the online flow of the information, it is essential to understand the topological position of social media within web's mesh structure. In this paper at first communication and information terms will be defined and social media will be discussed within the scope of complexity and information flow terms from network science and communication science perspective. At last, a graph analysis example on social media's topological position within web will be shared to emphasize social media's importance on online information flow.

Keywords: Social Media, Convergence Model of Communication, Information Flow, Communication Theory, Network Theory

Introduction

"There is nothing permanent except change."

Heraclitus

Change is the only constant in nature. Systematic changes create transformations and transformations affect sociality. One of the change agents is technology. A technology with an innovation status is affected by social changes and is affecting social's itself. World Wide Web is one of those technologies that affected human kind since Tim Berners-Lee invented it by the end of 20th century; and for several years, at the first quarter of 21th century, social media as another socio-technical change agent has been developed within the World Wide Web ecosystem.

Social media is a relatively small set of web technologies with a capacity of simulating complexity of sociality via interpersonal interactions. As an online communication network, social media is a hub within web for producing, accessing and diffusing information. Users of this technology are free to transmit messages between each other; users of this technology are experiencing mass communication and interpersonal communication at the very same time. However freedom of transmitting does not necessarily means that every user have an equal potential of accessing millions. With the scale-free social network structure, there the power-law comes. A small set of users access to huge amount of users. The Pareto balance is always there for scale-free complex structures. Web is fragmented just like our sociality.

Through this paper first of all fundamental concepts of communication and information will be discussed; then the structure of web will be explained from the network science perspective. An experimental research study will be shared to identify social media's topological position in web according to users' web usage tendencies. The research will be combining social network analysis and ethnographic study. It must be emphasized that this research has a pilot study status for further researches, which will create a synthesis between network and communication sciences.

Background

Different perspectives have different definitions of communication yet it can be systematically defined as Rogers and Kincaid (1981, 63) did: a process in which the participants create and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding. Information is one of the dominant and fundamental components of communication and just like

communication; information has been defined innumerable ways. From cybernetics perspective, Information is mainly considered as a measure of uncertainty in a system of signals; it is a difference in matter-energy which affects uncertainty in a situation where a choice exists among a set of alternatives (Rogers & Kincaid, 1981, 48). Losee (1997, 265) states that "Information may be understood as the value attached or instantiated to a characteristic or variable returned by a function or produced by a process.". Information is what is capable of yielding knowledge, and since knowledge requires truth, information requires it also (Dretske, 1982, 46) then it can be seen as a commodity that given the right recipient is capable of yielding knowledge. It must be emphasized that concept of information and concept of meaning have an important distinction.

Rogers and Kincaid (1981, 55) have showed this distinction within the scope of their convergence model of communication. Figure 1 and 2 shows the convergence model's perspective on the relationships of different levels of reality (psychological, social and physical) and relationships between concepts such as information, mutual understanding and communication. Convergence model is a dynamic model of communication that implies communication networks consists of interconnected individuals who are linked by patterned flows of information that may create mutual understanding (Rogers & Kincaid, 1981, 63). Information and meaning concepts have relationships in different reality levels and from a antropocentric point of view information might be seen as the core of the mutual understanding if perceived, interpreted and understood mutually. Rogers and Kincaid (1981, 66) stated "Convergence requires study of the direction and rate of change and study of networks of two or more persons who exchange information.". Nature's itself is a source of information; human beings have been perceiving, interpreting and understanding the physical reality and creating psychological reality and the information created by the psychological realities of individuals are the essence of social reality.

Communication as a process is a bridge between realities that may lead to mutual understanding between participants of the process and every fundamental element of this process has an important role. The medium is one of the communication elements that affect the nature of communication. Mass communication for several decades have been transforming radically because of the medium element's transformations. These radical transformations are brought up the concept of new media that promises demassified and asynchronized media environment that is open to interaction between communication participants. One of the new media is World Wide Web (WWW or Web.)

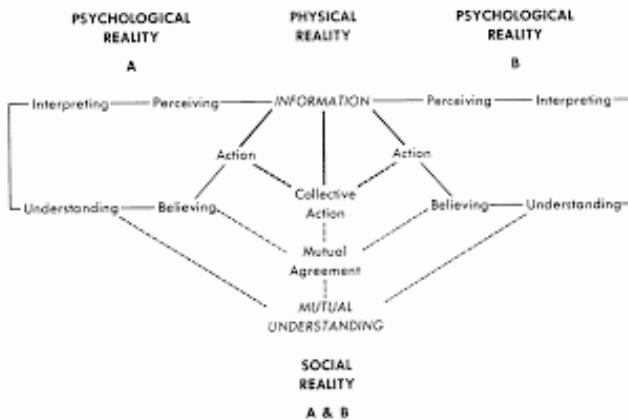


Figure 1: Basic Components of the Convergence Model of Communication (Rogers & Kincaid, 1981)

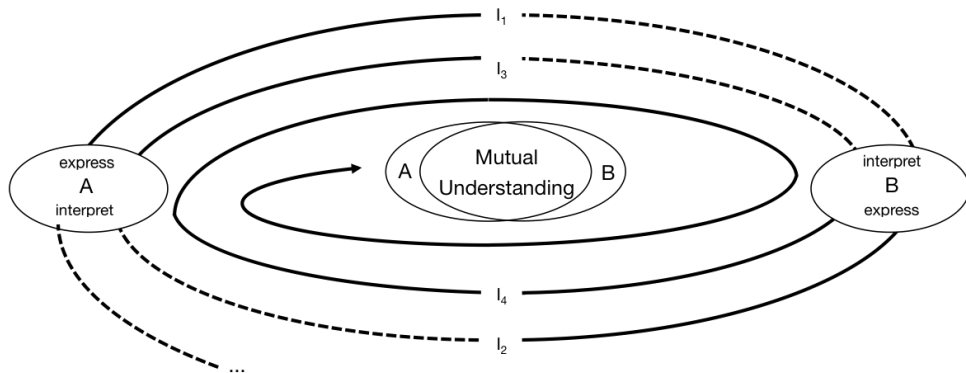


Figure 2: A Convergence Model of Communication (Rogers & Kincaid, 1982)

Web, as an information and communication technology, is affecting physical, psychological and social reality. Web affects physical reality by their very presence within nature; Web affects psychological reality by cognitive aspects; Web affects social reality by communicational and cooperational aspects... Information is a fragment of reality and Web is a technology of creating, storing and transmitting information between individuals then from Rogers and Kincaid's perspective Web is a technology of potential communicational convergences.

Web is a network that mechanistically exists of interconnected websites that contains multimedia elements, and also web is a network of users; thus websites are the channels of information flow between individuals. According to Fuchs (2014, 43) web can be defined as a techno-social system that comprises the social processes of cognition, communication and co-operation. Figure 3 shows Fuchs' (2014) perspective of web's sociality which categorizes web pages into three according to Durkheim, Weber, Tönnies and Marx's social definition. By combining Rogers, Kincaid and Fuchs' perspectives, a syntheses can be generated: A website with any multimedia element will trigger a cognitive process, a intracommunication which will ended up with constructing a psychological reality; if a website allows its users to reciprocally communicate then it will trigger the social reality construction; if users tends to converge then users collectively constructs a social reality and users will co-operate.

Web is a complex system for interconnecting both websites and individuals. Web technologies have evolved from websites that allows one-way technology-mediated communication to multi-way technology-mediated communication; a relatively small set of the Web has a capacity of simulating complexity of sociality via technology-mediated interpersonal interactions; to define this small set many terms have been suggested, yet *social media* has been widely used by scholars. Social media is a set of online communication networks that constitutes a crucial hub for producing, accessing and diffusing information; thus social media constitutes communicational convergence potential for individuals. From an euphoric perspective social media can be seen as the ultimate convergence medium however what make web social is human agent then it should be considered as a tool of both convergence and divergence. Users have the responsibility of constructing and destructing the social in social media; and the medium itself by design has a role to lead users. Then is it possible to say social media is providing equality or information flow that may lead a convergence?

Approach	Sociological theory	Meaning of sociality on the WWW
1 Structural Theories	<i>Émile Durkheim:</i> Social facts as fixed and objectified social structures that constantly condition social behaviour.	All computers, the Internet and all WWW platforms are social because they are structures that objectify human interests, understandings, goals and intentions, have certain functions in society and effect social behaviour.
2 Social Action Theories	<i>Max Weber:</i> Social behaviour as reciprocal symbolic interaction.	Only WWW platforms that enable communication over spatio-temporal distances are social.
3 Theories of Social Co-operation	<i>Ferdinand Tönnies:</i> Community as social systems that are based on feelings of togetherness, mutual dependence, and values. <i>Karl Marx:</i> The social as the co-operation of many humans that results in collective goods that should be owned co-operatively.	Web platforms that enable the social networking of people, bring people together and mediate feelings of virtual togetherness are social. Web platforms that enable the collaborative production of digital knowledge are social.
4 Dialectic of Structure and Agency	<i>Émile Durkheim:</i> cognition as social due to conditioning external social facts <i>Max Weber:</i> communicative action <i>Ferdinand Tönnies, Karl Marx:</i> community-building and collaborative production as forms of co-operation	The Web as a dynamic threefold system of human cognition, communication and co-operation.

Figure 3: Web's Social Dimensions (Fuchs, 2014)

Many euphoric individuals see web and social media as a medium of equality however both have a scale-free topology that the vast majority of documents are hardly visible (Barabasi, 2002, 174). Users are free to create, visit or participate a website however scale-free attribute causes a power-law for information flow. The web is fragmented and not all pages can be connected to each other so Barabasi (2002) argues that a directed network like web will never be a single, homogeneous, complex network. Barabasi shares a model (Figure 4) that web can be represented by four main continents; central core, in and out continents, tendrils and disconnected (isolated) islands (Neumann & Baumgrass, 2013):

Central Core: A scale free network that every node can reach every other node in the central core. (Major sites in the most connected areas of Web.)

In Continent: Every node can reach nodes within the Central Core but no path can return to the In Continent. (Sites not likely to be referenced by others)

Out Continent: Every node holds many links from nodes of the central core, but these nodes do not link back to the central core. (Heavily referenced documents or corporate websites which contain specialized information but few links out)

Tubes: The feeders linking into content with nothing linking back them.

Tendrils: Nodes reach from In Continent to the Out Continent without touching the central core

Island: Separated nodes from the rest of the network (E.g. Corporate intranets)

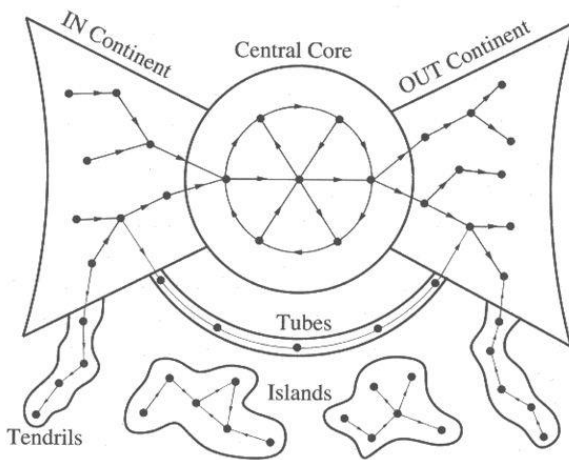


Figure 4: Continent Model of Social Networks (Barabasi, 2002)

Topology of the medium is crucial for information flow, as Barabasi’s model suggests Web has a complex and scale-free network thus some mediums within Web have advantages and some mediums have disadvantages due to their position in the ecosystem. Some mediums are connected to the large amount of other mediums via user tendencies; the Pareto balance in Web makes several websites such as social media very crucial.

Research

By its design and users’ tendencies, web is ruled by power-law. There is a Pareto balance in web ecosystem that some sites are chosen more to use. In Figure 5 Alexa’s (2016) ratings of websites are shown for Global and for Turkey; these are the sites constitute the central core. According to these rankings 29 sites out of 100 for Global and 27 sites out of 100 for Turkey are considered as social media. Social Media’s importance for information flow may be understood with Alexa’s popularity ranking however for a better understanding of the social media’s position users’ tendencies should be considered. As mentioned in the background section, web is a scale-free network; to identify the central core of web’s network topology Alexa ratings is not sufficient.

Global			
Rank	Website	Rank	Website
1	Google.com	51	Stackoverflow.com
2	Youtube.com	52	Naver.com
3	Facebook.com	53	Apple.com
4	Baidu.com	54	Allexpress.com
5	Yahoo.com	55	Xvideos
6	Amazon.com	56	Google.com.mx
7	Wikipedia.org	57	Whatsapp.com
8	Twitter.com	58	Imdb.com
9	qq.com	59	Google.com.hk
10	Google.co.in	60	Google.co.kr
11	Live.com	61	Pornhub.com
12	Taobao.com	62	Fc2.com
13	Google.co.jp	63	Google.ca
14	Linkedin.com	64	Youth.cn
15	Sina.com.cn	65	163.com
16	Instagram.com	66	Ok.ru
17	Weibo.com	67	Amazon.in
18	Bing.com	68	Jd.com
19	Yahoo.co.jp	69	Blogger.com
20	Msn.com	70	Xhamster.com
21	Google.de	71	Google.com.tr
22	Vk.com	72	Office.com
23	Hao123.com	73	Google.co.id
24	Yandex.ru	74	Soso.com
25	Google.co.uk	75	Craigslist.org
26	Reddit.com	76	Amazon.de
27	T.co	77	Rakuten.co.jp
28	Ebay.com	78	Google.pl
29	Google.fr	79	Booking.com
30	Google.ru	80	Dropbox.com

Turkey			
Rank	Website	Rank	Website
1	Google.com.tr	51	Aliexpress.com
2	Youtube.com	52	Memurlar.net
3	Facebook.com	53	WordPress.com
4	Google.com	54	Stackoverflow.com
5	Onedio.com	55	Blogger.com
6	Eksisozluk.com	56	Popads.net
7	Sabah.com.tr	57	Denizhaber.com.tr
8	Haber7.com	58	Amazon.com
9	Hurriyet.com.tr	59	Microsoft.com
10	Sahibinden.com	60	Vk.com
11	Twitter.com	61	Imdb.com
12	Milliyet.com.tr	62	Hepsibahis162.com
13	Live.com	63	Kariyer.net
14	Ensonhaber.com	64	FullhdFilmizlesene.org
15	Yandex.com.tr	65	lsbank.com.tr
16	Instagram.com	66	Github.com
17	Yenisafak.com	67	Cnnturk.com
18	Wikipedia.org	68	Odatv.com
19	Yeniakit.com.tr	69	Haber3.com
20	Hepsiburada.com	70	Vidyomani.tv
21	Sozcu.com.tr	71	Booking.com
22	n11.com	72	Oyunskor.com
23	Mynet.com	73	Tureng.com
24	Internethaber.com	74	Ulkem.com.tr
25	Haberturk.com	75	Dailymotion.com
26	Kizlarsoruor.com	76	Yemeksepeti.com
27	Gittigidiyor.com	77	Apple.com
28	Sporx.com	78	Twitch.tv
29	Blogspot.com.tr	79	Milliyetemlak.com
30	Onclickads.net	80	Vatanbilgisayar.com

31	Gmw.cn	81	Nicovideo.jp	31	T.co	81	Karar.com
32	Pinterest	82	Pixnet.net	32	Haberler.com	82	engageya.com
33	Google.com.br	83	Google.com.au	33	Donanimhaber.com	83	Trendyol.com
34	360.cn	84	CNN.com	34	Garanti.com.tr	84	Mackolik.com
35	Tmall.com	85	Alibaba.com	35	Linkedin.com	85	Ligtv.com.tr
36	Mail.ru	86	Xinhuanet.com	36	Uludagsozluk.com	86	Hdfilmcehennemi.com
37	Netflix.com	87	Diply.com	37	Whatsapp.com	87	Ahaber.com.tr
38	Sohu.com	88	Googlesusercontent.com	38	Turkiye.gov.tr	88	Fotomac.com.tr
39	Amazon.co.jp	89	Google.com.tw	39	Osym.gov.tr	89	Superbahis238.com
40	Google.it	90	Popads.net	40	Fanatik.com.tr	90	Gemius.pl
41	Google.es	91	Quara.com	41	Yahoo.com	91	Aksam.com.tr
42	Microsoft.com	92	Amazon.co.uk	42	Msn.com	92	Turktelekom.com.tr
43	Onclickads.net	93	Youku.com	43	Incisozluk.com.tr	93	Yapikredi.com.tr
44	Paypal.com	94	Microsoftonline.com	44	Junbi-tracker.com	94	Sondakika.com
45	Chinadaily.com.cn	95	Cntv.cn	45	Ntv.com.tr	95	Ofpof.com
46	Wordpress.com	96	Outbrain.com	46	Cumhuriyet.com.tr	96	Izlesene.com
47	Tumblr.com	97	Bongacams.com	47	Meb.gov.tr	97	Dizibox.com
48	Blogspot.com	98	Bilibili.com	48	Tumblr.com	98	Bing.com
49	Imgur.com	99	Cococ.com	49	Shiftdelete.net	99	ilacrehberi.com
50	Github.com	100	Alipay.com	50	Gazetevatan.com	100	Filmfullizle.org

Figure 5: Alexa Global and Turkey Rankings

The main purpose of this research is to construct an experimental survey to identify relationships between websites not only from mechanistic data but also from web user tendencies; so it must be emphasized that this research can be considered as a pilot study for further researches. A mixed research approach, both qualitative and quantitative, is structured to create a synthesis of social network analysis and ethnographic research. By this means a survey is designed to find out the websites participants are using and the referrals done by the participants between these websites. Data is collected between 18.08.2016 to 25.08.2016 from 10 Turkish participants by face-to-face interview and web browser data of the participants. Fundamental research questions for participants are:

A: Which web sites do you use and how often?

B: Which web sites do you go via these websites and how often?

C: How do you do referrals? By clicking a hyperlink or else?

D: For what purpose do you do these referrals?

To measure frequencies participants was asked to rate with a Likert scale (0-5). From participants' responses a matrix is obtained for each participant to create a relationship graph. Graph is obtained via Gephi software and graph representations are:

Nodes: Websites

Color of the Node: Website Type

Size of the Node: Frequency of User Visitation

Edges: Referrals

Color of the Edge: Referral Source Color

Size of the Edge: Frequency of Referrals

In total, 10 participants have given responses for 131 websites. Figure 6 shows the graph obtained from 10 participants' responses (The frequencies are taken as arithmetic mean values) and Figure 7 shows the statistics of the graph.

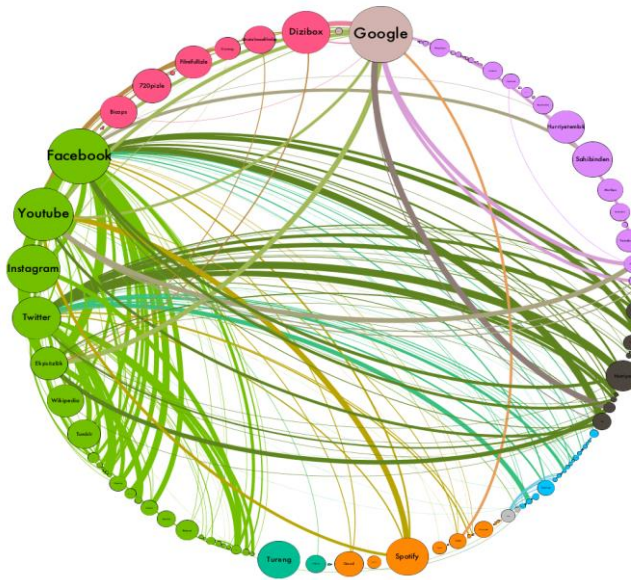
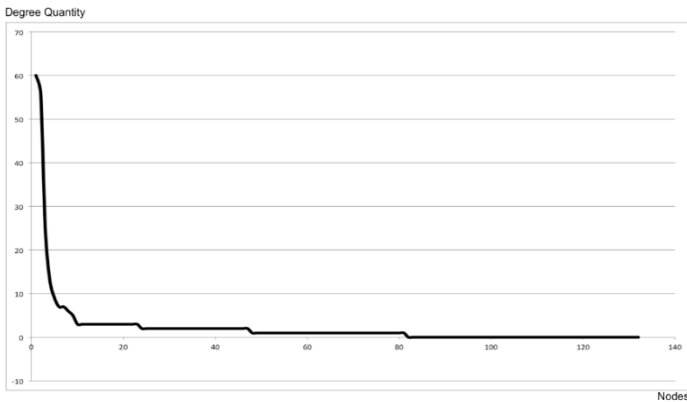


Figure 6: Websites Relationship Graph Obtained From 10 Participants' Responses



Average Degree	2.364
Average Weighted Degree	0.626
Network Diameter	3
Graph Density	0.009
Modularity	0.335
Connected Components	52
Average Path Length	1.887
Average Clustering Coefficient	0.262

Figure 7: Graph Degree Distribution and Network Statistics

There are two main findings. First one is 17.42% of websites have 73.72% of the degrees and social media with 66.67% of the overall degrees is 19.85% of the overall websites participants use. As Barabasi (2012) stated, web have a scale-free topology and there is a power-law in this ecosystem and also according to continent model social media can be considered as the central core which makes social media very important for information flow. Second one is all participants states that they go to sites by clicking and hyperlinks within a website and also by entering the address to the web browser. Two fundamental reasons are obtained for opening a new page and entering the address: Search and Share.

Conclusion

"We can see now that information is what our world runs on: the blood and the fuel, the vital principle."

Gleick (2011)

Information is one of the fundamental elements of communication process. For both offline and online communications the information flow structures have crucial role. Web as a complex structure have a power law that information actually flows within a small set of websites relative the overall ecosystem. With this experimental research study, social media is observed as it is in the very core of the online information flow. As mentioned in the research section, this study has a pilot study value for further researches.

The experimental methodology used with this research has to be restructured to find a trend for representing larger universe with a high confidence interval. The new research design is planned to be covering longer period of time and using automated data gathering software; thus web's dynamic structure will be represented significantly. Also instead of mapping the relationship of web's mechanic structure, mapping the user's tendencies is believed to lead us a better understanding for semantic value of the online information pathways. Network science as a positive science and communication science as a social science, together, can lead us to achieve the physical reality of our sociality. This research was only a small step for bigger steps for synthesis of network and communication science disciplines.

References

- Alexa Global Rankings. Retrived From: <http://www.alexa.com/topsites> Date: 16.08.2016
- Alexa Top Sites in Turkey. Retrieved From: <http://www.alexa.com/topsites/countries/TR> Date: 16.08.2016
- Barabasi, Albert-Laszlo (2002). Linked: The New Science of Networks. Perseus Publishing, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA.
- Dretske, Fred I. (1982). Knowledge & the Flow of Information. The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA.
- Fuchs, Christian (2014). Social Media: A Critical Introduction. Sage Publications.
- Gleick, James (2011). The Information: A History, A Theory, A Flood. Pantheon Books, New York, NY, USA.
- Loose, Robert M. (1997). A Discipline Independent Definition of Information. Journal of the American Society for Information Science 48 (3), 254- 269.
- Neumann, Gustaf & Baumgrass, Anne (2013). Fragmentation of the Web. Retrived from: <http://alice.wu-wien.ac.at:8000/awe/12-2.html> Retrieval Date: 03.08.2016
- Rogers, Everett & Kincaid, D. Lawrence (1981). Communication Networks: Toward a New Paradigm for Research. The Free Press, New York, NY, USA.

The Transition to Democracy in Bulgaria: Much-Needed Reforms, Showed by AI-Approach, AI-Methodology and AI-Cognitive G-Space Architecture

Georgi Goshev

Assoc. Prof. Dr., Management Consultant. Sofia, Bulgaria,

Abstract

In this paper we review the leading barrier to democratic change - societies' limited command of democratic principles and practices and the lack of built-in device in the authority for mechanisms of civil control in democratic rule of law. Main contribution of this work is the illustrative example of the capabilities developed by Goshev & Goshev AI-tools: AI-approach, AI-methodology and AI-cognitive G-space architecture to improve the legal and statutory mechanisms of power. Below are elaborated comprehensive measures focused on the success of the transition to democracy. These measures include: a. A complete overhaul of the status-quo in education in democracy. Particularly, the existing cursory, unsystematic, and primarily targeted to children and youth educational patch-work would be replaced by a structured, comprehensive and all-inclusive progressively graduated educational system b. An exhaustive reform of the legislative base. This reform would be more comprehensive and rigorous than reforms mandated as part of EU integration/membership. Specifically, the reform would involve development of logically complete and consistent context-specific designs of democratic legal systems and institutions, their testing and writing into legislation c. Development of mechanisms for permanent monitoring and improvement of the legal system and state governance. Mechanisms of such type would provide for early detection and swift rectification of practices inconsistent with the values and norms of democracy.

Keywords: Transition to democracy; AI-approach; AI-methodology; and AI-cognitive G-space architecture

Introduction

In a fairly long period of time a number of researches about the problems of democratic development were published. The numerous papers and books, fed up with pessimistic scenarios about future of democracy, must have been very disturbing for the global democratic community. Equally disturbing is the possibility of recurrence of authoritarian and totalitarian regimes under the flag of in fact deceptive democracy. The analysis of the transition countries in Central and Eastern Europe and the attempted democratization of the regimes in the Arab Spring, seriously suggest a need for a new qualitatively different approach for transition to a democratic social order.

Tracing the origin and development of the democratic process in the leading democracies in the world, we see the following picture:

In England and America democracy was the result of naturally occurred public attitudes and social practices, proclaimed and legalized through documents. This way these countries entered into their own way of setting up a democratic civil society. In the next period, democratic practices and public device management were improved in terms of several critical areas: a safeguards protecting the individual rights were introduced to the legal system along with independent judiciary, thus realizing democratic judicial procedures and market regulation of economic relations. This was accompanied with development of the market infrastructure and education.

Magna Carta (1215), The Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776), and the US Constitution, as documents constituting these public device management were created and adopted by people with a democratic mindset which allow them to lay down the principles of a democratic society. Fathers of Democracy, declared democracy, such as public policy, and then for many years they built into public device.

All these took enormous amount of time. But in today's rapidly changing socio-economic environment, time is deficit and the old public device management need an update. These facts, lead us, to the conclusion that the time has come for

serious human interference in the democratic process in order to improve the democratic public device management. It is necessary to mobilize our significant scientific potential and to use the human knowledge and technology in all areas to improve the public device management mechanisms in order to be able to ensure optimal and socially efficient functioning of the social system in the spirit of democracy and protection of human rights. We see an opportunity to implement AI approach for constructing democratic mechanisms and democratic social practices. We see an opportunity to use of constructive methods for designing democratic legal systems and designing the organization and functioning of the three independent authorities.

This article presents the results of qualitatively new approach, philosophy and AI-tools such as cognitive G-space architecture. Their use permits designing of logically complete, consistent and efficient normative systems and Social Practices, as a descriptive model – constructed as an artifact. Such normative systems establish regulating mechanisms and procedures, incomparably broader than the familiar interpretations of the 2000 year Roman slave law.

By the created by Goshev & Goshev toolkit and constructive theory, can not only legislating occurred social practices of democracy, as Magna Carta 1215 in England , and American Declaration of Independence July 4, 1776 . The toolkit and constructive theory is use to build the elements of natural law and morality, in to the legal mechanisms and to design (constructed as an artifact) legal systems and social practices. These organizational systems and control mechanisms are much more sophisticated than the existing ones, as these constructions include also the logic of:

mechanisms and procedures of: Decision Theory; Game Theory; Theory of Auctions; Organizational Theory; Control theory; Cybernetics;

new models of regulating the distribution and exchange of goods and services; financial regulation; banking regulation;

models of psychology and modern methods of content analysis and sociology.

The proposed toolkit allows a radical change in the approach for creating legal systems. We are not guided by the principle that “Everything that is not forbidden is allowed”, and we are not trying to “make a fence” by the norms of material law. Instead, following the logic of AI-approach, allows us to build in decision procedures, democratic criteria respecting the rights of all persons. These decision procedures are a logical standard for creation of procedures reflecting the specifics of the particular case.

The approach contains requirement for the decision procedures. They in no way should create conditions for further undemocratically regulated relations. This is achieved by tracking examination of potential deviations from democratic criterion defined as a standard by procedures of distributive and retributive justice. This monitoring should be available, for every person, affected by the distorted application of legal procedures. Every affected, must be able to start, prompt and effect action to implement a procedure for violations prevention. So the approach not only imposes restrictions on the possibility of totalitarian or authoritarian relapse, but also ensures sustainable development of the democratic process.

The created powerful toolkit, allows us to design organization of society and public device management as well as structural and procedural rules for the mechanisms and operation of all authorities. This way they can be constructed as really independent from one another and subtle mechanisms differentiating their powers and interaction to be created.

This article examines the structural elements of the social structure, distinguishing design features of the transition, and raises issues related to creating the necessary structures and mechanisms implementing and ensuring the realization of the principles of democratic civil society. These principles require respect to the rights of every citizen, as declared in the International Charter for the Protection of Human Rights and accepted as universal values of civilized humanity.

The approach and logical structure shown in this article were made possible as a result of the implementation of the developed by Goshev & Goshev AI-approach; AI-methodology; and AI-cognitive, G-space architecture.

Model of the social structure

The structural scheme of any social model or a regulatory mechanism no matter its scale covers at least two main channels carrying out its function. These two channels can be accepted as regulatory. They are:

Channel naturally occurring structure of the regulatory scheme - such as market regulation, various schemes shown in trade theory, game theory, etc. with varieties and stock exchange regulation, different interpretations and all ending with

OUTCOMES, which are identified by certain parameters or variables, including quantitative expressions imbedded in the descriptions of channels – material substantial or financial flows.

Correcting channel of social decisions, taken by persons authorized under the structure of society to represent average citizens in their multitude, as a barrier against the pressure of money and the requirement of effectiveness on the vital personal interests and rights of citizens. These social corrective solutions are mandatory correction of decisions in the other channel and are required to be met by natural and legal persons and authorities.

According to the regulatory effects of the two channels and their weight in the regulatory outcome - the operation of public device, can distinguish two polar and an intermediate circuits.:

When the regulation is implemented through the channel of social solutions - it inevitably degenerates into polar diagram of authoritarian or totalitarian regime;

When the regulation is implemented canal regulatory scheme of material - material or financial flows - regulation of type free market "Lesse fair lesse pace", free market economy, it can degenerate into polar scheme fetishization profit and efficiency, dominant more than subjective judgments of people and destroying the ability to control their social price.

Democratic social order is implemented in the intermediate scheme, a metered for optimal socio-efficient operation, simultaneous impact on both channels.

Much-needed reforms

An analysis of recent events as finance and economic system of the leading countries in the world with democratic social order, using AI- toolkit G-space - Visualization of financial and arising from its general crisis in the economy leads to the following general conclusion: The crisis was caused deliberately and is associated with poor legal system: regulation / deregulation

Those who demand deregulation are right that the regulation restricts the initiative of persons to achieve better results from their activities. On the other hand, demanding regulation are right in their request for limiting the possibility of using freedom from regulation for taking actions inconsistent with the public understanding of the correct action that benefit society.

It can be concluded that the measure of the socially necessary and optimizing results from the activity regulation/deregulation is determinable. This is done by dividing into "golden section" the buffer interval regulation/deregulation, which is similar to zone in the hysteresis loop. From all this follows a lack of reliable protective regulatory mechanisms, responding in predetermined situations. This is so in a number of stages of implementing the functioning, development and control of the vital activity of managing the economy through control of financial instruments, flows and investment policy.

As an analysis of the facts in the movie "Inside Job" to Charles Ferguson, can be determined deficiencies of legislation in the US Regulators regulating mechanisms allowed to happen this crisis. Using this analysis we can seriously narrow the uncertainty regarding the type, logic and certain features of the controller, which must be designed. And it is therefore essential to ensure a procedure applied by those concerned when they find the conditions laid down.

Similar problems are found in the analysis of regulators of public devices in countries in transition.

While the countries with established democratic traditions can achieve focused, suspension of the operation of regulators, designed to prevent illegal conduct and results, it is clear that for countries with fragile civil society in lack of well-developed legal system and flawlessly existing regulatory mechanisms such situations simply can be accepted as the status quo, destructive to the process of democratization.

This requires general conclusion that extensive changes are needed in the design of regulatory mechanism embedded in the legal systems. These regulators need to be with a high sensitivity, regarding deviations from the specified function of public device, or deviations in its components, respectively the deviations implemented by the subsystems of the public device.

Particular attention should be paid to the legal systems of the countries in transition. The classic scheme: the organization of free elections in which supposedly guaranteeing the free expression of will by participating, selecting representatives to

the governing authorities and inventing new statutes is definitely ineffective for countries experienced heavy totalitarian period.

Expecting that created by the new statutes management will be of a democratic type is naive and unrealistic. The reason is that these Detailed Structure laws are created and adopted by the people, for the most part, if not overwhelming - beneficiaries of the old regime that not only have sufficient inertia in thinking, but do not know the democratic decision making procedures related to social practices.

Designed legal systems must be designed as mechanisms of decision. In that mechanisms must be build precise procedures limiting deviations to the field of well known old manipulative methods of violence

They must be designed standard mechanisms assembled in standard social practices in the most sensitive in terms of totalitarian relapse areas.

These are important areas of public democratic social mechanism (device): structure and procedures of the constitution and organization of the three branches of government, as independent; procedures of selection of people in positions of public and polity;

These are important areas of public democratic :

Distribution procedures: allocation of resources (procedures of lease of state and municipal property, allocation of resources (concessions and restrictions);

Procedures of market regulation, auctions, exchanges commodity markets, regulation of financial relationships and resources;

Procedures protection of private property; procedures of security; procedures healthcare procedures on freedom of speech, wills and individual human rights. procedures and mechanisms of environmental protection and biodiversity.

This analysis shows that the problems of the development of democracy have a different character in different countries, but we believe, that the problems require application of modern achievements of science and serious work of research, analysis and design of structures of democratic devices.

For the decision of such problems are designed AI-approach, AI-methodology and AI-cognitive G-space architecture, as a AI-toolkit.

Overcoming complexity

The legal system is extremely complex. Extremely complex are also its components: those constituting the state and public structure, those regulating social practices and the mechanisms of their realisation, and those regulating social relations. The complexity of the legal system is also conditioned by the extremely complicated interrelated and all-embracing mechanism that puts into effect a function, which must motivate the natural and legal persons in society in all their actions. And in order to put into effect a motivational influence, the legal system must be described and presented by means of information, which is comprehensible and approachable for all natural and legal persons, in a natural language.

This complexity is a challenge for the professionals who participate in the processes of legislation and law enforcement. Errors, such as abbreviations, inconsistencies, ambiguous provisions in the law systems, and inconsistent rulings in cases which share the same established case-law logic, made by different formations of the court, are an indication of the fact that the complexity of the regulatory systems probably exceeds the human capacity for comprehending them.

The enormous volume of texts and linguistic structures of legal mechanisms and procedures, in many cases built in mixed, propositional and predicate logic, additionally greatly complicates comprehension.

The mechanisms and social practices of organisation, management and control over society are of at least the same degree of complexity as the most complex systems in biology and technology. But whereas in each of these fields there exists a specialised formal system for description, visualisation and calculation, the experts in the field of jurisprudence do not have at their disposal a formal system which compensates, illustrates and logically "calculates" regulatory systems in a way that is convenient to understand and work with.

G-space allows overcoming the complexity in the analysis, construction and application of regulation systems. It is a means (a tool) for the creation of G-models, which visualise the logic built in the regulation systems.

Overcoming complexity through the use of G-space, on the other hand, allows the research and creation of analytical and design methods united by joint methodology and technology for the creation of logically sound and unambiguous models of regulatory systems, and the stipulation of correct administrative, judicial and legislative acts.

AI approach, AI law-orientated methodology and G-space¹ philosophy

The study² which led to the creation of the AI approach, AI Law-orientated methodology and G-space philosophy is based on the wide understanding of human activity, such as: perception, decision, and influence, within two parallel contours. One of them – human activity aimed at the alteration of a given object from the surrounding world; and the second parallel contour – human activity aimed at altering one's own knowledge, algorithms of thinking, and facts.

In both contours the subject of human activity creates a picture of the surrounding world designed for simulation thus helping the actions leading to the desired alterations and events chosen by a person are revealed: of the alteration of a specific object in the surrounding world, as well as of alterations in the person's own knowledge – algorithms of thinking and facts³.

In order for the desired results to be achieved through experiments based on simulation (which includes serious games) carried out for the purpose of choosing goals, strategies, amendments of regulation limitations, optimisation and structure, organisation and technology, the created Abstract picture must correspond to the object under study.

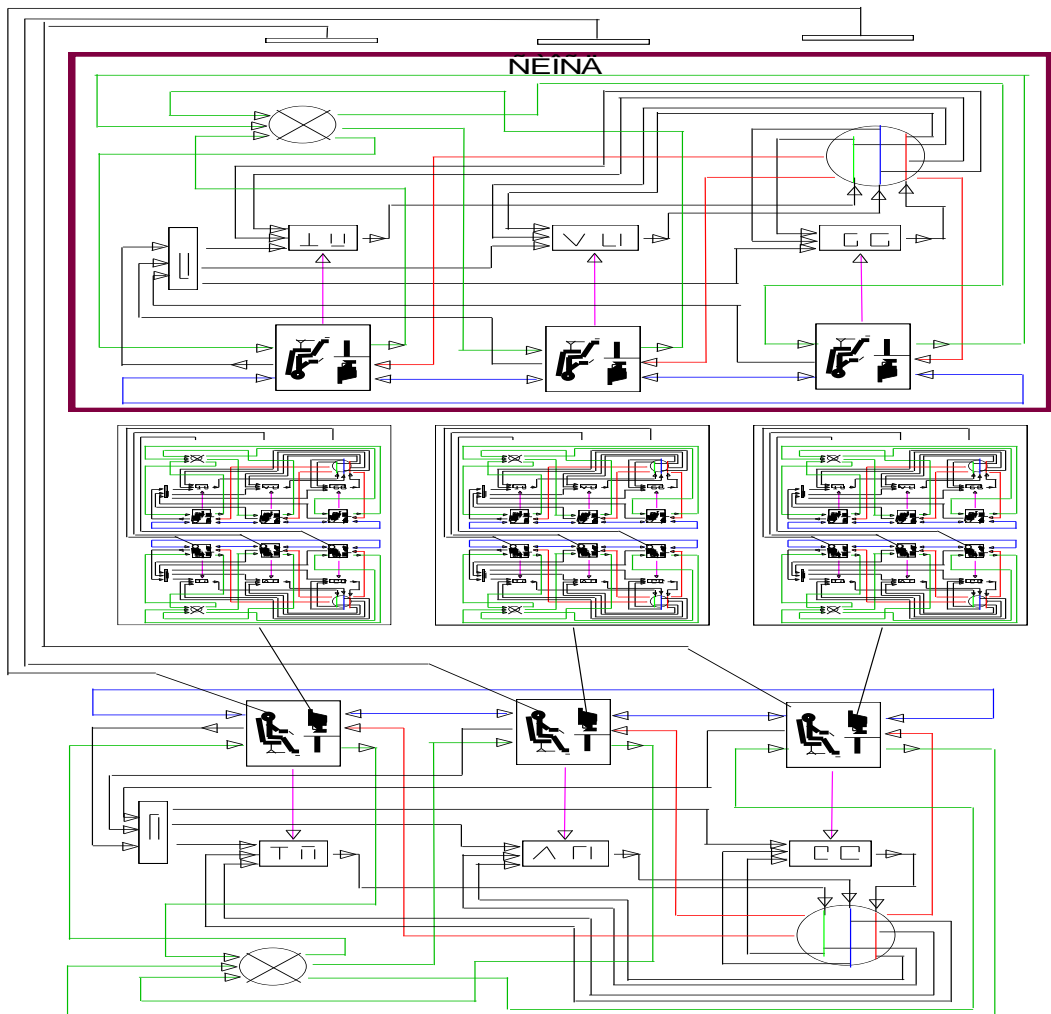
But this does not mean that it is necessary to have the most detailed and complete “snapshot” of the object, complete with all relationships and influences in it, and with all relationships with the surrounding world and its influences over the object. In other words, the object must be presented as a “snapshot”-interpretation of the surrounding world with a focus on the object under study.

If we assume that the tool for creating that “snapshot” is a reflecting sphere (like the one in Escher's lithograph print), and in the snapshot – a reflection of the surrounding world, there could be “separated” and highly magnified, and zoomed in on (as with a magnifying glass) with a high degree of detail, the picture of a specific object in the snapshot – the object of study for the analyst-researcher; as well as a picture of the natural person who is in the studied object – or in other words, the analyst-creator. Thus the mental model – the picture for experiments based on simulation, must be constructed as being a “world-like” model that involves an active human presence.

The creation of a world-like model with a focus on fundamental acts of the regulatory system presupposes studying the object-society, and the models of the decisions made in society, presented as a mechanism. The model for this mechanism involves: society (presented as a socio-economic unit (social device) – an organisational mechanism); interpreted as a system - as a structure and function. On a lower level of detail, the organisational mechanism is viewed as natural and legal persons connected by relationships and performing appropriate activity, which could be interpreted as perception, decision and action, in its two manifestations: thought and consequences in the surrounding world.

The appropriate activity (thinking), is realised in the conditions of a regulatory system as something that motivates, regulates and limits the actions of natural and legal persons. The mechanism of motivation and the mechanism that regulates the resolution of social relationships are part of the mechanism of thinking, which realises the perception, decision and action of every natural person, and part of the mechanism, which integrates the results of the thinking of natural persons who form a legal person.

The algorithms of perception, decision and action through which the modelling of everything described so far is accomplished, are similar to cognitive architecture – a network of a connectionist type.



A structural model of social device with built-in levels: perception, decision, impact

AI approach

A researcher who follows the AI-approach is oriented towards an extended object of study, which contains “object of study – toolkit – subject of study”. The extended object is a result of the constant tendency to deepen scientific research toward ever more detailed study of the object, and ever more precise and comprehensive results in terms of illustration.

The presented: by Louis de Broglie new and completely different from classical physics field of knowledge – quantum mechanics; by Heisenberg – the possibility for a significant distortion of the result caused by the tool of research; and by Hofstadter – the peculiarities of the human perception of the world, are the reasons for rethinking the approaches and methods of scientific research.

This is also a reason for extending the object of research for the purpose of creating a model for “world-like” experiments by simulation with an active human presence. The extended object already contains not only the “classical object” - the motivational regulatory system, but also the toolkit – the research methods and models of analysis, modelling and construction; and the picture – a result of the research toolkit and the specific human characteristics.

By defining this extended object, in which the motivational regulatory system is part of the mechanism that performs an appropriate activity, a structure of logic that corresponds to the philosophy presented in this article is created absolutely deliberately and purposefully.

Every person studies (creates logical models or thoughts) the way the motivational regulatory system influences his/her process of appropriate activity, and what the requirements that the motivational regulatory system must fulfil are, in order to motivate the subject under motivation to take actions so that to realise results, to achieve aims given to it from the outside and/or generated by itself. The analysis of the logical structure outlined, which describes the extended object, is of the "expanding nodes" type by D. Hofstadter, and unambiguously presents the direction of research as being in the AI field, and the approach itself as an AI approach.

The following are accepted, in terms of structure, as a specific extended object of study in the systemic interpretation: "the surrounding world – tool of decision-making – subject", in which the element "tool of decision-making" includes the motivational regulatory system; and in terms of function, "meaningful human activity" as a model of the research process "perception – decision – impact", realised both in the structure, and by the elements of the structure.

The AI approach of overcoming the complexity of the legal rule system is completely different from the classical approaches in jurisprudence and social sciences. By means of this approach one could search for, identify and apply in the construction of the models for simulation the lowest level of detail elements (atomic frames, according to Marvin Minsky) of the object's image (the world through the filter of the limiting conditions of the knowledge about it, and the goals defined). By altering the elements or altering the connections, and therefore the configuration in which they are connected, the motivation that conditions an alteration in the function, or action, of the subject under motivation, is also altered.

We are looking for a picture of elements on the lowest (atomic) level of detail in order to avoid possible errors, inconsistencies or ambiguities in the creation of logical models and the description of legal rules. As well as to remove the possibility of overcoming bans and limitations defined by the legal rule through "going down" to lower levels of detail of the logical models, and the creation of "bypasses" to limitations by "hackers" whenever the level of the legal rule is lower than that of the atomic level.

But in order to make such a textual description, in natural language, of the picture on the motivational regulatory system's highest atomic level is even more difficult than the classical description, with a much bigger volume and more excruciatingly complex.

But precisely the systemic identification to a high level of detail (an approach in technical sciences), which allows schematic interpretation (as in Jay Forrester – the models) of the content and logic of the text is the necessary prerequisite for the next decisive step toward overcoming complexity.

The next step toward overcoming complexity is a schematic interpretation called G-model, which was created by applying cognitive G-space architecture.

G-model benefits the researcher with an additional advantage to classical schemes. G-model allows the visualisation and compensation of information which describes the model of a rule the way it is done by means of analogue transformer models, but also allows its presentation in a picture made up of sequentially ordered fragments, as a procedure.

The display of the specified fragments in a picture allows for the extremely easy diagnostics of errors, omissions and ambiguities. (It plays the role of a scanner).

By visualising a text using natural language, in the classical scheme of the analogue transformer type, what is achieved is compression of the information down to two digits, but this is completely insufficient for overcoming the complexity of the logical model and describing the motivational regulatory system to a satisfactory extent.

The means for radically overcoming a legal act–law system' analysis complexity is G-model. G-model overcomes the complexity of a legal act to the level of complexity of checking for the isomorphic correspondence of logical configurations of the structure. Applying the principle ingredients is carried out following execution of that operation in a text of up to half an A4 page. The successive addition of fragments or ordering (structuring), processing, checking and typing in of text from a complex legal act – law system (laws, codices, etc.) in G-space following a specific algorithm by a person is accepted by the creators of cognitive architecture* as being a type of thinking

In order to reach to a G-model and to test the logical structure in a text or symbol-based format, one has to go through three stages, fragment by fragment:

The first stage is systemic identification of the world, together with man and everything that he reflects, including the influence of everyone and everything around him and in him, or a world-like (world-similar) model, as a system with active human participation, or as a socio-economic unit.

The second stage is identification, adaptation and construction of a toolkit for analysis and construction of motivational regulatory system models.

The third stage is applying the toolkit for reengineering or construction of motivational regulatory systems.

The AI-approach is integral and is created so that it can combine selected advantages of already existing approaches from the different branches of the scientific AI field:

and the modelling of mental processes (the functioning) in the human brain, Cybernetics and brain simulation – structural modelling and visualisation and Symbolic AI – manipulation through symbols of the information from the person and the surrounding world, which is presented formally by means of mathematical (incl. Logical) relations;

and Cognitive simulation – simulating the techniques which people use for solving problems (cognitive architectures).

The AI approach described in this article follows the logic of Cognitive simulation. But not realised (Cognitive simulation) in formally presented, but over structurally presented, logical structures (in a map or a picture, or a scheme with pictographic symbols, or in the shape of tables that contain textual data).

The following processes are also structurally presented: perception; decision making; and influence (also educational), in models built upon the logic of cybernetic-type mechanisms (input-output transformations with a built-in automation). And not for brain simulation, but for symbolic representation, which is, however, realised through “structural” manipulation of the information resulting from the research of the relation “person – surrounding world”.

Or simulating human thought in a structural aspect – through a world-like model. The structural manipulation of information resulting from the research of the relation “person – surrounding world” is defined as thinking.

The approach is holistic and leads to the construction of a “world-like” model. This model reflects the picture of the object detailed to the level necessary for analysis and construction, interpreted as a mechanism (motivational), and committed to the “shrunken” around it, compressed surrounding world.

Thus the object of analysis is the part of the correlated picture “surrounding world”, together with the object “magnified” through a conditional magnifying glass (depending on the interests of the analyst-constructor), which allows the identification of the necessary level of detail of the structure, elements and relationships assembled into the object.

Methodology. Methods for identification and analysis of social device.

For the identification and analysis and construction of a world-like model, it is necessary to combine approaches and methods from different fields of knowledge, and build them into a methodology.

In the presented methodology, built-in are the methods of the systemic approach, combined with cascading identification, in order to achieve decomposition of the system on a higher level, and on a lower level of sub-systemic elements, which allows the identification of graphs of elements to which there are respective graphs of functional elements (the steps into which the process-describing procedure is broken) and graphs of element characteristics.

In the analysis of the systemically identified world-like model (system with an active human presence) analytical methods of mathematical description and the methods of structural and analogue modelling are used

Social device, interpreted as a structure – a structural model of appropriate activity, which realises the function “appropriate activity”, is described by a simultaneous equation presented in the model of the function of social device.

This model presented as a functional structure (in which elements are operations defined as steps of a procedure of appropriate activity, which accomplishes a decision, visualises key characteristics of social device: multi-contours and multi-correlations.

And though the analysis of the structural interpretation of the function of social device by means of structurally interpreted stages of appropriate activity: perception, making of a decision (also an object of AI) – as a model of appropriate activity, which accomplishes motivation, the key characteristics of isomorphism, recursion and multiple planes are achieved.

As a result of the application of mathematical, social science and technical cybernetics methods, a characteristic that defines the type of systemic structure in which appropriate activity is realised – a Kalman filter or a tracking system, is found through the analysis of simultaneous equation of appropriate activity. This characteristic can be interpreted through the use of terms from the motivational regulatory system as a criterion for quality assessment of the motivational regulatory system.

The methods of cognitive science are applied in the analysis of the structural model of perception, making decisions and taking action, in which the filter of limiting conditions and aims is identified and analysed as a separate object.

This filter contains the motivational regulatory system, limiting conditions from the surrounding world, including the actions of all factors that do not depend on the subject. It transforms the information coming from the surrounding world by assembling it into an image of the subject's decision.

By introducing the filter (similarly to introducing the toolkit into the extended object of the AI approach), two important results are accomplished. One is the possibility for “descending” to the levels of detail, where the elements that construct the motivational model are located, and the construction of the motivational model itself.

The other is a cognitive picture, of a holistic type, of the integrated influences of the surrounding world and the person in an isomorphic-recursive interpretation, and opening opportunities for transitions and a language of translation between levels of differing nature, described in languages which until now did not have translation dictionaries.

The indeterminacy of time and space are overcome in the process of social device analysis by means of two-way substitutions on structural levels, and structurally presented functional levels applied on a cascading scale. That indeterminacy is a result of the impossibility to show proof of the finiteness or infiniteness of space, and a similar impossibility concerning time, and creates modelling problems.

Methods for identification and adaptation of toolkits

In the process of identification and adaptation of a toolkit for analysis and construction of world-like motivational regulatory system models, the following must be overcome: the paradoxes of systemic thinking; the indefiniteness of the limitation of one's own knowledge; and the issues of incompleteness – in order to fulfil the requirements of Whitehead-Russell in the Theory of types, and to cope with Russell's paradox.

Another problem, although not of the same rank, is the creation of typological networks of elements, of relationships, of configurations, and their respective typological networks of characteristics.

The paradoxes of systemic thinking are overcome through a holistic approach and adapted to the specifics of the studied object methods of cognitive science based on the definition of the object as a picture of the world-like model – a result of a recursive isomorphism between the world and the natural person in it.

The problems of incompleteness find their solution as a presentation of a logical structure in predicate logic on a higher level in the fields of G-space⁵, transformed through isomorphism from the respective logical structure described by propositional logic on the respective lower level.

Typological networks are a result of the application of the superposition of isomorphisms principle, ordered in a sequence, encompassing the full spectrum: from order of reflection to object of influence of the regulations⁴.

By extending the structural isomorphism of Bertalanffy the possibility for shrinking the surrounding world into a systemic world-like structure, which possesses the characteristics of a picture is achieved – result of the intellect of the researcher.

Based on extended Bertalanffy's structural isomorphism is also the filter for transition (“translation dictionary”) among different description languages on the different levels.

The principle of the Principle of the relatively positioned observer⁵ allows the picture of the world to be closed together with the observer, and for the images to be observed overcoming spatial relativity and to work with the ideal (mental) model of the world, together with the observer within it. The layering of the object in the graphic construction by using G-space creates conditions and completes the requirement for coping with Russell's paradox (Theory of Types). The transition as

“a process taking place at a time – procedure” is also a manifestation of the transition of propositional into predicate logic demonstrated as a proof of Gödel's theorem of incompleteness (of the arithmetics and the completeness of the calculation of predicates).

Methods for construction of intelligent legal models

For the creation of an object-oriented semantic network of words or a table of codes for the correspondence between words and elements – symbols of: the structurally active (person) and passive (all the rest) and functional frames describing social device what are used are combined methods of modelling and the creation of networks.

It is compulsory for the building of a semantic network that the relationships between elements, for which an atomic level is strictly required, to be numbered in the sequence of chronology of the systemic actions, part of the motivational regulatory system.

The object-oriented semantic network, by necessity resulting from a larger volume and a more complicated solutions of social relations, can be built by the elements which possess phenotypical characteristics that define them as belonging to each and every one of the structures on each level.

In realising G-space, it is necessary to go through an analysis of the contours of realising the motivation and regulation of actions on the multi-level stages of management.

Last but not least, for the successful realisation or re-engineering of the motivational regulatory system is determining the channels for regulating the schemes in which the regulating mechanism types are configured, as well as for testing the regulation mechanisms for efficiency and level of goal realisation.

The presented methodology for researching the creation of a methodology for studying the motivational regulatory system, is in fact a structure of the “expanding nodes” type and therefore it is in itself, together with the approach, built in the model of cognitive architecture that has been created.

G-space

In order to achieve a simulation model of analogue transformation and structural interpretation of the transformation, the fields of G-space are modified into fields which present means for manifestation of specifics – (highlight characteristic specifics) of the elements of G-space (a standard), of the way of ordering (configuring according to an algorithm (a standard) – situationally, depending on the phenotype of the specific motivational system) of the motivational regulatory system elements.

These fields, as every element recognised by its genotype characteristics present in the G-space field, are introduced into the motivational regulatory system in a sequence following the isomorphism recognised by the phenotype characteristics, build up the structure of the G-model.

Procedures that regulate the finding and regulation of social relationships that motivate toward the realisation of a specified in the regulation system behaviour, are presented in the G-model. The G-model is designed for simulation experiments in the conditions of a serious game for testing relativity - “goals – realisation of behaviour”, as well as for finding the structure in the motivational system that “programmes” the behaviour assigned by the constructor. The G-model allows assessment of logical integrity, efficiency and optimality by criteria chosen by the natural and legal persons under regulation themselves.

G-space allows finding existing, unknown to the constructor strings of causal relations between elements, which belong to different levels.

Through introducing a specific motivational regulatory system (law, statute, and contract) in G-space, the following process is simulated:

diagnostics of the logical integrity, respectively efficiency and;

narrowing relativity when it comes to:

belonging to a certain type of structure and;

a place in the chain of cause-and-effect relationships; on the missing parts of the diagnosed object.

The missing elements, or fragments, from the chain of the cause-and-effect relationships in the G-model are found by analysis of the components that describe the procedures with the indicator "undefined presence of attributes on one of the levels". The missing links of a regulating mechanism's structure are found during the testing with the help of the criteria for efficiency, logical integrity, socio-economic efficiency and optimality.

The impact that a structure realises depends on the configuration and the specifics of the elements (into which an analogue function is built). This peculiarity allows for the analysis and evaluation of schemes in visual form, and not in a shape presented by a formal system of differential equations.

Of utmost importance for the quality of the motivational regulatory system, as a regulator of social relationships, is the opportunity for a global criterion for efficiency, logical integrity and unambiguity, which could be even undefinable, to be "interpreted" and attached for testing through the use of G-space, in the terms describing a given fragment.

G-space allows simulation and transformation on the principle of "one looks at a unit globally and makes a decision, but then acts on a separate fragment". In other words, G-space gives the analyst-constructor the opportunity "to see globally and act locally, depending on the situation".

Democratic Legal System

A legal system or its design are democratic and optimal when the following is available: perfect normative system, satisfying the subjective right of every legal subject to look for justice and to receive it; realizability of the subjective right without financial barriers, without social pressure and obstructive behavior of the administrative workers; and perfect organization of the administration (understood as institutions and organizational technology).

Democratic normative system as a regulator of the socio-economic relations, including the legal subjects themselves, with an accent on the regulation, applied by the judicial and the administrative bodies to solve the conflicts, guarantee equality before the law in the realization of the interests and the potential of every legal subject.

The regulatory procedures, which are built in perfect legal system, have the following characteristics: justice; equifinality; transparency; conflict prevention; and appropriate decision; and guarantee safety and optimal and socially efficient social device or social-economic unit.

Optimal Organization of the Administrative Bodies Realizing the Law

The optimal schematic configuration of the administrative organization comprises of: optimal organization of the technological chains and optimal organizational technology.

The optimal organization of the technological chains comprises of: optimal organization of the technological infrastructure of each position of the technological chain – the organization of the process of activity realization is being designed by the popular methods of operations management; and optimal allocation of the staff – it is being accomplished through the "distributive justice"* procedure, which is adapted to the specificity of the activity realization.

The optimal organizational technology, which guarantee transparency, comprises of: personalization of rights and duties; transparency of the actions and registration of the results – the project is being accomplished through "retributive justice" procedure, adapted to the specificity of the activity; quality control; and review of the contracts and other documents related to the contracts.

The optimal organization of the administrative bodies is a reviewed and corrected model, transformed, at the relevant languages of the levels, in relevant documents.

The optimal organization of the administrative bodies ensures full transparency of the individual behavior and effective control against prohibited actions; eliminates the conflicts, which have negative influence on the activity realization; and ensures efficient utilization of the resources.

The optimal organization of the administrative bodies considerably increases the motivation of each of the citizens or member of the personnel of the SEU for the achievement of high socio-economic results and it also increases significantly the socio-economic efficiency.

Social practices (which bind in a tracking system (servomechanism or Kalman filter in Cybernetics) everyone's interests to the results, achieved by himself/herself, and which allow the relevant participation in the process of decision-making and a

relevant manifestation and protection of the personal interests), built in the institutional framework of the optimal social device or SEU, premise optimal decisions as integrated individual decisions.

Conclusion

The most serious obstacle to democratic transition, and the development of a democratic system, is the missing knowledge in the community about the opportunities offered by the approach and tools - such as AI-methodology and G-space cognitive architecture.

The lack of these knowledge does not allow analysis of the social democratic practices and their improvement and control as well as prevention of the negative social consequences of the introduction of development tools in finance, economic and political fields.

Training for acquiring knowledge for this modern instruments stimulating democratic thinking and democratic attitudes in society should start from primary school - like education and continue as continuous training, analysis and research to democracy. Because democracy is the work of all citizens overcoming authoritarian attitudes can be achieved only by literate people in this area.

This barrier prevents the development of a democratic legal system, and that highly sensitive regulators socio-economic interests motivating citizens and officials to actions and decisions consistent with the democratic values of civil society.

Together with the training necessary creation of a system of institutions for permanent audit of the development of democratic institutions, analyzing, documenting and notifying the public, the design of every available piece of legislation together with the preliminary assessment of its impact on the functioning of public device and dangers for democratic legal order.

A network of scientific research topics centers is necessary and the global democratic community. To overcome the negative trends in the democratic process and the development of democratic social order is necessary launch a large-scale program to create think tanks for research and advisory services and training and scientific development of cadres. Shots for analysis and design of legal systems and especially motivational mechanisms regulating basic democratic social practices.

It is overcoming isolationism in legal science and the development and direction of enrichment achievements of modern technological knowledge in the spirit of the General Systems Theory by Ludwig von Bertalanffy and AI. It is reviewing the directions for the development of legal science in the interest of increasing the courses, projects and training time on analysis and design of logic structures of legal acts regulating social relations in the spirit of democratic rule of law.

References:

- D. Hofstadter, (1980), *Gödel, Escher, Bach: An Eternal Golden Braid*, New York, London, Penguin Books, ,
- Goshev S., Goshev G., (2007), *Modeling the Logic Schemes of Legal Systems: Design of Logically Exhaustive, Non-contradictive Legal Mechanisms Producing Justice*, Stream: Social Policy, Culture and Welfare, Design Conference 2007 (The International Conference on Design Principles and Practices)- at Imperial College, London University, United Kingdom, 4th to 7th January
- Goshev S., Goshev G., (2007), *Design of Mechanisms Coordinating Socio-economic Interests. Approach, Instruments and Optimization of Socio-Economic Systems* Stream: Social Policy, Culture and Welfare, Design Conference 2007 (The International Conference on Design Principles and Practices)- at Imperial College, London University, United Kingdom, 4th to 7th January,
- Goshev S., Goshev G., (1998), *Genetic Engineering' in Social Systems Methodology - Analysis and Design of Structures, Programming Optimum Functioning and Development of Systems with an Active Human Presence*, 3. Genetic Algorithms and Evolutionary Computation, 6th European Congress on Intelligent Techniques & Soft Computing EUFIT '98, Aachen, Germany, September 7 -10, Proceedings, Volume 1, p. 455- 460
- Goshev S., Goshev G., (1997), "Genetic Engineering" in Social Systems TRANSINCOM RC Annual reports 1997, Union of Bulgarian scientists, Sofia, 1997
- Гошев Г., (1996), *За механизмите на икономическото преуспяване*, кн. 1, загл. на том: Идентификация и инструментариум, ISBN 954-8329-15-8, Съюз на учените в България, София 1996 (Goshev G., *For the Mechanisms of the Economical Prosperity*, ISBN 954-8329-15-8, Sofia, Union of Bulgarian scientists.)

Motif of Infidelity in V. Nabokov's *Laughter in the Dark*

Martyna Sienkiewicz

University of Warsaw

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to present a model and function of infidelity in one of V. Nabokov Russian language novels, *The Laughter in the Dark*. Infidelity motif plays a key role in characters creation and action development. Characters are immersed in a complicated infidelity scheme, interchange, forming unusual plot spider web. Discussed novel, in the means of structure and subject, reminds previous novel of Russian-American author – *King, Queen, Knave*. Moreover, infidelity motif is additionally complemented by other, repeating in Nabokov works, motifs (butterflies, mirrors, crime and punishment, and more).

Keywords: Nabokov, infidelity, motif, theme, model, function, Lolita

Introduction

Vladimir Nabokov is a writer who attracted and intrigued many critics and literary scholars with his works. No matter, that his last completed novel was published in 1969, and since the death of the author nearly forty years had passed, there are still new interpretational concepts of his works. Novels' multi-levelness of this unique Russian-American writer never ceases to amaze researchers. Literary scholars constantly notice new peculiarities of his work forcing to reinterpret and change the pre-defined positions.

Nabokov's phenomenon is found in his tendency to play, not only with regular readers, but also with literature scholars. Writer created many interpretation routes by purpose. He added forewords to many of his novels (often, only after many years), by which, he cleverly manipulates the reader, leading him to a specific way of novel perception. Some scholars stand that everything, that was said by the author directly, may turn out to be a trap (e.g. Toporov, 1990). Nabokov's books remind chess puzzle, which writer loved to create. One wrong conclusion at the beginning of the book is enough to be sentenced to interpretational defeat.

However, regardless of how much the writer was sure of his talent and text dictatorship (control of each particular element in the novel), he was not able to choose what will happen to his novel after publishing.

Nabokov (officially) hated every remark about literary influence of Dostoyevsky works on his own novels. Many times he denied interpretational methods, based on psychoanalysis and commented (and even attacked) attempts to read his books with its help. In many forewords (for instance, to English version of *The Defense* from 1964) Nabokov is actually provoking readers (Nabokov, 2005, p. 9).

Moreover, in such prefaces author often mentions moments, which actually never occurred in the book, trying to trick the reader even more.

Disregarding the numerous traps and manipulations, scholars were able to determine leading motifs and themes in Nabokov's works, for instance, childhood, memories or even particular concept of art. There is, however, many recurring elements, which presence is not spotted immediately (e.g. motif of shadow [Belobrovitseva, 2000, p. 76-90] or oranges [Kladov, 2003, p. 221-227]), and their role in novel interpretation is often significant, if not crucial. One should not underestimate the elements, which constantly appear in different novels of this writer.

Famous polish literature scholar, Z. Lempicki, in his work (Lempicki, 1966, p. 177) stands, that motif should be considered from a perspective of author's individuality. Motifs, which are general form of interpersonal contact, are closely related to specific experiences of the author. The presence of multiple recurring motifs in the works of a particular writer, according to the researcher, has its overt or hidden causes. It may not be the matter of incidence, when a given motif appears in nearly every work of examined author.

One of such motifs in Nabokov's works is infidelity. This paper is focused not on the reasons of frequent appearance of a given element in many novels, but tries to determine its importance in a specific work, which is written in 1933 in Russian (titled *Камера обскура*), novel *Laughter in the Dark*. The first English translation was made in 1936 by Johnathan Long but Nabokov was so displeased that translated the book for his own. Nabokov's English version was published in 1938. For this paper we used both versions. Names and quotes are from English translation. Nabokov had a tendency to introduce significant changes in later editions of his works, to exaggerate or diminish the importance of certain elements. There is no guinea pig Cheepy in English version, the character from cartoon series by Robert Gorn (Axel Rex). There is also a plenty of other differences, yet we are not going to discuss them deeply.

Infidelity motif is fulfilling different functions. It might, firstly, be a main motif, forming the plot and arranging the whole work, which takes place in the described novel (and also in *King, Queen, Knave*), or, secondly, create a seemingly insignificant background for events (*Lolita*). Besides in some works it has a supportive function, aimed at exposing unreliable narrator (*Despair*).

In this scientific piece of paper main heroes will be characterized. Also we will try to present and describe multi-levelled structure of infidelity in the novel and its relatedness with other Nabokov's works. Moreover, we will characterize elements adjunctive to the described phenomenon (the caricature, the theatre of the absurd, the motif of crime and punishment, the art).

The main character of the novel is Albert Albinus, a rich painting expert who succumbs to erotic fascination of Peters. A young usherette, being governed by inborn courtesan instincts, makes him leave his wife and daughter (Boyd, 2001, online). A girl who is interested only in Albinus's money, is not faithful to him, she stultifies him, humiliates and drives him to death.

The novel's plot is based on the complicated structure of infidelity, which creates character's relationships through mutual relations. The whole novel revolves around two love triangles. The first one, less important to us, constitutes a relationship between Albinus, his wife (Elisabeth) and his lover (Margot), and the second one is created by Albert, and Axel Horn. The first triangle, typical for and frequently appearing in the art, reproduces already known schemes. The next one inverts the situation of the first and Albinus transforms from betrayer into betrayed person. Such a scheme also appears in *Lolita*. Humbert gets married with Dolores's mother in order to have a sexual relationship with a girl who later on betrays him with a well-known dramatist and screenwriter (Quilty). He is featured by absurdness and ruthlessness towards the character who betrayed first.

Albert Albinus had enduring relationship with his wife for nine years. Not once had he cheated on her during this time, but thoughts about betrayal have been pursuing him all the time. When Elisabeth, Albinus's wife, spent three weeks in hospital before childbirth, he faulted himself for being a coward due to the fact that he did not manage to cheat on her.

Then one day she was taken to a nursing home and Albinus lived for three weeks alone. He did not know what to do with himself; took a good deal of brandy; was tortured by two dark thoughts, each of a different kind of darkness: one was that his wife might die, and the other that if only he had a little more pluck he might find a friendly girl and bring her back to his empty bedroom¹.

Being bored by everyday life, he realized his dreams at night by dreaming about „young girl lying asprawl on hot lonely beach” (p. 17), but subconsciously he was afraid that his wife may catch him red-handed.

Everything has changed when he met her at the cinema, where she showed him a seat. A random meeting transformed into romance that destroyed main character. Albinus pleased his young partner as much as possible: he rented a house for her, supported her, and invited her to a trip. A teenage courtesan made him divorce with Elisabeth and shortly resided in Albinus's house.

Albert is a literary prototype of Humbert (*Lolita*). Both of them trust their juvenile passions. It turns out that they are being betrayed and entangled into ridiculous triangle by their passions.

Peters met Albinus when she was seventeen (sixteen in Russian edition). She came from a poor middle-class home and had sad enough childhood. She dreamt to be an actress; she worked as a model (nude) and as an usherette at the cinema.

¹ Next pages will be noticed in brackets.

Horn was her first love, who being overwhelmed by own feeling, split up with her. She likes Albinus, but once her ex-lover appears, she decides that "she won't let him escape again" (p. 147).

There are many passages in the text where Margot is compared to animals that are connoted unpleasantly: "[...] lay there, her body curved and motionless, like a lizard" (p. 79); "In the cool room with the red-tiled floor, where the light through the slits of the shutters danced in one's eyes and lay in bright lines at one's feet, snake-like, shuffled off her black skin [...]" (p. 115); ("A lovely creature, unquestionably," thought Lampert, "but there is something snakelike about her") (p. 162); "[...] slowly drew herself up higher and higher, like a snake when it uncoils" (p. 195).

Such comparisons connote with the serpent in the Garden of Eden, which contributed to the collapse of the first biblical people. The serpent is a symbol of deception, sin, evil, the Devil in the Christian tradition. Vipers are virulent, whereas a meeting with them jeopardizes with death. Nabokov applied a similar trick in his previous works (*King, Queen, Knave*) in order to render the main heroine's nature as morally collapsed. Franz noticed two times that Martha, his lover, resembled a toad: "A complete stranger within Franz's consciousness observed in passing that she rather resembled a toad. Martha moved her head. Reality returned" (Nabokov, 1989, p. 198); "[...] an honest young man who had been seduced and appropriated by an older woman who, despite her fine dresses and face lotions, resembled a large white toad" (Nabokov, 1989, p. 259).

Moreover, has a lot in common with a juvenile Dolores, Humbert's miserable love, who is the main character of *Lolita*. Albinus's lover is a representative of so-called nymphet, which frequently appeared in Nabokov's works. According to Humbert, nymphets are girls who are from nine to fourteen years old. She had her first touch of love as a thirteen year's old girl (in Russian version). When she was sixteen (fourteen in first version of the book), she went to a motorbike ride with a stranger, who having eased out of the city "[...] he put his arm round her and began to squeeze and fumble and kiss her so violently that the discomfort she felt that day turned to dizziness" (p. 28). A few months later a naked girl posed in the studio. Seventeen year's old Margot is characterized by childishness and immaturity, whereas passages describing her appearance resemble characterization of *Lolita* when it comes to the style:

1. a) *Albinus sat down beside her and looked [...] at that face in which everything was so charming – the burning cheeks, the lips glistening from the cherry brandy, the childish solemnity of the long hazel eyes and the small downy mole on the soft curve just beneath the left one* (p. 48): **Margot**.

And, as he stood by the bed and feasted his eyes on that childish face, with the soft pink lips and flushed cheeks [...] (p. 178): **Margot**.

b) *There she stood and blinked, cheeks aflame, hair awry, her eyes passing over me as lightly as they did over the furniture [...]* (Nabokov, 1995, p. 61): **Lolita**.

2. a) *Even that vulgar Berlin slang of hers only enhanced the charm of her throaty voice and large white teeth. When laughing she half closed her eyes and a dimple danced on her cheek* (p. 49): **Margot**.

b) *What drives me insane is the twofold nature of this nymphet – of every nymphet, perhaps; this mixture in my Lolita of tender dreamy childishness and a kind of eerie vulgarity, stemming from the snub-nosed cuteness of ads and magazine pictures, from the blurry pinkness of adolescent maidservants in the Old Country (smelling of crushed daisies and sweat)* (Nabokov, 1995, p. 44): **Lolita**.

Besides Albert bathed her and used the words that he earlier used only to his eight-years-old daughter: "Albinus, as he tried to console her, unconsciously used the very words with which he had once comforted Irma when he kissed a bruise – words which now, after Irma's death, were vacant" (p. 192).

The text is much richer in motifs and plots, connecting both Nabokov's heroines. Little Lo Humbert he got into tennis, Margot was taught to play by certain American. She dreamed about actress career, she played supporting role in a movie financed by Albinus, and Lolita took part in theatre spectacle. Moreover, playwright Quilty abandoned Dolores, when she refused to star in a porn movie.

Margot's lover and at the same time first love is Axel Rex, caricaturist, immoral men and one would think, deprived of any feelings. An exception, that artist could not understand, was Margot, memory that "was solely pure and beautiful". Frightened by his own feelings towards young Peters, Axel returned to America. The girl ignited a feeling, which after separation he characterized as acute sorrow – feeling that had been unknown to Rex earlier.

Character left his mentally challenged mother, who died soon after his escape to America. Narrator's words complete his characteristics:

As a child he had poured oil over live mice, set fire to them and watched them dart about for a few seconds like flaming meteors. And it is best not to inquire into the things he did to cats. Then, in riper years, when his artistic talent developed, he tried in more subtle ways to satiate his curiosity, for it was not anything morbid with a medical name – oh, not at all – just cold, wide-eyed curiosity, just the marginal notes supplied by life to his art. It amused him immensely to see life made to look silly, as it slid helplessly into caricature. He despised practical jokes: he liked them to happen by themselves with perchance now and then just that little touch on his part which would send the wheel running downhill. He loved to fool people; and the less trouble the process entailed, the more the joke pleased him (p. 143).

Similarly to other participants of a triangle, Also Axel has got his double in later Nabokov's novel (*Lolita*), whom is Quilty. Both are art activists (playwright and caricaturist), characterized by dubious moral backbone and lack of respect for the people around them. Heroes are characterized by theatricality, which is proved by descriptions of their appearance and scenes, where they act.

The man had impressed him the evening before not only by his ready wit and easy manner, but also by his extraordinary personal appearance: his pale, hollow cheeks, thick lips and queer black hair went to form a kind of fascinating ugliness (p. 145).

Given characteristic brings to mind famous British actor and comedian, Charlie Chaplin. Moreover, Russian scholar N. Dolgova (Dolgova, 2013), in her work analyses fragments of *Laughter in the Dark* and *Lolita*, which express theatrical tradition of carnival performed by common people (Dolgova, 2013, online) (e.g. Pietrushka theater—in Russian version): "[...] he pressed his hand to his heart and flung out his arms jerkily – it was a capital imitation of Punch – all this of course in dumb show, though he could have squeaked remarkably in more favourable circumstances" (p. 253).

Another point proving character's theatricality is that Axel in front of Albert played a role of homosexual, so he did not suspect that someone is trying to take Margot from him: "No, thank you. A woman for me is only a harmless mammal, or a jolly companion—sometimes" (p. 167).

Duel scene between Humbert and Quilty, its absurd and caricature nature is explicitly similar to a meeting scene between Paul (Albinus's brother-in-law) and Rex. In both scenes there is nudity, theatrical behaviour of attacked characters, which, despite received hits, keep their smile.

[...] and Paul, good-natured Paul who had never in his life hit a living creature, swung out mightily at Rex's head and got it with tremendous bang. Rex leaped back – his face still twisted n a smile – and suddenly something remarkable occurred: like Adam after the Fall, Rex, cowering by the white wall and grinning wanly, covered his nakedness with his hand (p. 278).

Axel's actions strongly connote to absurd theatre, where traditional roles designated to tragedy and comedy are turned upside down – tragedy becomes a carrier of comic content, and comedy – tragic. Besides, gifted caricaturist often takes role of spectator, who is pleased by witnessing tragicomic show.

He watched with interest the sufferings of Albinus [...]; whereas Rex reflected – with a sense of pleasant anticipation – that, far from being the limit, it was merely the first item in the program of a roaring comedy at which he, Rex had been reserved a place in the stage manager's private box (p. 182).

At the end of the novel stage direction appear which, once again, turns the reader to structure of dramatic text.

Infidelity motif, which is a foundation of whole novel, connects in *Laughter in the Dark* with motif of crime and punishment. Albinus, who cheated on his wife, hence committed a crime against their relationship, paid the highest price for that – price of his own life. First punishment, delivered by fate, was death of Albert's daughter, Irma. Sick child had been getting well, when in the night she heard whistling, reminding her melody, which her father used to whistle when returned home. She leaned out a window in a chilly night, which made her condition worse and she died. Author, through this symbolic scene shows who is to be blamed for children's death – Albinus. For him it was a sign, to leave his paramour and return to his wife. He made the wrong decision and absolute author-demiurge sentenced him to death.

Similar situation we have in *King, Queen, Knave*, where Martha, not only cheated on her husband, but also decided to kill him. During temporarily postponed murder attempt she got ill with pneumonia and soon after she died.

Motif of infidelity is also mixed with motif of art. E. Antoshina in her work (Antoshina, 2010, p. 186-191) examines the motif of animated portrait. The introduction to a given phenomenon is a story of a guinea pig, a hero of caricature series by Axel Rex, which won the hearts of the western world. The image of a guinea pig “comes alive” in the movie, during a screening when Albert met Margot. According to researcher, young Peters keeps this motif through variation of animated statue/waxwork (Antoshina, 2010, p. 189). That is proved by Albert thoughts: “Albinus’ specialty had been his passion for art; his most brilliant discovery had been Margot” (p. 257). Moreover E. Antoshina states, that Margot has a function of psychopomp (Antoshina, 2010, p. 190) (in Greek mythology: a guide of souls to the place of the dead¹). This is very accurate remark, considering the final of this novel (metaphoric psychopomp leads Albert to the world of death, by killing him).

In this novel art has an unmasking function. Certain about her talent, Margot played in a movie, which turned out to be a disaster. Film, vivid portrait, presents caricature character, whose appearance discourages and pushes away:

Awkward and ugly, with a swollen, strangely altered, leech-black mouth, misplaced brows and unexpected creases in her dress, the girl on the screen stared wildly in front of her and then broke in two with her stomach on the window sill and her buttocks to the spectators (p. 187).

Movie portrait of Margot changes like a portrait of Dorian Grey (*The Picture of Dorian Gray*), which grew older and reflected character’s corruption, whilst he remained young and beautiful.

It is through the art Albinus finds out about Margot’s infidelity. His old friend, whom he met accidentally after so many years, reads him a fragment of his own story, based on fatal meeting between Margot and Axel in a train compartment. Young people, use the opportunity that Albert is not around and talk about events so familiar to deceived Albinus. Cheated character goes berserk, he wants to kill Margot, and but he takes her from the hotel instead, crushes his car and loses his sight.

Cheating scenes are also filled with caricature, which is so important for Rex. During the first meeting of all three, confused Margot sits between her admirers. Under the table Albert grabs one of her knees, and Axel grabs another one. When, during a visit in Albinus’s house, Rex leans to kiss Margot, householder enters the room, Axel cannot disentangle himself from lace of Peters’s scarf. In the way south they stop in a hotel, where Axel’s and Albinus’s rooms have a shared bathroom. In the evening and in the morning Margot locks herself in a divided room, drains water into the tub and sneaks to Rex. Axel’s crowning achievement is organizing common place with blind Albert. Together with Margot they do not miss a chance, to gloat over misfortune and helplessness of Albinus. We already mentioned Rex’s passion that was implemented through transforming different situations into a living caricature.

To summarize the abovementioned, infidelity motif has a crucial role in the novel. It is a main element, organizing whole work and motivating characters’ conduct, which influences later Nabokov’s novels (e.g. *Lolita*: they are prototypes of Humbert, Lolita, Quilty). This phenomenon interacts with other themes and traditions (theatre of absurd, caricature, art, motif of crime and punishment). Multi-levelled structure of infidelity becomes an intertextual bridge, connecting *Laughter in the Dark* not only with other works of Russian-American writer, but also with traditions of world literature. It is one of the most frequently appearing motif in Nabokov’s work, which depending on a novel fulfills different functions.

References:

Antoshina, V. (2010). Motiv „ozhivshego portreta v strukture siyzheta romana V. V. Nabokova „Kamera obskura“. Uchenyye zapiski Rossiyskogo gosudarsvennogo cotsialnogo universiteta, 10, 186-191.

Belobrovitseva, I. (2000). Motiv teni u V. Nabokova. Kultura russkoy diasporiy: Vladimir Nabokov – 100. Tallinn, 76-90.

Boyd, B. (2001). Glava 16. II „Zashchita Luzhina“. Vladimir Nabokov: russkiye gody. [online]. <http://fiibusta.is/b/218544/read#aintlink1040>.

Dolgova, N. (2013). Traditsii teatralnoy narodno-smehovoy kultury v romanah V. V. Nabokova „Kamera obskura“ i „Lolita“. Vestnik Ryazanskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta im. S.A. Yesenina, 4. [online]. <http://cyberleninka.ru/article/n/traditsii-teatralnoy-narodno-smehovoy-kultury-v-romanah-v-v-nabokova-kamera-obskura-i-lolita>.

Kladov, M. (2003). Apelsiny Nabokova. Izvestiya Uralskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta, 221-227.

¹ Psychopomp. Oxford Dictionaries. [online]. <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/psychopomp>.

Łempicki, Z. (1966). Osnowa, wątek, motyw. Studia z teorii literatury. Warszawa: Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, 2, 177.

Nabokov, V. (2005). Od Autora. Obrona Łużyna. Warszawa: Muza SA 2005, 9.

Nabokov, V. (1989). Queen, King, Knave. New York: Vintage International.

Nabokov, V. (1989). The Laughter in the Dark. New York: Vintage International.

Nabokov, V. (1995). Lolita. London: Penguin Classics, 61.

Oxford Dictionaries. [online]. <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/>.

Toporov, V. (1990). Nabokov naoborot. Literaturnoye obozreniye, 4, 71-75.

Statistical Analysis of the Government Expenditure for Greece: January 2008- September 2015**Juxhen Duzha**

University of New York Tirana, Albania

Brunilda Hoxhalli

University of New York Tirana, Albania

Enxhi Lika

University of Tirana, Albania

Steisi Mici

University of New York Tirana, Albania

Abstract

The main purpose of the present study is to develop a statistical analysis of the government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008- September 2015. The source of the official data is the Greece Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. The Kolmogorov's Central Limit Theorem, "fair game" concept in the sense of Stein-Vorobiev, Kolmogorov- Smirnov- Lilliefors test and Shapiro- Wilk test are applied. The government expenditure is estimated based on current price or as a percentage of GDP. Some results of the present study include: The official data of quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 contradicts the CLT at the confidence level 95%. The official data of quarterly government expenditure expressed as a fraction of GDP for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 contradicts CLT at the confidence level 95%. The government expenditure process in Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 is an unfair game at the confidence level 95%. The government expenditure as a fraction of GDP in Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 is an unfair game at the confidence level 95%. The official data of quarterly GDP for Greece during the specified period contradicts CLT at the confidence level 95%. The quarterly GDP in Greece during the specified period is a fair game at the confidence level 95%.

Keywords: government expenditure, GDP, CLT, fair game, OECD, Greece.**Abbreviations**

CLT- Central Limit Theorem

GDP- Gross Domestic Product

KSL- Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Lilliefors

SW- Shapiro-Wilk

OECD- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

Introduction

The main purpose of this study is to develop a statistical analysis of the quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008 – September 2015. The source of the official data is the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

Definition 1

Government expenditure for a given country during a specified period of time is the market value of government purchases of goods and services.

Government expenditure includes government purchases of goods and services produced domestically or abroad. For the purpose of GDP accounts, government expenditure excludes transfer payments (for example, Social Security payments to retirees) and also excludes interest paid on government debt. These categories are omitted because they represent payments to other agents in the economy, who will use those payments to buy goods and services. To avoid double-counting, these government payments to other agents are not counted as government expenditure on goods and services.

According to the Keynesian Theory, increased government expenditure raises aggregate demand and increases consumption, which leads to increase production and faster recovery from recessions. Classical economists, on the other hand, believe that increased government expenditure exacerbates an economic contraction by shifting resources from the private sector, which they consider productive, to the public sector, which they consider unproductive, see Blanchard (2011), Mankiw (2011).

Government expenditure is a component of the GDP formula:

$$GDP = C + I + G + X - M$$

where C denotes consumption, I denotes investments, G denotes government expenditure, X denotes exports, and M denotes imports. GDP represents gross domestic product.

GDP is the market value of all officially recognized final goods and services produced within a country in a given period of time (quarterly GDP versus annual GDP), Blanchard (2011) and Mankiw (2011).

GDP can be determined in three ways, all of which should, in principle, give the same result:

-Production Approach

-Expenditure Approach

-Income Approach

In the present study it is applied the Expenditure Approach.

The government expenditure for Greece is expressed in Euro or as a fraction of GDP, called GDP share.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows:

Section 2 contains the methodology of the research

Section 3 provides the dynamics of quarterly government expenditure

Section 4 presents the investigation of fair game hypothesis for government expenditure

Section 5 provides the dynamics of quarterly GDP process

Section 6 concludes the paper

Methodology

Theoretical approach of the present study contains CLT, Martingale Theory and Hypothesis Testing, especially for fair game hypothesis in the sense of Stein – Vorobiev.

The GDP formula (or National Income Accounting Identity) confirms that the market value of domestic production is equal to total expenditure of domestic economic agents ($C+I+G$), plus the expenditure of foreign agents on exports (X) minus the value of domestic expenditure that was imported (M).

Government expenditure in Greece occurs in several levels of government, including primarily central and local governments.

Changes in government expenditure are a major component of fiscal policy, used to stabilize the macroeconomic business cycle.

The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) explains why many probability distributions tend to be very close to the normal distribution. The CLT is also known as the second fundamental theorem of Probability Theory. The Law of Large Numbers is the first fundamental theorem, and the Law of the Iterated Logarithm is the third fundamental theorem of Probability Theory. The Law of the Iterated Logarithm tells us what is happening "in between" The Law of Large Numbers and The CLT. Specifically, it says that the normalizing function $\sqrt{n l_n(l_n n)}$, intermediate in size between n of The Law of Large Numbers and \sqrt{n} of The CLT, provides a nontrivial limiting behavior, see Shiryaev (2006). A contemporary version of the CLT is given by A.N.Kolmogorov.

Theorem 1 (CLT)

If all random samples (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) of a reasonably large size $n > 30$ are selected from any random variable (population) X with finite expectation μ and variance σ^2 then the probability distribution of the sample mean \bar{x} is approximately normal with expectation μ and variance $\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$. This approximation improves with larger samples, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, see Kolmogorov (2002).

Theorem 2 (Berry – Esséen)

If the third central moment $E(X - \mu)^3$ exists and is finite, then the above convergence is uniform for all $x \in (-\infty, +\infty)$ and the speed of convergence is at least on the order $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$, see Shiryaev (2006).

Theorem 3 (Arstein – Ball – Barthe – Naor)

The convergence to normal distribution is monotonic in the sense that the entropy of the random variable

$$Z_n = \frac{n(\bar{x} - \mu)}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$$

increases monotonically to that of the standard normal distribution (Arstein, Ball, Barthe, and Naor, 2004).

The amazing and counterintuitive thing about CLT is that no matter what the probability distribution of the parent population X , the probability distribution of the sample mean \bar{x} approaches a normal curve.

Theorem 1

If a stochastic process $X(t)$ is F_t^0 – martingale, then $E[X(t)] = \text{constant}$, $\forall t \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem 2

If a stochastic process is not F_t^0 – martingale, then it is not also F_t – martingale.

Theorem 3

The stochastic process $\{X(t)\}, t \in \mathbb{N}$, is a F_t^0 – martingale if and only if the process

$$\{Z(t) = X(t) - X(t-1)\}, t \geq 2,$$

is a **fair game**. That is, $Z(t)$ follows normal distribution and

$$E[Z(t) | F_{t-1}^0] = E[Z(2)] = 0, \quad \forall t \geq 3.$$

The definition of fair game was given by J. Stein (1974), Nobel Award Winner in Economic Sciences and by Vorobiev (1974), Professor of Mathematics at Moscow University.

“Unfair game” in the sense of Stein -Vorobiev means “speculative game”.

In most applications where we wish to test for normality, the population mean μ and variance σ^2 are unknown. In order to perform the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, we must assume that μ and σ^2 are known. The Lilliefors test, which is quite similar to the Kolmogorov – Smirnov test, overcomes this problem. The major difference between the two tests is that, with the Lilliefors test, the sample mean \bar{x} and the sample standard deviation s are used (instead of μ and σ) to calculate the cumulative distribution function $F(x)$. The sample cumulative function $S(x)$ and the test statistic

$$D = \max_i |F(x_i) - S(x_i)|$$

are both computed as in the Kolmogorov – Smirnov test. In the Lilliefors test we compare the computed value D with the critical value D_c provided by the table of the Lilliefors test.

The SW test for normality compares a set of sample data (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) against the normal distribution. The SW test for normality is a very powerful test. This test is of regression type and assesses how well the observed cumulative frequency distribution curve fits the expected normal cumulative curve. The SW test for normality is sensitive to both skewness and kurtosis. In general, SW test is more accurate than KSL test, Cramer – Von Mises test, Durbin test, Chi-squared test, and b₁ test. (Wackearley, Mendenhall, and Schaeffer 2007, Hogg 2009, Field 2013). We use SPSS version 22.

3. Dynamics of quarterly government expenditure

The data set is quarterly government expenditure expressed in thousands of Euro during the period January 2008-September 2015, **see table 1** in Appendix. Using SPSS (version 22, 2014), compute the statistical parameters for the data.

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
GOVEXP	Mean		10956.406250	321.6334722
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	10300.430459	
		Upper Bound	11612.382041	
	5% Trimmed Mean		10906.583333	
	Median		11034.500000	
	Variance		3310338.894	
	Std. Deviation		1819.4336740	
	Minimum		8791.0000	
	Maximum		14067.0000	
	Range		5276.0000	
	Interquartile Range		3608.7500	
	Skewness		.233	.414
	Kurtosis		-1.404	.809

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
GOVEXP	.161	32	.035	.895	32	.005

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Test the hypothesis:

H₀: The quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 follow a normal distribution.

H₁: The quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 follow a non-normal distribution.

Using SPSS, find the significance level $p=0.035$ for KSL test and $p=0.005$ for SW test.

Decision Rule:

$P < \alpha = 0.05$ in both cases. Therefore, reject the null hypothesis H₀ at the confidence level 95%.

In other words, the official data of quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 contradicts CLT at the confidence level 95%.

-The data set is quarterly government expenditure expressed as a fraction of GDP for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015. Using SPSS (version 22, 2014), compute the statistical parameters for the data.

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
GDPPERC	Mean		213279	.0019762
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	209249	
		Upper Bound	217310	
	5% Trimmed Mean		212766	
	Median		210341	
	Variance		.000	
	Std. Deviation		.0111791	
	Minimum		1983	
	Maximum		2385	
	Range		.0402	
	Interquartile Range		.0178	
	Skewness		.597	.414
	Kurtosis		-.656	.809

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
GDPPERC	.153	32	.054	.928	32	.035

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Test the hypothesis:

H₀: The quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 follow a normal distribution.

H₁: The quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 follow a non-normal distribution.

Using SPSS, find the significance level $p=0.054$ for KSL test and $p=0.035$ for SW test.

Decision Rule:

$P < \alpha = 0.05$ in both cases. Therefore, reject the null hypothesis H_0 at the confidence level 95%.

In other words, the official data of quarterly government expenditure expressed as a fraction of GDP for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 contradicts CLT at the confidence level 95%.

4. The investigation of fair game hypothesis for government expenditure

-The data set is the successive differences in thousands of Euro of quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015. Using SPSS (version 22, 2014), compute the statistical parameters for the data.

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
FDIFFGOVEXP	Mean		-111.161290	67.1720964
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-248.345013	
		Upper Bound	26.022432	
	5% Trimmed Mean		-126.917563	
	Median		-80.000000	
	Variance		139874.806	
	Std. Deviation		373.9984043	
	Minimum		-798.0000	
	Maximum		1146.0000	
	Range		1944.0000	
	Interquartile Range		504.0000	
	Skewness		.794	.421
	Kurtosis		3.196	.821

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
FDIFFGOVEXP	.128	31	.200 [*]	.910	31	.013

Using KSL test as well as SW test for normality we test the hypothesis:

H_0 : The successive differences of the quarterly government expenditures in thousands of Euro in Greece over the specified period follow a normal distribution.

H_1 : The successive differences of the quarterly government expenditures in thousands of Euro in Greece over the specified period follow a non- normal distribution.

We apply the KSL test as well as the SW test for normality Using SPSS (2014) we find the computed value of KSL test= .128 and associated significance level= .200. The computed value of SW statistics is .910, which corresponds to a significance level of .013.

Decision Rule: Reject the null hypothesis H_0 at the confidence level 95%. In other words, the government expenditure process in Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 is an unfair game at the confidence level 95%.

--The data set is the successive differences of quarterly government expenditure as a fraction of GDP for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015.

Using SPSS (version 22, 2014), compute the statistical parameters for the data.

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
FDIFFGDPPER	Mean		-.000025	.0011787
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-.002432	
		Upper Bound	.002382	
	5% Trimmed Mean		-.000489	
	Median		-.000376	
	Variance		.000	
	Std. Deviation		.0065625	
	Minimum		-.0108	
	Maximum		.0239	
	Range		.0347	
	Interquartile Range		.0075	
	Skewness		1.445	.421
	Kurtosis		4.807	.821

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
FDIFFGDPPER	.109	31	.200 [*]	.897	31	.006

Using KSL test as well as SW test for normality we test the hypothesis:

H_0 : The successive differences of quarterly government expenditure as a fraction of GDP in Greece over the specified period follow a normal distribution.

H_1 : The successive differences of quarterly government expenditure as a fraction of GDP in Greece over the specified period follow a non- normal distribution.

We apply the KSL test as well as the SW test for normality Using SPSS (2014) we find the computed value of KSL test= .109 and associated significance level= .200. The computed value of SW statistics is .897, which corresponds to a significance level of .006.

Decision Rule:

Reject the null hypothesis H_0 at the confidence level 95%. In other words, the government expenditure as a fraction of GDP in Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 is an unfair game at the confidence level 95%.

5. The dynamics of quarterly GDP process

The data set is quarterly GDP in thousands of Euro during the period January 2008-September 2015. Using SPSS (version 22, 2014), compute the statistical parameters for the data.

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
GDP	Mean		49255.343750	1946.5566505
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	45285.315287	
		Upper Bound	53225.372213	
	5% Trimmed Mean		50457.597222	
	Median		48604.000000	
	Variance		121250649.394	
	Std. Deviation		11011.3872602	

Minimum	.0000	
Maximum	60546.0000	
Range	60546.0000	
Interquartile Range	13902.7500	
Skewness	-2.857	.414
Kurtosis	12.654	.809

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
GDP	.273	32	.000	.691	32	.000

Test the hypothesis:

H_0 : The quarterly GDP for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 follow a normal distribution.

H_1 : The quarterly GDP for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 follow a non-normal distribution.

Using SPSS, find the significance level $p=0.000$ for KSL test and $p=0.000$ for SW test.

Decision rule:

$P < \alpha = 0.05$ in both cases. Therefore, reject the null hypothesis H_0 at the confidence level 95%.

In other words, the official data of quarterly GDP for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 contradicts CLT at the confidence level 95%.

--The data set is the successive differences of quarterly GDP in thousands of Euro for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015. Using SPSS (version 22, 2014), compute the statistical parameters for the data.

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
FDIFFGDP	Mean		-543.838710	140.0247835
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	-829.807468	
		Upper Bound	-257.869951	
	5% Trimmed Mean		-591.964158	
	Median		-642.000000	
	Variance		607815.140	
	Std. Deviation		779.6249995	
	Minimum		-1695.0000	
	Maximum		1728.0000	
	Range		3423.0000	
	Interquartile Range		1093.0000	
	Skewness		.896	.421
	Kurtosis		1.110	.821

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
FDIFFGDP	.148	31	.083	.944	31	.107

Using KSL test as well as SW test for normality we test the hypothesis:

H_0 : The successive differences of the quarterly GDP in thousands of Euro in Greece over the specified period follow a normal distribution.

H_1 : The successive differences of the quarterly GDP in thousands of Euro in Greece over the specified period follow a non- normal distribution.

We apply the KSL test as well as the SW test for normality Using SPSS (2014) we find the computed value of KSL test= .148 and associated significance level= .083.The computed value of SW statistics is .944, which corresponds to a significance level of .107.

Decision Rule: Accept the null hypothesis H_0 at the confidence level 95%. In other words, the quarterly GDP in Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 is a fair game at the confidence level 95%.

6. Conclusion

In the present study developed a statistical analysis of the quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015. The source of the official data is OECD. The government expenditure is estimated based on current price or as a fraction of GDP.

Using Kolmogorov's CLT and the "fair game" concept in Stein-Vorobiev sense, are obtained the following results:

The official data of quarterly government expenditure for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 contradicts the CLT at the confidence level 95%.

The official data of quarterly government expenditure expressed as a fraction of GDP for Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 contradicts CLT at the confidence level 95%.

The government expenditure process in Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 is an unfair game at the confidence level 95%.

The government expenditure as a fraction of GDP in Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 is an unfair game at the confidence level 95%.

The official data of quarterly GDP for Greece during the specified period contradicts CLT at the confidence level 95%.

The quarterly GDP in Greece during the specified period is a fair game at the confidence level 95%.

The mean of the quarterly government expenditure as a fraction of GDP in Greece during the period January 2008-September 2015 is 21.32%, the maximum value is 23.85% and the minimum value 19.83%.

The severity of unfair game government expenditure in Greece during the specified period is an obvious feature of the present study.

These results are important for Greece Government and especially for its citizens.

References

Acemoglu, D., Laibson, D. and List, J.A. (2016) Macroeconomics, Pearson, USA.

Blanchard, O. (2011). Macroeconomics, Pearson, USA.

Bureau of Economic Analysis (2016). Financial Times Articles & Analysis.

Field, A. (2013). Discovering Statistics Using SPSS (4ed.), London: Sage.

Hogg, R. V. (2009). Probability and Statistical Inference, 8ed., Prentice Hall.

Kolmogorov, A. N. (2002). Probability Theory, Moscow: Nauka.

Mankiw, N. Gregory (2011). Macroeconomics, 8th edition, New York: Work Publishers.

Shiryayev, A. N. (2006). Probability, second edition, Springer, New York.

Stein, J. L. (1974). Unemployment, inflation and monetarism. American Economic Review, 92 (5), pp 721-756.

Vorobiev, N. N. (1974). Sovremennoe sostojanie teorii igr, Uspehi Matematicheskikh Nauk, 44(1), 73-98

Wackearly, D. D., Mendenhall, W. and Scheaffer, R. L. (2007). Mathematical Statistics with Application Duxbury Advanced Series

Appendix, Table 1:

Table 1. Quarterly Government expenditure, quarterly GDP, and their successive differences for Greece during the specified period January 2008-September 2015.

		GDP	FIDIFFGDP	GovExp	FDIFFGOVEXP	GDPperc	FIDDPercGDP
	Q1	60,468		12,237		0.202372	
	Q2	60,546	78	12,452	215	0.205662	0.00329
2008	Q3	61,162	616	12,716	264	0.207906	0.002244
	Q4	59,467	-1,695	12,760	44	0.214573	0.006667
	Q1	58,306	-1,161	13,906	1,146	0.2385	0.023928
	Q2	60,034	1,728	14,067	161	0.234317	-0.00418
2009	Q3	59,453	-581	13,848	-219	0.232923	-0.00139
	Q4	59,907	454	13,453	-395	0.224565	-0.00836
	Q1	58,712	-1,195	13,351	-102	0.227398	0.002833
	Q2	57,293	-1,419	12,627	-724	0.220393	-0.007
2010	Q3	55,791	-1,502	12,142	-485	0.217634	-0.00276
	Q4	54,900	-891	12,008	-134	0.218725	0.001091
	Q1	53,323	-1,577	11,210	-798	0.210228	-0.0085
	Q2	52,392	-931	11,364	154	0.216903	0.006675
2011	Q3	51,479	-913	11,575	211	0.224849	0.007946
	Q4	49,903	-1,576	11,001	-574	0.220448	-0.0044
	Q1	49,197	-706	11,068	67	0.224973	0.004525
	Q2	48,011	-1,186	10,621	-447	0.22122	-0.00375
2012	Q3	47,369	-642	9,969	-652	0.210454	-0.01077
	Q4	46,820	-549	10,078	109	0.21525	0.004796
	Q1	45,964	-856	9,517	-561	0.207053	-0.0082
	Q2	45,360	-604	9,312	-205	0.205291	-0.00176
2013	Q3	44,683	-677	9,241	-71	0.206812	0.001521
	Q4	44,092	-591	9,027	-214	0.204731	-0.00208
2014	Q1	44,078	-14	8,945	-82	0.202936	-0.0018
	Q2	44,010	-68	8,955	10	0.203476	0.000541

	Q3	44,903	893	8,903	-52	0.198272	-0.0052
	Q4	44,149	-754	8,823	-80	0.199846	0.001574
2015	Q1	44,078	-71	8,957	134	0.203208	0.003362
	Q2	44,153	75	8,851	-106	0.200462	-0.00275
	Q3	43,721	-432	8,830	-21	0.201962	0.0015
	Q4	43,609	-112	8,791	-39	0.201587	-0.00038

Copyright and Copyright Protection

Safet Emruli

PhD in law, professor at Faculty of law, State University of Tetova,
St. Ilinden nn, 1200 Tetovo, Republic of Macedonia

Agim Nuhiu

PhD in law, professor at Faculty of law,
State University of Tetova, St. Ilinden nn, 1200 Tetovo, Republic of Macedonia

Besa Kadriu

MSc in law, Faculty of law, South East European University,
St. Ilinden no 335, 1200 Tetovo, Republic of Macedonia

Abstract

One of the legal intellectual property disciplines are copyrights which concerns artistic and literary works. Copyright is: bundle of exclusive legal rights that has to do with protection of literary and artistic works. It is granted to authors and artists to protect expressive works against unauthorized reproduction or distribution by third parties. Copyright protect “works”, expression of thoughts and ideas. Literary, dramatic, musical and artistic works must be original, it means not to be a copy. Copyright covers two other types of right: economic rights, the right of the owner to benefit financial reward from use of his work by others and moral rights which always have to do with original holder no matter if economic rights are transferred or not. Economic rights can be transferred. Bern Convention for the Protection of the Literary and Artistic Works is international key agreement and the oldest multilateral agreement in the field of copyright. Copyright subsists automatically on the creation of a work, no application needed, nor do any formalities apply. Nature of copyright is territorial and the minimum term of protection is life of the author plus 50 years after his/her death. In European Union and in certain number of countries, terms of protections of are extended to life of the author plus 70 years after his/her death.

Keywords: intellectual property, copyright, protection of copyright, originality.

Introduction

The term “intellectual property” may sound pretentious, but it is an apt description for subject matter of the laws that give rise to proprietary interests in creations of the mind. The principal one of the legal intellectual property disciplines is copyrights which concerns artistic and literary works.¹

Copyright is granted to authors and artists to protect expressive works against unauthorized reproduction or distribution by third parties. Expressive works are broadly defined, and include such things as books, films music recordings, and computer software.²

Article 2 of the Bern Convention for the Protection of the Literary and Artistic Works the expression ‘literary and artistic works’ shall include every production in the literary, scientific and artistic domain, whatever may be the mode or form of its expression, such as books, pamphlets and other writings; lectures, addresses, sermons and other works of the same nature; dramatic or dramatico-musical works; choreographic works and entertainments in dumb show; musical compositions with or without words; cinematographic works to which are assimilated works expressed by a process analogous to cinematography; works of drawing, painting, architecture, sculpture, engraving and lithography; photographic

¹ R. SCHECHTER and J. THOMAS, *Intellectual Property the Law of Copyrights, Patents, and Trademarks*, Thomson West, USA, 2003

² F. ABBOTT, TH. COTTIER and F. GARRY, *International Intellectual Property In An Integrated World Economy*, Second Edition, USA, 2011, p.9

works, to which are assimilated works expressed by a process analogous to photography; works of applied art; illustrations, maps, plans, sketches and three-dimensional works relative to geography, topography, architecture or science. [...] Translations, adaptations, arrangements of music and other alterations of a literary or artistic work shall be protected as original works without prejudice to the copyright in the original work [...] Collections of literary or artistic works, such as encyclopaedias and anthologies which, by reason of the selection and arrangement of their contents constitute intellectual creations shall be protected as such, without prejudice to the copyright in each of the works forming part of such collections.¹ According to this any creation of the mind can attract copyright protection as long as it meets the requirement of the Berne Convention and the requirement of national law. Bern Convention with article 2 specifies that the expressions "literally and artistic works" shall include production in the literary, scientific and artistic domain. One of definition for copyright is: bundle of exclusive legal rights that has to do with protection of literary and artistic works. As we can see, copyright protect "works", expression of thoughts and ideas. Ideas and thoughts can not be subject matter of copyrights. Idea as a idea can be freely copied, example an idea for writing a novel for France aristocracy can be copied as a idea from anyone, but then this idea is expressed in words it gains a protection.

Protection of copyright

Copyright protect "works", expression of thoughts and ideas. There is no formal definition of "work" but case law suggests that some minimum amount of effort must have been expended in author's creation. Copyright protection has been refused to works which are very trivial or very small.²

Work should come within meaning of the concept of "literally and artistic works" in accordance of Article 2 of Berne Convention.

A work of authorship must be original in order to qualify for copyright protection. It means that:

1. the author must have engaged in his own intellectual endeavor, rather than copying from an preexisting surce and
2. the work must demonstrate a minimum amount of creativity.³

Literary, dramatic, musical and artistic works must be original, but 'originality' is not defined. This judicially initiated principle has two aspects: a work must emanate from its author, and the author must have exercised a modicum of 'skill, labour, and judgment' in the work's creation. To be original a work must not be a copy.⁴

Copyright confers the exclusive right to reproduce the work, issue copies to the public communicate it or adopt it. It is infringement when one of these acts is done without a permission.⁵

Work is protected by its creation, and in some national legislations "works" have to be fixed before its protection. The work consider fixed when it is written down or recorded. Upon creation or fixation, depending on the national legislation, copyright protection automatically comes into force without further formality.⁶

The author is the person who invests the element of creativity for the creation of the work at issue. And it is usually to whom copyrighted is granted.

The author of copyright enjoys two type of rights economic and moral rights.

Economic rights

Economic rights are right of the owner to benefit financial reward from use of his work by others. Copyright law traditionally has focused on granting authors economic right in their works.

¹ Bern Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works, September 9, 1886, completed on 4 May 1896, revised at Berlin on November 13, 1908, completed at Berne on March 20, 1914, revised at Rome, June 2, 1928, at Brussels on June 1948, at Stockholm July 14, 1967, at Paris July 24, 1971, and amended on September 28, 1979

² C. COLSTON, Principles of Intellectual Property Law, London, 1999

³ M. BRRETT Intellectual Property, Third Edition, New York, 2012

⁴ C. COLSTON, Principles of Intellectual Property Law, London, 1999

⁵ C. COLSON, J. GALLOWAY, Modern Intellectual Property Law, Third Edition, USA, 2010

⁶ K. Idris, Intellectual Property A Power Tool For Economic Growth

By contracts many countries have fashioned their copyright laws to extend such personal, along with economic rights.¹

Economic rights provided from Bern Convention can be separated in four groups:

Right of reproduction regulated in Article 9 pint 1 of convention which says: authors of literary and artistic works protected by this Convention shall have the exclusive right of authorizing the reproduction of these works in any manner or form.²

Right of translation or adaptation. Translation is the right of the author authorizing for translating of his work from one language in other languages. And adaptation means remodeling in another form or adjustment of the work.

Public performance is through public performance , broadcasting and communication to the public and

Resale right

Economic rights can be transferred, it means that third party can obtain economic rights if the rights are been transferred by the author.

It is opposite with the moral rights, they are non-transferable.

Moral rights

The moral rights protect the integrity of work against unsuitable treatment by others. They are: the right to be named as author, the right to object to derogatory treatment of the work and the right against false attribution.³ Regarding this, Article 6bis of Convention provides two type of moral right:

the right of the paternity identifying the author in each copy of the authors work and

the right of integrity, right of the author to object to any derogation, distortion or other modification to his work which will consist to his honor or reputation.

Copyright protection is territorial in nature which means that for gaining copyright protection firstly you have to meet the requirements of that country in which protection is asked for. If the work meet the requirement for copyright protection than the minimum term of protection under the Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) agreement, will be life of the author plus 50 years after his/her death.⁴ However, in European Union and in certain number of countries, terms of protections are extended to life of the author plus 70 years after his/her death.

Bern Convention

Bern Convention for the Protection of the Literary and Artistic Works is international key agreement and the oldest multilateral agreement in the field of copyright. The main purpose of this convention is to harmonize copyright law of Contracting Parties, where the Contracting Parties are obligated to offer authors at least minimum standard of protection provided from this Convention.

Basic principle from this convention are: principle of national treatment, automatic protection and independent of protection. The main princip of the Bern Convention is national treatment. Bern Convention obligate the contracting parties to treat foreign author of the Bern Union same as national authors,⁵ under national law countries can not discriminate against works from other countries part of the convention. Only authors of works protected under the Convention are entitled to national treatment. Under article 5 of the Bern Convention " Authors shall enjoy, in respect of the works for which they are

¹ C. COLSON, J. GALLOWAY, *Modern Intellectual Property Law*, Third Edition, USA, 2010

² Bern Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works, September 9, 1886, completed on 4 May 1896, revised at Berlin on November 13, 1908, completed at Berne on March 20, 1914, revised at Rome, June 2, 1928, at Brussels on June 1948, at Stockholm July 14, 1967, at Paris July 24, 1971, and amended on September 28, 1979 , Article 9 pint 1

³ M. BRRETT *Intellectual Property*, Third Edition, New York, 2012

⁴ Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights, Apr. 15, 1994, Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization

⁵ K. Idris, *Intellectual Property A Power Tool For Economic Growth*

protected under this Convention, in countries of Union other than the country of origin, the rights which their respective laws do now or may hereafter grant to their nationals, as well as the rights specially granted by this Convention":¹

Example

An author who is a national of the contracting states

An author of a novel first published in a contracting state who lives in contracting state but is not a national of a contracting state

An author of piece of architecture erected in contracting state but who does not live there or have an office there

A market of cinematographic works who has a head office in contracting state but is not a national of that state and who does not live there.

The second princip of the Bern Convention is Principle of automatic protection who is regulated by article 5 point 2 which says that: the enjoyment and the exercise of these rights shall not be subject to any formality.

It means that the author can attract a copyright protection without having comply any formalities such as deposits of the work in a National register.

Principe of the independence means that copyright protection of a German novel in Italy is independent of the fact that this novel attracts copyrights protection in Germany or not.

Article 5 point 2 says that: enjoyment and exercise of copyright protection in a work in a Union country is independent of the existence of copyright protection in the country of origin of the work.²

CONCLUSION

Copyright is bundle of exclusive legal rights that has to do with protection of literary and artistic works. A "work" must be original in order to qualify for copyright protection. The owner of copyright may use his protected work as he wishes, same time he can prevent others to use his protected work without authorization. There are two type of rights economic, the right of the owner to benefit financial reward from use of his work by others and moral rights which always have to do with original holder.

For granting a copyright protection there are no formalities or fees, it consist in automatically protection on the creation of a work and the work in protected in that particular territory in which is granted, it means that copyright protection is territorial in nature.

Regarding the protection of copyrights, Bern Convention for the Protection of the Literary and Artistic Works is international key agreement and the oldest multilateral agreement in the field of copyright. The main purpose of this convention is to harmonize copyright law of Contracting Parties.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books:

F. ABBOTT, TH. COTTIER and F. GARRY, *International Intellectual Property In An Integrated World Economy*, Second Edition, USA, 2011, p.9

M. BRRETT *Intellectual Property, Third Edition, New York, 2012*

R. SCHECHTER and J. THOMAS, *Intellectual Property the Law of Copyrights, Patents, and Trademarks*, Thomson West, USA, 2003

¹ Bern Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works, September 9, 1886, completed on 4 May 1896, revised at Berlin on November 13, 1908, completed at Berne on March 20, 1914, revised at Rome, June 2, 1928, at Brussels on June 1948, at Stockholm July 14, 1967, at Paris July 24, 1971, and amended on September 28, 1979 , Article 5

² Bern Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works, September 9, 1886, completed on 4 May 1896, revised at Berlin on November 13, 1908, completed at Berne on March 20, 1914, revised at Rome, June 2, 1928, at Brussels on June 1948, at Stockholm July 14, 1967, at Paris July 24, 1971, and amended on September 28, 1979 , Article 5 pint 2

C. COLSON, J. GALLOWAY, *Modern Intellectual Property Law*, Third Edition, USA, 2010

C. COLSTON, *Principles of Intellectual Property Law*, London, 1999

K. Idris, *Intellectual Property A Power Tool For Economic Growth*

Laws and Treaties:

Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights, Apr. 15, 1994, Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization

Bern Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works, September 9, 1886, completed on 4 May 1896, revised at Berlin on November 13, 1908, completed at Berne on March 20, 1914, revised at Rome, June 2, 1928, at Brussels on June 1948, at Stockholm July 14, 1967, at Paris July 24, 1971, and amended on September 28, 1979

The Retention of the Employees as Long as Possible in the Organization, Through Finding the Right Factors of Motivation. Albania as a Case of Study

Sonela Stillo

Prof. As. Dr. University "Fan S. Noli", Economic Faculty, Korca, Albania

Gentisa Furxhi

PhD Cand. , University "Fan S. Noli", Economic Faculty, Korca, Albania

Abstract

One of the main objectives of an organization is the achievement of productivity, performance and high standards through the efficient use of the human resources and the application of the right technologies for combining the work force with the quantity of work. The job of the staff is done perfectly if you put the right person in the right position, in the right time. But to retain is more important than to employ. A talented employee will never run out of possibilities. The retention of employees is a process in which the employees are encouraged to stay in the organization for a maximal period of time. Even though the retention of the employees is a hard job for the organization, it is important for the organization as well as for the employee himself. If we assure the fulfillment of this important objective of the management of the human resources, thus the preservation of the human capacities, than we are in the right path of minimizing the turnover in the organization. For this to be possible it must be paid maximal attention to the employees, making them feel comfortable physically as well as psychologically in the workplace. Such thing requires the readiness of the organization to motivate the human resources. Exactly, the motivation of the employees is one of the most important factors that help the employer to improve the organizational and the employee's performance. The purpose of this study is evidencing the main factors that impact the level of motivation of the employees, their retention in the organization and a valuation of the rate of this impact. The data gathered from both public and private sector were analyzed through the software SPSS using the analyze of t-test, frequency, the pearson correlation, density.

Keywords: retention, employee, organization, strategy, career, performance.

Introduction

The pace of the economic development stresses the importance of the efficiency of the organizational operations. Nowadays, more and more organizational efficiency is conditioned by the effectiveness of the management of the human resources. The most effective and successful companies of nowadays apply successful methods of motivation, training, compensation and encouragement for their employees. This is a fact for all types of companies, manufacturing and service, big ones and small ones. Also in Albania, more and more private businesses and institutions of the public sector are paying a lot of attention in securing, developing and preserving a qualified work force. It is a positive thing that in the public sector is being applied the New Public Management, as the modern form of treating the management of the human resources. The need for a more specific treatment of the human resources is more visible nowadays with the change from the traditional management to the new management of the human resources, which means passing from the administrative function of the staff to that strategic; from a paternal style of management to a rational one; from the employment standardized practices to the flexible practices; from the role model of the employer to a new model of his role.¹

Despite the indisputable importance of the human resources and their impact in the results of the organization, there is a place for the analyses which draw the issues of the way how these resources are treated and finding ways for the motivation

¹ "Menaxhimi publik dhe efektiviteti i reformave ne sektorin publik", Sonela Stillo, 2011

of the employees. This will bring the improvement of the quality of the work life and the employees will feel as a social being that can grow and develop within the organization.

The issues addressed to the management of the human resources are different, but in our study we will focus in the need of finding the right motivators for the employees with the purpose to stimulate the retention of the staff as long as possible in the organization.

Finding the right motivational factors for the retention of the employees in the organization; Albania as a case of study

The retention of the employees is a process, in which the employees are encouraged to stay connected with the organization for a maximal period of time, preferably until they secede from the active work life. Even though this is a difficult process, it is necessary and helpful for the organization as well as for the employee himself.

The results are promising, if the department of the human resources employs from the beginning the right person, in the right position, in the right time. The staff of the human resources tries to carefully design and implement programs for the retention of the employees and through them it creates an environment that encourages and supports the employers to stay employed by holding strategies and practices that are addressed to their needs.

The programs for the retention of the employees are hard, because the retention is more important than the employment. Retention is often seen as connected with the turnover and with the costs regarding recruitment or training of the staff. Of course, this is true, but the need to retain employees is important to stop the fishing of the talented employees by the other companies. A talented employee will never run out of possibilities and will always be a target of the competitors.

When the talents leave, of course it is a disadvantage, but the negative effects are added when we think that with the human resource, the company also loses its information.

When an employee leaves, he takes away valuable information about the organization, the clients, the actual projects and also the history of the competition, and all this information goes to his new employer. A lot of time and money is spent for an employee who is expected to work in the future for the organization. So, when the employee leaves the organization, this investment fails.

There are various reasons that make the individuals leave their organizations. They can be personal or even professional. The employees never leave an organization without having a good reason. The most common reasons are: the person does not match with the job, there are no opportunities for growth, the absence of appreciation, the absence of trust, there is no support or coordination among the employees, bosses and managers, stress because of the overload and the imbalance of the job, the compensation strategies are not properly implemented, there is a new job offer, etc.

Or the nature of the work environment is such that the employees are faced with overload work, stressed bosses, absence of initiative and the fear of layoffs. These reasons have made many employees leave their actual organizations.

The tentative of the personnel staff must be in the direction of the growth of the will of the employees to stay as long as possible in the organization, but such thing requires the recognition of the motives that make these employees satisfied. If the management succeeds in ensuring the satisfaction and the happiness of the employees in the workplace, it obviously ensures their devotion in the job that will be reflected in the growth of the organizational indicators. This happens because a happy employee has a successful mix of professional and personal life.

To make such thing possible, must be carefully analyzed the environment where the human resource operates, in order to ensure a physical as well as a psychological wellbeing for every individual. This is a hard task of course, because the organization is responsible for applying the mechanisms as traditional as individual, because two people are never the same and the motives that push them towards stability, or leaving the organization depend on the individual perceptions. It is a duty and a responsibility of the department of the human resources to carefully analyze the human nature, to adapt everyone with the proper motivator.¹

Nowadays when we talk more and more about the quality of the work life, it is required that the employees are treated with dignity from their employers.

¹ "Managing Human Resources" Productivity, Quality of Work Life, Profit, Wayne F.Cascio, 2006

A good employer should know how to attract and retain his employees. There must be many strategies to keep the employees comfortable in the actual job, but the strategy of motivation is the most effective. Inconsistent with the modern belief, the monetary compensation is not the highest motivator of the employees. According to the Harvard Management Update (June 1988), nine out of ten managers believe that people stay or leave because of the money.¹ Money and benefits have an influence, but employees are more interested in a job that is challenging and meaningful, good bosses, opportunities to learn and development.²

From our survey, resulted that what makes the employees leave is the inconstancy of the individual with the job (70%), without neglecting the lack of evaluation (21%). Meanwhile, stress does not seem to be a factor for leaving the company because only 1% of the employees mentioned it. (Fig.2.1)

Our search was concentrated in both private and public sector. The subjects of the survey were the leaders as well as the employees. From the survey, 59% of the subjects were male and 41% female subjects. Our selection was random, but it also shows the problematic in the direction of the employment of women in Albania, especially in leading positions.

Regarding the age of the subjects, 3% were below the age of 20 years old, 55% from 21 to 30 years old, 28% from 31 to 40 years old and 6% over 50 years old.

Regarding the education, the major part (67%) of the subjects had higher education, 22% had postgraduate education and only 11% had secondary education. For the employees in the business there is an increase in the average rate of the education, but we cannot say the same thing about the owners of the business. Despite this, the employment of a considerable number of specialists with higher education shows that the owners of the businesses know the rules of the market more than a decade ago, and they are becoming more and more conscious that the capacities of the educated human resources are essential to be successful in the competition that is open and more professional.

Regarding the years of work in the organization, we see that the majority of the participants (59%) had less than 5 years employed, 32% had 5-10 years, while only 9% had over 10 years employed.

But who is actually responsible for the retention of the employees? The answers given by the subjects of the survey were that the responsibility falls to the highest level (Fig 2.2). The retention of the employees starts from the top. To find, to employ and to retain good employees is the duty of the governing board. To find and to keep good staff requires concentrated policies and procedures, formal and informal that makes the retention of the employees a primary result of the management. The managers should evaluate the staff every day and should work constantly to keep them in the team.

Some of the main points of the study were the attempts to find the reasons that make the employees leave.

As seen in figure 2.3. the leaving reasons are mostly related with the under appreciation of the work done (68%) and least related with the overtime work they are required to do (only 1%). The limited work opportunities make the employees work overtime, even with no extra payment.

The turnover of the employees is not excluded from the costs. According to the data gathered from the survey, it results in a loss of the productivity (45%) and loss of sales (25%), while the recruitment cost is mentioned in only 13% of the cases and does not have the same impact as the two previous variables.

In 75% of the cases, the employees stay in the workplace because of the money and the benefits, 8% because of the challenging and meaningful job, 6% because of good bosses, 16% to develop and grow. So the personal interest of the employees is linked with the payment and the benefits, and the other dominating part is the experience and the opportunity for professional growth. (Fig 2.4)

We see that the payment plays a sensitive motivating role not only in the countries with low income as Albania, but also in other developed countries. What makes the difference is that in these countries, the material level achieved from the payment is sufficient for a normal life, and by taking this for granted, they aspire for the realization of higher ranking needs. Meanwhile in our country, the employees as well as the leaders aim for salaries that meet the material and security needs.

¹ Harvard Management Update (June 1988)

² Beverly Kaye and Sharon Jordan- Evans (2000)Retention:Tag, You're It!. Training and Development, April, pp: 29-34

Therefore this is a very important factor and explains their behavior in the workplace and the degree in the independence of their judgment.¹

The appliance of secret payment policies is a well known phenomenon and in 77% of the cases its use is accepted in the organization. While the ones that answered "yes" to the previous question (Tab 2.3), 71.4% (n=55) of them thought that using the policy of the discreet payment brings distrust, 22.1% (n=17) thought that it reduces the motivation, 6.5% (n=5) thought that it reflects the organizational effectiveness.

Concerning the factors of the managerial aspect for the retention of the employees, it results that the programs of training-development, the process of career planning, the growth opportunities, the high level of autonomy, the work ethics, challenging tasks in the workplace, the strong leadership, are valued as important factors, while innovative factors are less important. The possible answers were ranked in Likert scale as following: very important, important, neutral, less important, not important at all. (Tab.2.4-2.11)

Orientation is an important function that influences the acceleration of the socialization process and the familiarization with the organization by reducing the will of the employees to leave. The major part of the organizations of the survey, use orientation programs for their employees. In 63% of the cases these are programs that last 1 week, but there are less ordinary cases in which they last 6 months (1.6%) or even more (6.3%). The major part of the subjects (62%) does not assess the orientation process as efficient. The main reasons were fear in 35.5% of the cases and poor presentation in 33.9% of the cases.

An essential factor in the retention of the employees is the moral according to 87% of the subjects. The possible answers were in Likert scale and listed as follows: extremely, very much, on an average, a little, not at all. Moreover the impact of the moral in productivity and in customer service is considered as very important. The impact of the moral in the turnover is average, and it is absent in shortages or contention.

Conclusions and recommendations

The organization must treat its employees as a valuable asset of the company, and for this it should draft models of motivation and reward.

The organization should monitor the employees and constantly motivate them.

The management should develop evaluation criteria and instruments based on their abilities and performance.

The reward according to the performance values the individual and guarantees the success of the company.

The organization should retain and reward the individuals that perform beyond expectations.

There is no static strategy for the retention of the employees, but it should be in constant evolvement to retain and motivate the good employees.

The retention of the employees is favored by motivating them in an open communication that imposes the loyalty among them.

The program of the Career development is a valuable motivation for those individuals who think about expanding their activity and career.

The increase of the morale and the valuation of the employees has a very positive effect, even more than financial evaluation.

References

Ahmet Ceni "Menaxhimi I shperblimit", 2007

Beverly Kaye and Sharon Jordan- Evans (2000) Retention:Tag, You're It!. Training and Development, April, pp: 29-34

Gülten Yurtseven "Importance of the Motivational Factors Affecting Employees Satisfaction", International Business Research Vol. 5, No. 1; January 2012

¹ "Menaxhimi publik dhe efektiviteti i reformave ne sektorin public", Sonela Stillo, 2011

Harvard Management Update (June 1988)

KATHRYN MINSHEW, "Four Employee Retention Strategies For The Modern Workplace" September, 23, 2015

Sarah K. Yazinski, "Strategies for Retaining Employees and Minimizing Turnover", HR and Employment Law White Papers, August 03, 2009

Sonela Stillo, "Menaxhimi I burimeve njerezore", 2011

Sonela Stillo, "Menaxhimi publik dhe efektiviteti i reformave ne sektorin public", 2011

Wayne F.Cascio, "Managing Human Resources" Productivity, Quality of Work Life, Profit, 2006

Tables

Table 2. 1 The descriptive statistics about the work years in the organization

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Less than 5	59	59.0	59.0	59.0
	5-10	32	32.0	32.0	91.0
	Over 10	9	9.0	9.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. 2. The density according to the question "what is the cost of the turnover"

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable percentage	Acumulated percentage
Valid	The cost of recruitment	13	13.0	13.0	13
	The cost of training	20	20.0	20.0	33
	The cost of the loss of the productivity	45	45.0	45.0	78
	The cost of the loss of sales	22	22.0	22.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0		

Table 2. 3. The density according to the question "If yes, do you think it brings"

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Distrust	55	71.4	71.4	71.4
	Reduces motivation	17	22.1	22.1	93.5
	Reflects organisational effectiveness	5	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	77	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. 4. The densities according to "Programs of Training-Development"

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Very important	39	39.0	39.0	39.0
	Important	56	56.0	56.0	95.0
	Neutral	4	4.0	4.0	99.0
	Less important	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. 5 The densities according to "The process of career planning"

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Very important	22	22.0	22.0	22.0
	Important	54	54.0	54.0	76.0
	Neutral	15	15.0	15.0	91.0
	Less important	8	8.0	8.0	99.0
	Not important at all	1	1.0	1.0	100.0

	Total	100	100.0	100.0	
--	-------	-----	-------	-------	--

Table 2. 6. The densities according to “Growth opportunities”

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Very important	20	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Important	45	45.0	45.0	65.0
	Neutral	27	27.0	27.0	92.0
	Less important	7	7.0	7.0	99.0
	Not important at all	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. 7. The densities according to “High autonomy level”

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Very important	18	18.0	18.0	18.0
	Important	35	35.0	35.0	53.0
	Neutral	35	35.0	35.0	88.0
	Less important	8	8.0	8.0	96.0
	Not important at all	4	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. 8 The densities according to “Programs for innovative people”

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Very important	20	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Important	17	17.0	17.0	37.0
	Neutral	23	23.0	23.0	60.0
	Less important	33	33.0	33.0	93.0
	Not important at all	7	7.0	7.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. 9 The densities according to “Work ethics”

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Very important	53	53.0	53.0	53.0
	Important	31	31.0	31.0	84.0
	Neutral	14	14.0	14.0	98.0
	Less important	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
	Not important at all	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. 10 The densities according to “Challenging task at the workplace”

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Very important	28	28.0	28.0	28.0
	Important	46	46.0	46.0	74.0
	Neutral	19	19.0	19.0	93.0
	Less important	5	5.0	5.0	98.0
	Not important at all	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. 11 The densities according to “Strong leadership”

		Frequency	Percentage	Valuable Percentage	Acumulated Percentage
Valid	Very important	19	19.0	19.0	19.0
	Important	18	18.0	18.0	37.0
	Neutral	14	14.0	14.0	51.0
	Less important	30	30.0	30.0	81.0
	Not important at all	19	19.0	19.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Figures:

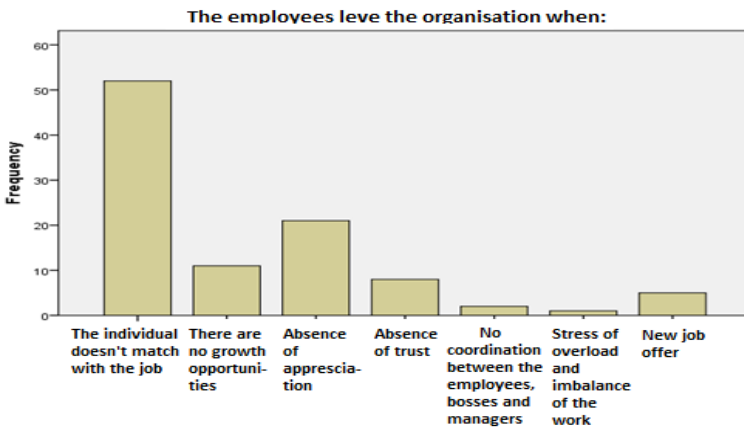


Fig. 2. 1 The reasons why the employees leave the organization

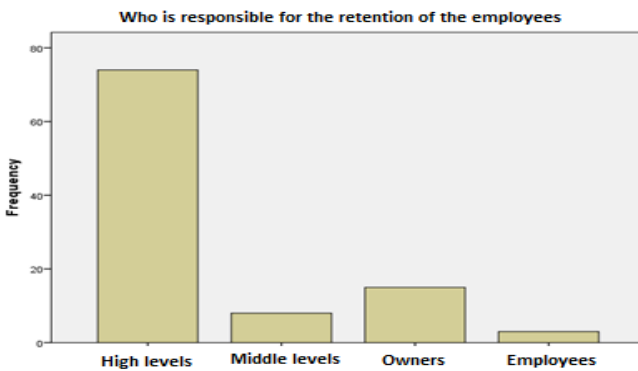


Fig. 2. 2. The responsible for the retention of the employees

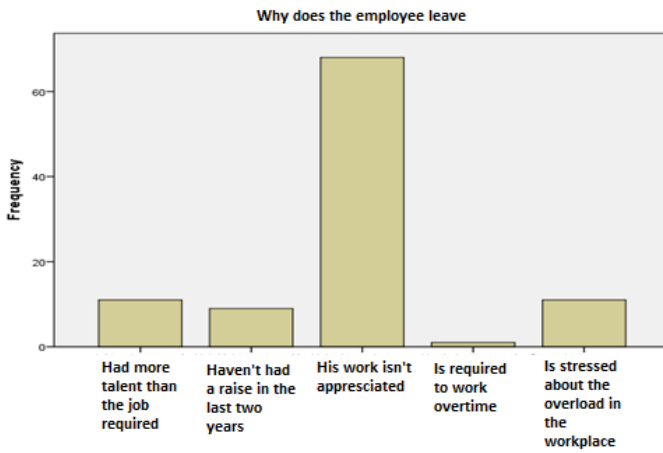


Fig 2. 3 The reasons the employees leave the organization



Fig 2. 4. The reasons employees stay at their job

Perspectives of Prison Privatization as a Solution to the Prison System Crisis in Croatia

Ivica Pavić

PhD Cand. Faculty of Law Osijek, Croatia,

Abstract

This paper presents arguments supporting the statement that the Croatian prison system has been in a crisis for years and presents pros and cons of introducing prison privatization as a possible solution/remedy as observed by researchers, journalists, government officials and the prison staff and prisoners themselves in other countries that have previously introduced or still use private prisons as a way of dealing with excess number of prisoners, which, in vast majority of cases, was/is the primary, but not the only incentive for turning to the private sector for help. The initial section of the paper focuses on defining the terms „prison system crisis“ and „prison privatization“ and classifying the possible models of prison privatization based on available research papers and articles published from the late 1980s onward, after which an brief overview of the prison privatization process worldwide since the beginning of the modern prison privatization process is given. The central part of the paper gives: 1) an answer to whether prison privatization is even legally achievable in Croatia, and if not, what changes need to be done in that regard, and 2) an overview of the overall condition of the prison system in Croatia based on several parameters as they change through the years (2005-2014). Parameters presented, defined and analysed include, but not exclusively: available prisons and penitentiaries, prison capacity, prison population, prisoner flow, imprisonment rate, remand prison, misdemeanour prison, supletory prison, recidivism rate, parole, prison violence, suicide attempts, the use of force, staff-to-inmate ratio, staff turnover rates, etc. The final section of the paper is dedicated to presenting arguments for and against prison privatization. In the conclusion the author gives his insight on the current situation with the Croatian prison system and whether Croatia should experiment with prison privatization.

Keywords: prison system crisis, prison privatization, privatization models, pros and cons, parameters

Introduction – Prison system Crisis

As any other part of the state government's public sector, prison system too is prone to crisis. And, just like with any other part of the public sector, the solution chosen to battle the crisis greatly depends on the existence of certain amount of political will to make (from a future political standpoint often risky) decisions, as well as financial constraints that a particular country's given budget presents.

Speaking of prison systems in this context is important because, judging from other countries' experiences, the debate about prison privatization does not arise until a prison system is no longer operating normally, and the question that then immediately arises is – what is prison system crisis and how do I recognize whether a particular prison system is in one?

And, indeed, it is not a question easily answered, but is, nevertheless, one that needs to be answered if one is to know whether something needs to be done and in which direction the changes should head, and, finally, if prison privatization is the way to go – which is the aim of this paper. Based on the literature researched for the purpose of this paper,¹ it would seem that certain guidelines exist that, if present and detected, would lead to the conclusion that the aforementioned question about the occurrence of prison system crisis should be answered affirmatively.

The parameters - as observed on the example of Croatia's prison system - are as follows (not necessarily in the given order):

¹ Research materials included research papers, study reports, various official government and non-government association reports and releases, as well as a number of newspaper articles.

available penitentiaries and prisons – in particular, their size (capacity) and state,
prison occupancy rate – % of total available prison capacities filled,
prisoner flow – the amount of prisoners who pass through the prison system (measured on a yearly basis),
imprisonment rate – prisoners per 100,000 people/citizens (EU average is 80-90)
remand prison – prison in which a person is held prior to being sentenced,
misdemeanour prison – sentence served as a result of committing a minor offence or a misdemeanour; many countries are not familiar with this form of prison sentence,
suppletory prison – prison sentence occurring after a fine for committing an offence has not been paid in a given period,
recidivism rate – the amount of repeat offenders - sentenced twice or more times to serve time in a prison,
parole – conditional release of prisoners prior to serving full length of their sentence,
probation – out-of-prison supervision period of a convicted person used in place of a prison sentence if the prisoner does not repeat the offence or commits a new one,¹ and
various prison discipline and order parameters - prison violence, suicide attempts, the use of force, staff-to-inmate ratio, staff turnover rates, etc.

It is important to note that, as far as research done for this paper goes, it was noticed that a larger number of the listed parameters were present in almost every country affected by prison system crisis, but not necessarily all the parameters, most likely because the severity of a single one can disrupt the normal flow of prison life so much that a prison system would indeed be in a crisis. This is especially the case with prison population, when the number of prisoners greatly exceeds prison capacities. Interestingly, it was also noticed that this parameter (overcrowding) has been a constant in all observed examples.

The eleven listed parameters are used to assess the state of eight key aspects of prison life which Logan² described in his work, and are widely accepted as such in the scientific community: security, safety, order, care, activities, justice, conditions, and management.

Considering the fact that there are so many parameters and aspects to have in mind, hardly anyone has tried to give a definition of prison system crisis, the exception being Cavadino and Dignan, who tried to define it by stating that it is a longer-lasting condition of the prison system in which the prisons are overcrowded, which negatively affects living conditions, hygiene, health care, treatment programmes, which then results in negativity between prisoners and the staff and leads to unrest, riot, crimes, escape and the decline of treatment programme success rate and involvement (if voluntary).³

As we can see, the given definition is basically a sum of all the aspects of prison life, and, because of that, not particularly useful, and it might be prudent not to get involved in trying to establish one too much. For this paper's reach, it is enough to understand of what elements the term is comprised.

¹ In some countries, the supervision activity conducted upon parole (or early release of prisoners) by parole officers is also called probation, which can often lead to confusion.

² Logan, C. H. (1992). Well Kept: Comparing Quality of Confinement in Private and Public Prisons. *The Journal of Criminal Law & Criminology*. Vol. 83, No. 3, pp. 577-613; The idea was later adopted, with minor modifications, by Perrone and Pratt, as well as Makarios and Maahs; cf. Perrone, D., Pratt, T. C. (2003). Comparing the quality of confinement and cost-effectiveness of public versus private prisons: What we know, why we do not know more, and where to go from here. *The Prison Journal*. Vol. 83, No. 3, pp. 301-322, Makarios, M. D., Maahs, J. (2012). Is Private Time Quality Time? A National Private-Public Comparison of Prison Quality. *The Prison Journal*. Vol. 92, No. 3, pp. 336-357

³ Cavadino, M., Dignan, J. (2006). *Penal Systems – A Comparative Approach*. SAGE Publications. London, p. 43

When contemplating about prison system crisis, one must always keep in mind that different areas of public sector are very much influenced by one another, which is particularly important when reviewing the influence of budgetary cuts and changes made to the criminal justice system¹ as a whole on the prison system.

The following section of the paper will focus on defining the term *prison privatization* and classifying different models of prison privatization that have seen the light of day in practice.

Prison Privatization, its Models and Aims

There is no single agreed-upon definition of the term *prison privatization* either, but in order to fully understand the rest of the paper and why it is even researched at all in this context, it is important to give an overview of what the term is used to describe and what models of privatization there are.

Prison privatization is a particular form of public-private partnership (or PPP) in which the state abandons a part of its prerogatives pertaining to building, maintaining and/or managing one or more prisons to a private sector investor: 1) in an attempt to save budgetary funds for other public sector areas and improve the conditions of existing prisons, or 2) in the situation where there is an immediate need of additional prison capacities.² The first situation may not necessarily be strictly in relation to prison system crisis, but often is.

Now, there is a very similar term that needs to be distinguished from prison privatization, and that is the term *prison industry*, which basically represents the involvement of the private sector in the productive aspect of prison life, and is today a standard in most countries' prisons, public or private. Therefore, public prisons with private sector involvement exclusively in production and distribution of prison products shall not be regarded as true private (or privatized) prisons.

Based on the given meaning of prison privatization and the possible degree of private sector involvement (excluding the above mentioned form of involvement), we can see that there are three basic models of prison privatization:

management model – private contractor takes over an already existing public sector prison and continues to manage it for the contracted period, ranging from several years all the way to several decades,

the so-called DCMF (*Design, Construct, Manage and Finance*) contract model – private investors agree to finance the construction of a new prison which is then under their management, for which they are paid a specified sum by the state on a regular (monthly, yearly) basis,³

and the semi-privatization model, also known as *outsourcing* – certain prison functions (such as medical care, prison maintenance or cooking) are performed by the private sector contractor.⁴

There are examples of prisons where a combination of two or all three of these models are used.

The discussion about the possibilities of prison privatization, as stated, usually doesn't start until the parameters show that the prison system is a long-lasting crisis, and that the prison conditions are steadily deteriorating. But even then, prison privatization does not always come up in debates, as there are many other ways (strategies) that, presumably, target

¹ Changes in the legislature (e.g. in the Criminal Code, Prison Act) and the overall prison policy shifts (which usually precede changes in the legislature).

² Roth, L. (2004). Privatisation of Prisons. NSW parliamentary library research service, Background paper, No. 3. [Online] Available: <https://www.parliament.nsw.gov.au/researchpapers/Documents/privatisation-of-prisons/bg03-04.pdf>

(Apr 6, 2014), p. 2.; The proponents of prison privatization believe that private sector can manage prisons much more efficiently, and therefore appease both the contractors (the states) and the prisoners who are, in this context, the contract object (apart from prisons themselves), and will be further discussed in one of the following sections.

³ Genders, E., Player, E. (2007). The commercial context of criminal justice: prison privatisation and the perversion of purpose. *Criminal Law Review*, p. 3

⁴ Miller, D. W. (2010). The Drain of Public Prison Systems and the Role of Privatization: An Analysis of State Correctional Systems. ProQuest Discovery Guides. [Online] Available:

http://www.antoniasella.eu/nume/miller_2010.pdf (Apr 7, 2014), p. 3; For different classification example see e.g. Chang, T. F. H., Thompkins, D. E. (2002). Corporations Go to Prisons: The Expansion of Corporate Power in the Correctional Industry. *Labor Studies Journal*. Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 45-69 or Cavadino, M., Dignan, J. (2006). *Penal Systems – A Comparative Approach*. SAGE Publications. London, pp. 304-324

specific flaws of the prison system, or try to alleviate the situation before the criminal procedure even reaches the imprisonment stage, such as:

decriminalization and depenalization,

additional restrictions to imprisonment in pre-conviction stages of the procedure,

abandoning or narrowing the usage of mandatory minimum prison sentences for certain offences, as well as the use of relatively short prison sentences,¹

taking the current occupancy rates of prisons in consideration in the sentencing stage,

encouraging compassionate release of elderly and severely ill prisoners,

expanding the use of alternative sanctions (alternatives to prison sentence), an important part of which are the ones known as community sanctions.²

This paper will focus on the first two models of prison privatization for which it is characteristic that the amount paid to the private investor/contractor directly depends on the occupancy rate in prisons, increasing with higher occupancy rates of prisons.³

Prison privatization itself does not include any particular aim or goal. It is simply one of the means with which the government (more concretely, the Ministry of Justice, a part of which is the Bureau of Prisons, and it is a structure commonly found in most countries) is trying to accomplish one of the following:

reduce the costs of managing the prison system (by far the most important in practice),

improve the effects of rehabilitation of prisoners, and

improve order, safety and security in prisons.

The decision to turn to prison privatization as a solution to the prison system crisis is not something to be taken lightly, and therefore, it is very important to access arguments of both its proponents and critics, and then weigh the possible risks and benefits of prison privatization in relation to other possible methods of relieving the pressure within the prison system, of which primary source is the growing prison population.

But before those arguments are discussed in more detail, the following section will give an overview of the process of prison privatization in countries that are deemed as leading countries in the area, either by being among the first to attempt it, or by how many prisoners are held in private prisons (in absolute numbers or in percentages – some fit both criteria, e.g. United States).

A Comparative Overview of Prison Privatization in the World

The United States of America (USA)

Considering the long historic development of prison privatization,⁴ it is only fitting that the overview starts from *The United States of America (USA)*, as USA are the cradle of prison privatization, both its historic form and the modern prison

¹ It was recognized some time ago in many European countries that prison sentences up to one year can have more negative than positive effects on prisoners (for example, criminal infection). Therefore, they are slowly being abandoned and replaced by alternative sanctions.

² More on this topic in Atabay, T. (2013). Handbook on Strategies to reduce overcrowding in prisons. UNODC. [Online] Available: https://www.unodc.org/documents/justice-and-prison-reform/Overcrowding_in_prisons_Ebook.pdf (Jul 8, 2015), pp. 39-63, 174-180.

³ This is considered to be an argument against prison privatization, and will also be further discussed as such in one of the following sections.

⁴ The history of prison privatization is so extensive (e.g. convict lease system) that it deserves its own dedicated paper; see: Mason, C. (2013). International Growth Trends in Prison Privatisation. The Sentencing Project. Research and Advocacy for Reform. [Online] Available:

<http://www.sentencingproject.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/International-Growth-Trends-in-Prison-Privatization.pdf> (Apr 6, 2014); Miller, D. W. (2010). The Drain of Public Prison Systems and the Role of Privatization: An Analysis of State Correctional Systems. ProQuest Discovery Guides. [Online] Available:

privatization wave, which occurred in the beginning of the 80s. The modern privatization process started out as semi-privatization (involving education, catering, cooking and building maintenance), and then expanded to full control of prisons, but progressing from juvenile detention facilities to adult prisons.

Prison privatization was viewed by many federal and state politicians as the right means to fight the ever-increasing prison population and overcrowding in prisons, which then led to worsening of prison conditions, as a result of which the courts started receiving more and more complaints from prisoners about inhumane conditions in which they were serving their prison sentences. Being respectful to the law, the courts started ruling in favour of prisoners and the states were faced with growing amounts of compensations and damages to pay, as well as with having to release prisoners which they did not deem fit to be released from prisons, simply because they could not meet the demands imposed upon them by court rulings. On top of all that, private lobbies sought to penetrate into more and more areas that were once considered inherent to and only performable by the state due to various constitutional legal and ethical constraints.¹

As it so happens, those were also the first years after the start of a longer period of the so-called *harsh on crime* politics in the USA (which carried on in the UK as well), which started in the period of the conservative government of president Ronald Reagan, which meant that politicians would gain support by publicly blaming crime for literally everything bad that was, at the time, going on with the US economy (e.g. budgetary deficits). Legislation was passed to authorize the new penal policy. More notably, there were *three strikes and you're out* laws which imposed mandatory prison sentences for repeat offenders, and many drug offences started being punished by mandatory minimum sentences which started overcrowding prisons all over the USA very shortly.

Of course, we cannot disregard the fact that the USA have also traditionally been a country in which debates about freedoms in order to score political points have been particularly fierce (even nowadays, e.g. in regard to carrying firearms). It was believed that the private sector will manage prisons more effectively, and that, by using PPP as a means to build new prison capacities, the complex and lengthy public procedure could be somewhat shortened.

The process started slowly, but has since then exploded,² and there are currently over 130,000 prisoners serving their prison sentences in private prisons (federal and state prisons), which amounts to 8,4% of total prison population. If we only take federal prisoners into account, the percentage goes up to 19,1%.³ As of 2014, out of a total of 50 states, 30 states have introduced some form of prison privatization, but percentages of prison populations vary greatly from state to state, ranging from 0,1% in Maryland to 43,6% in New Mexico.⁴ The overall private prison population has been on a slow decrease the last few years (since 2012), but not yet enough to encourage the private prison project rejection hypothesis.

The United Kingdom (UK)

Prison privatization in the United Kingdom lagged about 10 years compared to the USA, but the progression curve has since been quite similar, and the UK was still the first European country to experiment with modern prison privatization models. The then new conservative government of Margaret Thatcher tried to and succeeded in deregulating and transferring many public services to the private sector, as she believed it to be much more efficient.

http://www.antonioacasella.eu/nume/miller_2010.pdf (Apr 7, 2014); James, A., Bottomley, K., Liebling, A., Clare, E. (1997). *Privatizing prisons: Rhetoric and Reality*. SAGE Publications; Šeparović, Z. (2003). *Kazneno izvršno pravo i uvod u penologiju*. Pravni fakultet Zagreb, pp. 145-149; Cavadino, M., Dignan, J. (2006). *Penal Systems – A Comparative Approach*. SAGE Publications. London pp. 305-321

¹ See: Lippke, R. L. (1997). *Thinking About Private Prisons*. *Criminal Justice Ethics*, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 26-38; Dolovich, S. (2005). *State Punishment and Private Prisons*. *Duke Law Journal*. Vol. 55, No. 3, pp. 438-546;

² Particularly in the 90s, see James, A., Bottomley, K., Liebling, A., Clare, E. (1997). *Privatizing prisons: Rhetoric and Reality*. SAGE Publications, p. 8

³ Carson, E. A. (2015). *Prisoners in 2014*. U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics (pdf). [Online] Available: <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/p14.pdf> (Nov 11, 2015), p. 1

⁴ Galik, L., Gilroy, L. (2015). *Annual Privatization Report 2015: Criminal Justice and Corrections*. Reason Foundation. [Online] Available: <http://reason.org/files/apr-2015-criminal-justice.pdf> (Nov 12, 2015), p. 4

However, she too hesitated to experiment with privatization within the prison system, that is, until 1987, when, after a British delegation's visit to certain private prisons in the USA, the British Adam Smith Institute suggested prison privatization as a means to make budgetary cuts in the justice department.¹

A year later, in 1988, the Parliamentary Committee recommended building new prisons through PPP, and as a result, the first private prison, HMP Wolds was open in 1992, during John Mayor's governing period.

It was the initial idea that the progress should be gradual and rational, but then in the same year several more new contracts were signed.

Despite what he claimed during the political campaign process, Tony Blair and his government continued down the same road.

The most used prison privatization model since the beginning of the process has been the DCMF model, although all three models were/are present.

As of 2014, there are 16 private prisons in the UK, of which 2 are in Scotland, which is often examined separately in regard to prison privatization, as it alone holds the highest private prisoner population rate in the whole world (20%).² The overall prison population rate of the UK is about 15%, which places it right behind Australia as the country with the 2nd highest private prisoner population rate in the world.

Some research³ suggests that the contemporary British government's view on private prisons is mixed, as there are reports that suggest that the best private prisons operate better than the best public prisons, but also that the worst private prisons operate far worse than the worst public prisons. Also, there were several failures to comply with contractual obligations noted which then resulted in high fines for the private companies involved. Finally, it was noted that, upon examining daily prison routes, very few differences were found, which may lead to believe that prison privatization is not as effective as was presumed.

Australia

Australia was often used as a release valve for convicts whose numbers started building up in the UK since the late 18th century, and considering the age we live in, that was plenty of time for stable privatization models to develop. And, indeed, it was the case, as Australia is, next to the USA and the UK, the country with the most developed prison privatization system in the world.

The modern prison privatization process started in the late 80s, a few years before it started in the UK. The first private prison opened was the Borallon Prison in the Queensland Territory under great influence from the United States, noticeable by the fact that the key managerial functions in the prison and the prisons opened afterwards were given to Americans.

As of 2014, five of total eight Australian Territories have privatized some of their prisons, which represented a total of 29,000 prisoners and a private prisoner population rate of 19%, which means that Australia is the country with the highest private prisoners population rate in the world.

Developments in the Continental Europe, Asia and South America

Prison privatization was approached with extreme caution in the Continental Europe. Although all the countries initially expressed themselves negatively towards it, there has been some development in that area over the past two decades. One of those examples is France, where the hybrid semi-privatization model has been widely used. Similar processes have been noted in Belgium, the Netherlands and Germany.⁴ There has also been speculation about possible prison privatization

¹ Nossal, K. R., Wood, P. J. (2004). The Raggedness of Prison privatisation: Australia, Britain, Canada, New Zealand and the United States Compared. London University. [Online] Available:

http://www.antonioacasella.eu/nume/Nossal_2004.pdf (Apr 6, 2014), p. 9

² Vuletić, I. (2013). Prison privatisation as a solution for overcapacity of prisons in Croatia?. Zbornik z mednarodne vedeckej konferencie Bratislavske pravnicke forum 2013, Bratislava, p. 1110

³ Privatisation in Scotland (2006). A Briefing Paper of the Scottish Consortium on Crime and Criminal Justice. Glasgow. [Online] Available:

<http://scccj.org.uk/documents/Prison%20Privatisation%20in%20Scotland.pdf> (Apr 6, 2014), p.4

⁴ See Ibid.; James, A., Bottomley, K., Liebling, A., Clare, E., Privatizing prisons: Rhetoric and Reality, SAGE Publications, 1997, p. 19

in Poland and Greece, but no projects have been put in motion as of yet. There are also countries who do not struggle with overcrowding and have started loaning prison capacities to other countries struggling with it through contracts, e.g. the Netherlands and Sweden.¹

Apart from Japan, in which there are 4 private prisons (as of 2013), but only for first time offenders, other Asian countries have yet to experiment with prison privatization. There were some talks noted about Thailand and even China wanting to experiment, but as far as the author's information go, nothing concrete has been done yet.²

Unlike Asia, South America has seen a more rapid prison privatization development in the 21st century. The first country to privatize some of its prisons was Chile in 2003, joined by Brazil soon later. Recent data suggest that it is also being seriously considered in Peru and Mexico, as well as in the Carribran countries Jamaica and the Dominican Republic.³

The following section of the paper will focus on Croatia and will try to give an answer to whether its prison system is in a crisis and, if so, whether prison privatization could be one a valid solution.

Is Croatian Prison System Facing a Crisis?

Reviewing the provisions of the Constitution and the Prison Act, one could not find anything that would directly oppose prison privatization. Namely, it has been the standing point of theory for some time that, in order to legally and formally prevent prison privatization, it is necessary to enact the prohibition, since the lack of provisions would pose too much of a grey area ("wobble room"), because it is highly questionable whether prisoners in public and private prisons are being discriminated/treated differently in any way. In the USA, Illinois has done so specifically to prevent prison privatization.

Moreover, there is even a provision in Article 6. of the Prison Act which states that the Ministry can and does cooperate with other legal persons on improving the conditions in prisons, which, widely interpreted, could give way even for a process such as prison privatization.

To answer the question whether Croatia's prison system is in a crisis, it is important to get a grip on the current situation of the Croatian prison system in general.

For the purpose of this paper the data from 2014⁴ and earlier years will be used only, as the 2015 Report has not yet been published or gone through the necessary parliamentary procedure due to the Parliament dissolving on July 15 this year.

According to the 2014 Report (p. 7) by the Bureau of Prisons of the Justice Ministry of Croatia, there are 12 prisons and 8 penitentiaries in use, most of which were built decades ago in the former Yugoslavian Republic, and were often used to deal with political opponents.

Since the prison system (both types included) became overcrowded in 2004 (maximum security capacities), we can say that the current condition has been ongoing for over a decade now,⁵ with imprisonment rates constantly above EU average (more than 100 as of 2013). Overcrowding reached its peak in 2010 when the overall overcapacity was 54,13%. If we take a closer look at statistical data, we can notice that the overcapacity in maximum security prisons (which represent by far the greatest portion of total prison capacities) in the same year was 68%, and on top of all that, a great number of prisoners who should have been serving their sentences in maximum security conditions were forced to be moved to lower security conditions. In addition, some prisons have very recently (2013) been reported to have had over 100% overcapacity, as was noted by the Constitutional Court in one of its reports.⁶

¹ See ICPS News Digest, 32nd Edition, March-April 2016, p. 13; ICPS News Digest, 18th Edition, November-December 2013, p. 3

² Mason, C. (2013). International Growth Trends in Prison Privatisation. The Sentencing Project. Research and Advocacy for Reform. [Online] Available:

<http://www.sentencingproject.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/International-Growth-Trends-in-Prison-Privatization.pdf> (Apr 6, 2014), p. 9

³ Ibid., p. 3

⁴ Izvješće o stanju i radu kaznonica, zatvora i odgojnih zavoda za 2014. godinu, Vlada Republike Hrvatske

⁵ The Constitutional Court of Croatia first warned about this problem in a 2008 decision (8 years ago), and continued warning in 2012 stating that, considering the current state of the prison system, overcrowding would not get resolved for several years to come (which proved to be on point, even though the last available report at the time was the 2012 Report).

⁶ Constitutional Court of the Republic of Croatia, U-X-5464/2012 (Jun 12, 2014), [Online] Available:

<http://www.usud.hr/en/case-law>

Mihoci also states that Croatia's additional problem is the lack of educated prison staff and prison guards, which affects safety and security in prisons.¹

The number of ECHR proceedings against Croatia has also been on an increase over the past decade, which has greatly increased public expenditure on equitable relief payments, to which the Ministry was also warned by the Constitutional Court in several decisions and reports.² The Court also pointed out that the Croatian prison system was deemed inadequate by the CPT (Commission for the Prevention of Torture of the Council of Europe) during and after its several visits to Croatia.³

Several indicators of prison system crisis are still present in Croatia, even though a lot has been done in the past 2-3 years to relieve the pressure of the massive amount of prisoners on the whole system, which has seen the prison capacity occupancy rate finally drop beneath 100%⁴ (at least overall) and those are:

the occupancy rate for maximum security prisons is still above 100%, even if only measured on December 31, which opens up opportunities for potential manipulations with numbers for statistical purposes,

the number of released prisoners has declined,

remand prisoners represent 21,57% of total prisoners at the end of the year, but overall the percentage is even higher and sitting at 29,35%, which means that more than every fourth prisoner is imprisoned prior to or without being convicted and sentenced to prison, which indicates a problem earlier in the criminal procedure, and even the possibility of misuse and overuse of an institute involving depraving people of their freedom,

recidivism rate is at a very high 36,7%, indicating that more than every 3rd prisoner is a repeat offender,⁵

supletory and misdemeanour prisons are on decline, but still represent almost 10% of total prisoners passing through the system as of 2014,

2013 and 2014 have shown a big decrease in the number of prisoners involved in educational programmes, as well as their involvement in other treatment programmes, which has decreased from 41,59% in 2010 to 25,1% in 2014,

conditional release numbers are also on decline in 2013 and 2014,

the amount of self-inflicted injuries has risen, but, more importantly, the percentage of the prisoners stating dissatisfaction with the result of the criminal procedure or their treatment in prisoners is again on the rise and almost back to the record level from 2009 (30%),

the number of visits has greatly declined in the past three years, which, coupled with the decrease of phone calls made and letters received, could indicate that prisoners are becoming more and more distant from the rest remainder of society, which may have a negative effect on rehabilitation as well as on post-release actions (which then affects recidivism rate),

the Ministry has stated the need for 4004 employees total in the prison system to cover every important aspect of prison life adequately; however, the gap between that provisional and the actual number of employees has seen nothing but increases over the last 10 years, as evidenced from 2005 through 2014 Reports, partly due to the lack of funds, but partly also due to the lack of applicants for job openings (e.g. prison medical staff) as well,⁶

over 60% of all employees (in an already underemployed prison system) pertains to security guards, and

expenditure has been exceeded income in the prison sector since 2005 all the way up to 2012, which caused the budgetary deficit carried on to 2013 to be as high as 56,4 million croatian kuna (over 10% of total prison system income for that year), and even though it was drastically decreased in 2014, it seems that we are still several years away from the prison system being able to reach financial balance; namely, out of total income of just over 534 million kuna in 2014, which was the first

¹ Mihoci, M. (2006) Sigurnost kaznionica i zatvora, Hrvatski ljetopis za kazneno pravo i praksu, No. 2, p. 904

² e.g. Constitutional Court of the Republic of Croatia, U-III-1437/2007 (Apr 23, 2008), Constitutional Court of the Republic of Croatia, U-X-5464/2012 (Jun 12, 2014).

³ Visits were made in 1998, 2003, 2007 and 2012.; Reports are available at <http://cpt.coe.int/en/states/hrv.htm>

⁴ As noted in the 2015 Report (p. 11).

⁵ Reports prior to the 2012 Report did not keep track of this statistical category, but the last three available suggest no improvement in this area.

⁶ The 2014 Report suggests that the prison system is operating on a 32,72% employee deficit.

year to more noticeably decrease the deficit carried on to the next year, 493,7 million kuna was state financed through the state budget, and the total expenditure was 493,35 million kuna.

There are positive parameters, of course, but the amount and severity of some of the listed ones indicate that Croatia is indeed experiencing prison system crisis in several key aspects of prison life, particularly considering the fact that similar state has endured for over 10 years, and has withstood some drastic changes in the legislation, as well as the greatly increased use of probation since passing the Probation Act in 2012.¹

Arguments *For* and *Against* Prison Privatization

As was mentioned earlier in the paper, prison privatization debate has been a fierce one for almost 30 years, and it continues to have more and more educated people involved with their own opinions and analyses. Since there is a great number of papers trying to catalogue the for and against arguments, but even more papers who only represent one side of the story, this section will try to give an overview of all the main arguments from both proponents and critics of prison privatization.

Proponents of prison privatization mainly use the following arguments:

the private sector is more successful at management and innovation, so the privately managed prisons will be more cost-effective;² they support the argument by stating that: a) competition promotes ideas and pushes the boundaries of what can be accomplished with a set amount of resources, b) private prison administration is less burdened by bureaucratic procedures, c) private sector management has much more employment flexibility than the public sector prison administration,

since the private subject's profit will directly depend on how the prison operates, prison privatization will strengthen the responsibilities of prison administrators to ensure that prisoners get the necessary treatment and conditions, and that prisoners' rights are respected in every possible way, since the smoother the prison runs, the more profit the private sector subject will retain from the contract; prison privatization will also require of the government to find innovative, better ways to monitor how prisons operate, and it will be easier to perform the monitoring on private sector subjects than on itself,

in connection with the above presented argument, since private prisons will need to operate more efficiently, this will also set new standards for public prisons to follow, pulling the entire prison system forward and raise the standards bar higher.

Prison privatization *critics* usually present the following arguments:

the main argument of the critics is that the act of sentencing, as well as the execution stage of the criminal procedure is an inherent prerogative of the state as part of the social contract between the People who agreed to delegate the authority exclusively to the State; prison policy is an integral part of a wider, criminal policy, which cannot be delegated by the State to any third party, a legal construct different than the State itself, because imprisonment in itself contains limitations to person's fundamental rights and freedoms; simply put - when a person breaks the law, he/she expects to be sanctioned by the State, and his/her mindset is shaped in a way to be prepared to accept the consequences; therefore, the State will, by delegating imprisonment to private sector subjects, deal damage to its authority,³

the motive for profit has never been, and should never be the goal of imprisonment, which, they claim, it clearly is for participating private sector subjects; the goals of punishment⁴ and imprisonment are both well established in legal theory, as well as formalized in fundamental criminal law acts, such as the Criminal Code and the Prison Act (which is the case in

¹ <http://dalje.com/en-croatia/probation-helps-reduce-the-number-of-prisoners-says-minister/499558>

² Critics warn that this is not the case and quote studies conducted by researchers which suggest the cost reduction to be minimum at best, and not worth the risks of privatization, especially on the safety, security and order aspects of prison life. Most important studies will be discussed in the following section.

³ Proponents claim that, since the authority to imprison did not originate within the State, but was given to the State by the People (is derivative), as long as there is no objection from the People, the State can further delegate this authority to other subjects, as long as it keeps supervisory powers over private subject's activities

⁴ The aims are: retribution, deterrence, incapacitation and rehabilitation/reintegration, See van Zyl Smit, D., Snacken, S. (2009). Principles of European Prison Law and Policy. Oxford University Press, pp. 81-83

Croatia);¹ critics express concerns that this could mean: a) lowering standards to decrease expenditure, b) hiring less experienced personnel and paying them less, as well as providing them with less job security, which could have a demotivating effect, c) if private sector subjects know they will boost their profit by having more prisoners, i.e. being as close to full capacity as possible, while not exceeding it, it will suit them to keep their prisons filled by promoting lobbying for stricter laws, harsher sentencing practices and deliberately provoking prisoners in order to extend their prison stay by their actions, d) hiding problems within prisons from publicly available records to avoid financial repercussions,² and e) accepting only prisoners who require less care and less security, as they less costly to keep imprisoned,

making profit from imprisonment is unethical,³ and even though there are private subjects in other branches of the public sector (e.g. private medical practice), they are aimed at relieving pain, not inflicting it, of which, though mostly not physically, imprisonment is a type.⁴

Is Prison Privatization Worth the Possible Risks?

To answer this question, it is necessary to point out the possible risks of prison privatization.

Simply put, almost everything that the critics of prison privatization point out as arguments against prison privatization are possible risks associated with it, although there are certain arguments that critics tend to attribute particular characteristics specifically to private prisons, but are, in reality, present in both private and public prisons, albeit for different reasons.

A good example of such a characteristic would be the lack of personnel motivation for prisoner's treatment and overall rehabilitation in prison. On one hand, in private prisons, it would stem from the fact that their employee's jobs are less paid, more insecure, the personnel is often forced to work extra hours, they are often unprepared for the challenges of managing particular aspects of prison life on a day-to-day basis. On the other hand, in public prisons the personnel is less motivated because they do not feel the consequences of the failed treatment and resocialization on their skin since their jobs are usually well-protected, regularly and better paid (in comparison with private prison employees), and their jobs are often much more secure, whether the prison is operating at 50% capacity or 150% capacity. It is unrealistic to expect of them to go as far as to think about that the better the treatments work, the less prisoners will return to prison, and will result in reduced work load for the same "prize."

Hidden in this section's title is another question - are private prisons more cost-effective than public prisons? This is, in vast majority of cases, as stated earlier, the primary reason to privatise prisons. The remaining cases are usually situations in which an urgent expansion of prison capacities is necessary, and the private sector subjects will only invest and contract if they also take over prison administration for a minimum period of time.

Since the early 90s, several authors have published reports on studies they conducted in their countries trying to, on a case-to-case and more generally, compare several representative examples from both private and public prison sides, with the methodology advancing with nearly every comparison attempt. Some studies have approached the matter strictly from a financial perspective, while others have studied both financial benefits and the prison life quality impact. There have also been authors who studied only the qualitative aspects of private prisons.

¹ Art. 2 of the Prison Act states that the primary purpose of imprisonment is resocialize an individual and prepare one for life according to legal rules and social/ethical principles through humane treatment and respecting one's dignity.

²Lundahl et al. (2009). Prison Privatization: A Meta-Analysis of Cost-Effectiveness and Quality of Confinement Indicators. *Research of Social Work Practice*, Vol. 19, No. 4, pp. 383-394, cf. Headley, A., Garcia-Zamor, J. C. (2014). The Privatization of Prisons and its Impact on Transparency and Accountability in Relation to Maladministration. *International Journal of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education*, Vol. 1, No. 8, pp. 23-34

³ More on the ethical dilemma of prison privatization in Reisig, M. D., Pratt, T. C. (2000). The Ethics of Correctional Privatization: Examination of the Delegation of Coercive Authority. *The Prison Journal*, Vol. 80, No. 2, pp. 210-222, Lippke, R. L. (1997). Thinking About Private Prisons. *Criminal Justice Ethics*, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 26-38, Barak-Erez, D. (2011). The Private Prison Controversy and the Privatization Continuum. *Law & Ethics of Human Rights*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 138-157

⁴Roth, L. (2004). Privatisation of Prisons. NSW parliamentary library research service, Background paper, No. 3. [Online] Available: <https://www.parliament.nsw.gov.au/researchpapers/Documents/privatisation-of-prisons/bg03-04.pdf> (Apr 6, 2014), pp. 36-60, cf. Gottfredson, S. D., McConville, S. (1987). *America's Correctional Crisis: Prison Populations and Public Policy*. Greenwood Press. Westport, Connecticut, pp. 230-232, Dimovski, D. (2014). Privatni zatvori. *Zbornik radova Pravnog fakulteta u Nišu*, Vol. 53, No. 68, pp. 551-557

When it comes to the quality of prison services, it is the opinion of the majority of researchers that the services provided are roughly of the same quality, and will, for that reason, not be discussed further in this paper.

The attention here will, therefore, focus on answering, perhaps (opinions may differ here), the more important question - are private prisons more cost-effective? – even though, as it turns out, the comparisons yielded about the same results as the qualitative studies.

It is interesting to note that, as the studies progressed with time, it seems that it became more and more obvious that the differences in cost-effectiveness between private prisons and public prisons may not be as significant as was once believed to be the case. In fact, the only meta-analysis, which aimed to detect if there are differences in cost-effectiveness between private prisons and public prisons, conducted by Praat and Maahs in 1999, suggested that the ownership factor played an insignificant role in determining how well a particular prison would fare in the cost-effectiveness scheme. The determining factors proved to be:

economy of scale - the closer the prison population is to the maximum prison capacity, the lower the costs will be, and vice versa,

the state of prison infrastructure - the newer the prison, the lower the costs were, due to newer technologies used, requiring less maintenance and manpower, and relying more on electronic surveillance, and

security level of the prison - the higher the security level, the higher the costs were of running the prison.¹

The reason why meta-analysis is believed to be the most reliable method for this kind of analysis is the very nature of meta-analysis, which is basically applying statistical methods to already existing research papers selected by criteria that meet certain requirements set in advance, to avoid partiality while reviewing the findings of each paper included individually to reach a general conclusion.²

Should Croatia Turn to Prison Privatization as a Possible Solution to its Prison Crisis?

The purpose of this paper was to signify the prison system crisis Croatia has been dealing with for over 10 years, to try to at least crack the complexity of the term, to explain what prison privatization is and what its place is in resolving a prison system crisis.

While there is a fair amount of evidence to suggest that prison privatization does not nearly meet the cost-effectiveness expectations as we were initially led to believe by certain politicians and early authors, there is still some validity in approving the prison privatization undertaking in situations which involve sudden and sharp increases in prison population. In those types of situations, resorting to the private sector for assistance might sometimes be the only way to relieve the strain on the prison system as a whole, but it is definitely not a permanent solution, as the real reasons for the existence of the need to privatize often lie in earlier stages within the criminal justice system (often it is the legislation or practice that requires adjustments). When the source of the prison crisis is within the prison system itself (reasons other than strict laws and harsh sentencing), e.g. better education of prison staff, investments in improving the monitoring system, delegating the monitoring activity to non-governmental institutions, etc., there are many safer ways to ensure improved prison conditions in public prisons.

Since Croatia traditionally belongs to the group of countries following the trends in Germany when it comes to criminal law, and the only present prison privatization model there is the one that isn't really prison privatization in the full sense of the term, and adding the facts that none of the surrounding countries have experimented with prison privatization yet, the fact that the prison population in Croatia has grown a lot, but steadily, and the fact that things have shown signs of improvement on their own in 2013 and 2014 in the mix, the only possible conclusion at this point can be that prison privatization is not something that would be recommended for Croatia at this time, but should be considered in future calculations when thinking about building new prison capacities, which are already necessary (since the prison infrastructure is mostly old and badly maintained), but will in near future become absolutely mandatory, if we are not to be constantly condemned and fined by the courts, both domestic and supranational (such as the European Court of Human Rights), and other institutions (e.g. CPT), because it does not seem Croatia, nor almost any other country for that matter, will ever have "spare" funds to

¹ Pratt, T. C., Maahs, J. (1999). Are Private Prisons More Cost-Effective Than Public Prisons? A Meta-Analysis of Evaluation Research Studies. *Crime & Delinquency*, Vol. 45, No. 3, pp. 358-371

² More on the criteria used in *Ibid.*, pp. 363-368.

finance the construction of new prison capacities. Private sector subjects could present a sort of an opportunity to pay the sum we would have to assign anyway over yearly installments with small interests.

References

- Atabay, T. (2013). Handbook on Strategies to reduce overcrowding in prisons. UNODC. [Online] Available: https://www.unodc.org/documents/justice-and-prison-reform/Overcrowding_in_prisons_Ebook.pdf (Jul 8, 2015).
- Barak-Erez, D. (2011). The Private Prison Controversy and the Privatization Continuum. *Law & Ethics of Human Rights*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 138-157.
- Carson, E. A. (2015). Prisoners in 2014. U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics (pdf).
[Online] Available: <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/p14.pdf> (Nov 11, 2015).
- Cavadino, M., Dignan, J. (2006). *Penal Systems – A Comparative Approach*. SAGE Publications. London.
- Chang, T. F. H., Thompkins, D. E. (2002). Corporations Go to Prisons: The Expansion of Corporate Power in the Correctional Industry. *Labor Studies Journal*. Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 45-69.
- Constitutional Court of the Republic of Croatia, U-III-1437/2007 (Apr 23, 2008).
- Constitutional Court of the Republic of Croatia, U-X-5464/2012 (Jun 12, 2014).
- Dimovski, D. (2014). Privatni zatvori. *Zbornik radova Pravnog fakulteta u Nišu*, Vol. 53, No. 68, pp. 547-566.
- Dolovich, S. (2005). State Punishment and Private Prisons. *Duke Law Journal*. Vol. 55, No. 3, pp. 438-546.
- Galik, L., Gilroy, L. (2015). Annual Privatization Report 2015: Criminal Justice and Corrections. Reason Foundation. [Online] Available: <http://reason.org/files/apr-2015-criminal-justice.pdf> (Nov 12, 2015).
- Genders, E., Player, E. (2007). The commercial context of criminal justice: prison privatisation and the perversion of purpose. *Criminal Law Review*. pp. 513-529.
- Gottfredson, S. D., McConville, S. (1987). *America's Correctional Crisis: Prison Populations and Public Policy*. Greenwood Press. Westport, Connecticut.
- Headley, A., Garcia-Zamor, J. C. (2014). The Privatization of Prisons and its Impact on Transparency and Accountability in Relation to Maladministration. *International Journal of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education*, Vol. 1, No. 8, pp. 23-34.
- ICPS News Digest, 18th Edition, November-December 2013.
- ICPS News Digest, 32nd Edition, March-April 2016.
- Izvešće o stanju i radu kaznionica, zatvora i odgojnih zavoda (2014). Vlada Republike Hrvatske.
- James, A., Bottomley, K., Liebling, A., Clare, E. (1997). *Privatizing prisons: Rhetoric and Reality*. SAGE Publications.
- Lippke, R. L. (1997). Thinking About Private Prisons. *Criminal Justice Ethics*, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 26-38.
- Logan, C. H. (1992). Well Kept: Comparing Quality of Confinement in Private and Public Prisons. *The Journal of Criminal Law & Criminology*. Vol. 83, No. 3, pp. 577-613.
- Lundahl *et al.* (2009). Prison Privatization: A Meta-Analysis of Cost-Effectiveness and Quality of Confinement Indicators. *Research of Social Work Practice*. Vol. 19, No. 4, pp. 383-394.
- Makarios, M. D., Maahs, J. (2012). Is Private Time Quality Time? A National Private-Public Comparison of Prison Quality. *The Prison Journal*. Vol. 92, No. 3, pp. 336-357.
- Mason, C. (2013). International Growth Trends in Prison Privatisation. The Sentencing Project. Research and Advocacy for Reform. [Online] Available: <http://www.sentencingproject.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/International-Growth-Trends-in-Prison-Privatization.pdf> (Apr 6, 2014).
- Mihoci, M. (2006) Sigurnost kaznionica i zatvora, *Hrvatski ljetopis za kazneno pravo i praksu*, No. 2, pp. 879-905.
- Miller, D. W. (2010). The Drain of Public Prison Systems and the Role of Privatization: An Analysis of State Correctional Systems. ProQuest Discovery Guides. [Online] Available:

http://www.antoniasella.eu/nume/miller_2010.pdf (Apr 7, 2014).

Nossal, K. R., Wood, P. J. (2004). The Raggedness of Prison privatisation: Australia, Britain, Canada, New Zealand and the United States Compared. London University. [Online] Available: http://www.antoniasella.eu/nume/Nossal_2004.pdf (Apr 6, 2014).

Perrone, D., Pratt, T. C. (2003). Comparing the quality of confinement and cost-effectiveness of public versus private prisons: What we know, why we do not know more, and where to go from here. *The Prison Journal*. Vol. 83, No. 3, pp. 301-322.

Pratt, T. C., Maahs, J. (1999). Are Private Prisons More Cost-Effective Than Public Prisons? A Meta-Analysis of Evaluation Research Studies. *Crime & Delinquency*, Vol. 45, No. 3, pp. 358-371.

Privatisation in Scotland (2006). A Briefing Paper of the Scottish Consortium on Crime and Criminal Justice. Glasgow. [Online] Available:

<http://scccj.org.uk/documents/Prison%20Privatisation%20in%20Scotland.pdf>

(Apr 6, 2014).

Reisig, M. D., Pratt, T. C. (2000). The Ethics of Correctional Privatization: Examination of the Delegation of Coercive Authority. *The Prison Journal*. Vol. 80, No. 2, pp. 210-222

Roth, L. (2004). Privatisation of Prisons. NSW parliamentary library research service, Background paper, No. 3. [Online] Available:

<https://www.parliament.nsw.gov.au/researchpapers/Documents/privatisation-of-prisons/bg03-04.pdf> (Apr 6, 2014)

Šeparović, Z. (2003). Kazneno izvršno pravo i uvod u penologiju. Pravni fakultet Zagreb.

van Zyl Smit, D., Snacken, S. (2009). Principles of European Prison Law and Policy. Oxford University Press.

Vuletić, I. (2013). Prison privatisation as a solution for overcapacity of prisons in Croatia?. Zbornik z mednarodnej vedeckej konferencie Bratislavske pravnicke forum 2013, Bratislava.

Blocked by Diplomatic Barriers: Syrian Refugees and the EU-Turkey Migration Cooperation

Bassant Hassib

PhD Candidate, Faculty of Economics and Political Science, Cairo University.
Assistant Lecturer, Department of Political Science, the British University in Egypt.

Doaa Nounou

MA Candidate, Faculty of Economics and Political Science, Suez Canal University
Teaching Assistant, Department of Political Science, the British University in Egypt.

Abstract

The recent EU-Turkey deal on irregular migration and refugees raised voices of humanitarian concerns with regards to the protection of the rights of Syrian refugees. Despite the positive efforts of Turkey to accommodate Syrian refugees, it still lacks a proper asylum system and measures that can guarantee their socio-economic integration and protect their rights. So instead of having a proper EU refugee resettlement system, they just offer money and mobility incentives to Turkey to keep the Syrian refugees on its land, while sidelining the deteriorating status of those refugees in Turkey. This paper argues that EU-Turkey cooperation on migration is security/interest-based, which counters the protection of the rights of Syrian refugees. On one hand, the EU hoped to guard itself from potential security threats, reflecting the dilemma of security vs. human rights. On the other hand, Turkey was hoping to accelerate visa waivers for its nationals and ease its accession to the EU membership.

Keywords: EU – Turkey – Migration – Readmission Agreements – Syrian Refugees

Introduction

The crisis of the flow of Syrian irregular migrants and refugees after the Arab uprisings became a major concern for the EU and Turkey as neighboring countries. This made many EU leaders to take a defensive stance towards the Arab Uprisings. Such crisis is reflected on the EU's intense securitization approach to control irregular migration, and on Turkey's capacity to host large numbers of Syrians while providing them with their basic human rights.

Instead of reaching a consensus between EU member states (MS) on implementing a proper refugee resettlement system (Van Selm, 2016); the EU focused on securing its borders by using tools like Frontex and concluding Mobility Partnerships with neighboring countries (Völkel, 2014; Paoletti, 2014; Kaunert & Léonard, 2011; Kaunert & Léonard, 2012). In effect, the EU has signed a readmission agreement with Turkey, on 16 December 2013, with regards to the status of unauthorized migrants (European Union & Turkey, 2014); and recently EU and Turkey has concluded an agreement on irregular migration and refugees, on 18 March 2016 (European Council, 2016), which raised voices of humanitarian concerns with regards to the protection of the rights of Syrian refugees (Amnesty International, 2016a; Rankin, 2016). However, such cooperation did not guarantee an effective protection for the rights of Syrian refugees in Turkey. Despite the positive efforts made by Turkey to accommodate Syrian refugees, the main reason behind their flow to the EU, aside from the appeal of the standard of life in the continent, is the lack of legal measures in Turkey to integrate them. Turkey does not have an asylum system that can guarantee the protection of the Syrian refugees' socio-economic integration and rights (Amnesty International, 2016b).

This research endeavors to assess the impact of EU-Turkey measures and tools of regulating the flow of Syrian migrants on the protection of their socio-economic rights in Turkey. The research argues that EU-Turkey cooperation on migration is an interest-based cooperation, which counters the protection of the rights of Syrian refugees. On one hand, it is a tool by which the EU can keep its security interests guarded, reflecting the dilemma of security vs. protection of human rights. On

the other hand, it was a tool by which Turkey was hoping to accelerate visa facilitation for its nationals and ease its accession to the EU, in return of keeping the Syrian refugees on its land.

Methodologically, the main source of data in this research is an analysis of official EU, Turkish and international human rights organisations' documents and specialised literature on the topic; in addition to interviews conducted in Berlin with a Syrian refugee formerly residing in Turkey and in Cairo with an EU official.

The Syrian Refugee Crisis in the Genesis of the Arab Uprisings

The growing population in the MENA region amongst bleak economic situations especially after the Arab uprisings in 2011, in addition to the severe life threats imposed by the Islamic State in Syria, Libya and Iraq (ISIS), will continue to be the driving force behind regular and irregular migration inside the MENA region and also to Europe in the coming years; whether they are refugees, asylum seekers, labour/business migrants, displaced persons, or family members joining their already settled families in the EU. It started with the 35,000 Tunisian and Libyan 'boat migrants' who landed in the Italian island of Lampedusa and Malta, which triggered massive debates within the EU about how to deal with this massive upswell (European Commission, 2011a, p. 2). Since then, the crisis kept escalating, where it has recently reached 1,014,836 refugees and irregular migrants crossing the Mediterranean Sea in 2015 to enter Europe, 3,771 of which were counted dead or missing by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (Völkel, 2016); and where 850,000 of those irregular migrants arrive via the Greek islands (Amnesty International, 2016a, p. 4).

With regard to Syrian irregular migrants, intensifying clashes in addition to the deterioration of security and living conditions in Syria, forced almost two thirds of the Syrian population to be displaced, where in 2015 almost 7.6 million were internally displaced and 3.5 million fled to Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey. Similarly, almost 1 million people were forced out of Syria in 2014, three-fifth of which made their journey to Turkey (İçduygu, 2015, p. 2). In 2015, Turkey was declared to be the largest country in terms of hosting Syrians in the region, where the influx of Syrian refugees to Turkey is likely to grow as the conflict continues (UNHCR, 2016). Thus, the crisis of the flow of migrants from the South Mediterranean, especially the Syrians, became more troubling for the EU and Turkey.

For Turkey, it opened its borders and welcomed Syrian asylum seekers who needed protection, however it became over burdened by their numbers and is struggling with granting them their rights of protection and integration. Turkey's quick embroilment in the Syrian crisis was reflected in its strategic goal of becoming a regional power in the Middle East and being seen as an important player in the region, with an active and direct role in any ongoing crisis – as well as its concerns for the future of Syria – which is home to significant Kurdish and Turkmen population (Kirişçi, 2014 p. 5). Initially, the number of Syrian refugees crossing into Turkey was relatively small. However, the situation has drastically changed when the Syrian regime started to repress the opposing demonstrations by the use of lethal force in April 2011. As of July 2011, Turkey hosted 15,000 Syrians in camps set up in Hatay province near the borders with Syria (Kilberg, 2014, p. 20). When clashes in Syria escalated in 2012, more than 20,000 Syrians crossed to Turkey on a monthly basis. By the end of 2012, more than 170,000 Syrians were registered as asylum seekers in Turkey, "with possibly unregistered thousands more residing in Turkey" (İçduygu, 2015, p. 2). Through 2013, these monthly inflows of Syrian refugees continued to increase. The increased violence in Syria and the emergence of the radical group ISIS, which occupied northern Syria, caused many Syrians to flee. Numbers have reached 55,000 Syrian asylum seekers in Turkey every month (İçduygu, 2015, p. 3).

As for the EU, the main problem is that leaders worry that elements from ISIS could infiltrate in the Syrian refugees arriving in boats, where they might carry out terrorist attacks in between the period of processing their asylum applications. This fear was further intensified after the several terrorist attacks took place in Paris on 13 November 2015 (BBC News, 2015a) and in Brussels on 22 March 2016 (BBC News, 2016). Thus, migration is now affecting the EU, especially the southern MS Italy, France, Spain and Greece, where the principles of "solidarity" and "burden-sharing" between the MS were questioned. Hence, the pressing issue for the EU is how an area without internal frontiers, i.e. the Schengen area, may absorb the large amount of migrants – which might affect social cohesion, become an economic burden, and a hub for violent Islamist radical agendas – whilst respecting its norms and values of human rights and welcoming and providing migrants a safe haven from danger and poverty back home (Völkel, 2014; Léonard, 2010, pp. 235ff.).

EU Policies, Measures and Tools in Combating Irregular Migration: A Dilemma of Security vs. Human Rights

Such crisis is reflected on the EU's enhancement of its security methods in combating irregular migration from the South Mediterranean, one of which is cooperating with the Mediterranean Partner Countries (MPCs) on controlling irregular migration, through concluding readmission agreements and reinforcing border control measures.

Accordingly, cooperation with neighbouring countries under the revised ENP in May 2011 (European Commission, 2011b) will be advanced through “giving incentives and rewarding best performers, as well as offering funds in a faster and more flexible manner” (EU Neighbourhood Information Centre, 2014). The system of incentives as described by Virgili is based on the “3 Ms”: money (financial assistance), market (easier access to the EU market, and mobility (visa facilitation) (Virgili, 2014, p. 47).

The dilemma here is realised when using a negative conditionality or a harsh tone with partner regimes, in support of respecting and protecting human rights, and applying sanctions, regarding the application of human rights principles – which is costly for the EU, if the target regime refused to cooperate in combating irregular migration. An illustrative example was the recent EU cooperation with neighbouring countries and countries in the African Union to control irregular migration to the EU, while turning a blind eye on the human rights record in such countries, especially the rights of refugees, which definitely smashes the EU rhetoric about the protection of refugees. As described by Völkel (2016), “the EU has decided to hire bullies as its bouncers”.

This situation has caused tension and incoherence between EU MS. On one hand, many EU leaders were forced to push for more migration control measures and are keen on having restricted migratory policies by any cost and mean, including the reconsideration of the Schengen agreement to reintroduce border controls between certain MS, to keep their security and strategic interests protected (European Commission, 2011a, p.12; Paoletti, 2014; Kaurert & Léonard, 2011; Kaurert & Léonard, 2012). As Völkel (2016) explained,

Decision-makers operate in an increasingly nationalist atmosphere, mutually stoked by populist politicians and citizen movements that mobilize against immigration and diversity. Consequently, even core achievements of the European integration process, such as removing border controls within the Schengen area, have come under serious pressure.

Moreover, some MS perceive migrants as a religious threat. For example, some officials in France and Slovenia called for accepting asylum seekers only if they are Christians (Fakhoury, 2016).

On the other hand, some MS believe that the EU should have a strong approach regarding democracy and human rights and apply sanctions in case of any violation. For example, some MS, which actually need immigrants, push for more human rights policies (EU Official, personal communication, April 6, 2015) such as Germany, Czech Republic and Sweden.

Furthermore, regarding the ‘incentive-based approach’ following the logic of a positive and negative conditionality; The EU proposed to open a “dialogue on migration, mobility and security” with the transit migration countries like Egypt, Tunisia, Lebanon, Jordan and Morocco and to continue its existing cooperation with Turkey, provided that visa facilitation and effective cooperation on readmission agreements and reinforced border controls are effectively implemented. The problem here is that the Mobility Partnership is indirectly linked to the ENP political conditionality, making visa liberalization an incentive for stability, democracy, respect of human rights and good governance (Van Hüllen, 2012). However, it is directly linked to migration and asylum measures, such as implementation of readmission agreements, cooperation with FRONTEX (European Agency for the Management of Operational Cooperation at the External Borders of the Member States of the European Union), and the ratification of international conventions on migration. Thus, it is not practically a condition for abiding by the principles of human rights, which reflects that rhetorically the Commission wants to review its incentives, but actually the old hierarchy of policy priorities remains unchanged.

Such restrictive irregular migration control measures, such as FRONTEX, EUROSUR and readmission agreements, do not solve the problem, as Jan Völkel (2014, p. 161) explained,

[m]ost irregular migrants within the EU arrive with a valid tourist visa and then simply overstay. Consequently, ‘focusing on border control seems particularly inappropriate given that most African irregular migrants actually enter Europe legally, subsequently overstay their visa, and only then become irregular in the end’ (Caillault, 2012, p. 137). Mediterranean boat migration or Eastern European river crossings, meanwhile, make only for a minor share of irregular migration into the EU.

Moreover, such tight securitisation of border control and surveillance to the extent of “militarisation of regional migration governance”, as describes by Fakhoury (2016), comes on the expense of saving human lives. For example, the replacement of Operation Mare Nostrum between Italy and Libya in October 2014 – which was responsible for searching and rescuing migrants in the Mediterranean Sea – with Operation Triton, which is a smaller scale Frontex operation focusing on border protection. Also, the push back operations by the NATO fleet in the Aegean Sea in February 2016 to force migrants’ boats back to Turkey (Fakhoury, 2016).

Regarding the issue of asylum seekers and refugees, the EU has been putting efforts to establish a Common European Asylum System (CEAS) since 1999, to guarantee a high standards of the protection of refugees, through efforts to harmonise minimum standards and legislations for asylum, strengthen solidarity between MS, increase cooperation between EU and non-EU countries. For example, establishing a European Asylum Support Office¹ (EASO) in Malta, a European Refugee Fund and issuing the European Commission's Policy Plan on Asylum in 2008. Furthermore, recently the EU has revisited it's a) Asylum Procedures Directives to ensure a faster asylum decisions; b) Reception Conditions to ensure the protection of refugees' fundamental rights in the EU, including material reception conditions such as housing; c) Qualification Directive for granting protection and ensuring better integration and equal rights; and d) Dublin Regulation to determine the responsibility of a MS to examine asylum applications, with an early warning system of problems (European Commission, 2015a)

However, there seem to be a challenge for such rhetoric to meet the actual implementation. As Van Selm (2016) explained, [n]ot rising to this challenge will not only be a demonstration of how sovereignty trumps solidarity on the asylum issue, but will also risk the collapse of one the EU's four fundamental freedoms – movement of workers [...] The Failure would also announce that Europe is losing any claim to leadership on human rights and humanitarian issues.

Under the Dublin Regulation, asylum seekers should apply for asylum in the first EU country of entrance, and they could be readmitted to it if they travelled to another EU country (European Union, 2013). In this regard, southern MS – especially Greece, Malta and Italy – were bombarded with the overwhelming number of asylum seekers (Van Selm, 2016). In the aftermath of the refugee crisis, the Dublin Regulation proved ineffective and was suspended in 2015, when Hungary refused to take back refugees who have travelled through Hungary to other EU countries (Than & Nasralla, 2015). Furthermore, the Hungarian, Slovakian and Polish prime ministers opposed the introduction of quotas for EU nations for solidarity measures (BBC News, 2015b). On the other hand, Germany and Czech Republic announced their willingness to receive and process asylum seekers' applications (Asylum Information Database, 2015; Harrison & Nolan, 2015).

Moreover, no real progress has been made with regard to a concrete refugee protection and resettlement policy, despite efforts, studies and ideas by the European commission. "In 2015, EU member states collectively resettled only 8,155 refugee from around the world" (Amnesty International, 2016a, p. 4). Regarding Syrian refugees, some EU countries like UK offered 20,000 resettlement places for the next four years, which is still too little compared to a million Syrian asylum seekers per year (Van Selm, 2016). As stated by Van Selm (2016), "It is clearly a drop in the ocean. Even if all EU MS offered the same number of places, that would be 560,000 over four years, 140,000 per year – still inadequate to the protection need [...] In sum, it is too little too late".

Thus, having a proper organised resettlement system, would not only prove the credibility of solidarity between MS, but also would save thousands of lives from dying in the Mediterranean, with higher chances to reduce the number of terrorists trying to enter Europe as Syrian Refugees, and providing refugees a secured integration and protection of their socio-economic rights (Van Selm, 2016). It will also save thousands of euros for the EU;

[i]nstead of wasting money on cooperation programs that bear doubtful results at best, it would be better to use the same money to establish secure ways into Europe. Let people fly into Paris, London, Frankfurt, and Amsterdam, and fund sufficient registration facilities in these cities in order to correctly process asylum claims and requests. Refugees then could make it to Europe for an average price of less than 400 euros (\$450) from Addis Ababa or Cairo to Europe, instead of paying bribes and exaggerated sums of several thousand dollars to smugglers and traffickers (Völkel, 2016).

EU-Turkey Cooperation on Migration: A Blow to the Protection of Syrian Refugees

Instead of working on strengthening solidarity among MS and establishing an organized EU refugee resettlement system, the EU is just outsourcing its responsibility to protect refugees on its land. The EU just offers money and mobility incentives to partner regimes in return of keeping refugees on their land and control their flow to the EU. Such cooperation will only empower those regimes in their domestic repression and in "blackmailing Europe in the future" (Völkel, 2016). The perfect example for this is the EU cooperation on migration with Turkey. The EU concluded a readmission agreement with Turkey, on 16 December 2013, with regards to the status of unauthorized migrants (European Union & Turkey, 2014). They proceeded with a Joint Action Plan, agreed on 15 October 2015, to restrict the movement of people from Turkey to Europe

¹EASO is an agency of the European Union. See website at <https://www.easo.europa.eu/>

and to readmit all irregular migrants from the EU back to Turkey (European Commission, 2015b). In this regard, the EU provided a 3 billion euro Refugee Facility to Turkey – which was agreed at the informal meeting of the European Council on 12 November 2015 in Valletta – to be able to accommodate all the Syrian refugees (European Commission, 2015c). Last but not least, EU and Turkey concluded a deal on irregular migration and refugees, on 18 March 2016. The deal states that all irregular migrants crossing from Turkey into Greek islands as from 20 March 2016 will be returned to Turkey, under the claim that it is a “safe country”; where as the EU will resettle one Syrian from Turkey for every one Syrian returned from Greece to Turkey (European Council, 2016).

Such cooperation deemed to be interest-based with no actual protection of the rights of Syrian refugees. It only focused on securing the borders of the EU from the influx of Syrian migrants and on negotiating visa facilitation for Turkish nationals and easing its accession to the EU, in return of keeping the Syrian refugees on its land. As stated in the EU-Turkey statement (2016), the EU will pump an additional 3 million euro until the end of 2018, and visa liberalization roadmap and accession talks were supposed to be accelerated – which has been put on hold until now.

The EU concluded those deals while turning a blind eye on five crucial points: a) Turkey is already burdened with three million refugees (about 2.75 million Syrian and 400,000 from other countries – mainly Afghanistan, Iraq and Iran); b) the poor status of those refugees in Turkey, with its weak asylum system to cope with all of those refugees, in terms of resettlement, integration, and living conditions (Amnesty International, 2016a); c) with Turkey and the EU exchanging ultimatums regarding the visa free travel of Turkish citizens to the EU, while Turkey meeting the 72 EU benchmarks, including narrowing down Turkey’s counter-Terrorism laws; Turkey refuses to narrow down their counter terrorism laws at a time when many terrorist organizations as ISIS and the PKK exist in Turkey and threatens the security of its citizens (Aydoğan, 2016); d) the deterioration and violation of democratic and human rights principles and repressions by Erdoğan, which became more blunt after the recent failed coup on 15 July 2016 (Dearden, 2016); and e) the EU is already struggling with having a feasible resettlement system, so the promised remaining 18,000 places for resettlement – even with the voluntary resettlement of up to 54,000 persons – is still a drop in the ocean compared to the number of Syrian migrants (European Council, 2016).

Amnesty International report “No Safe Refuge: Asylum-seekers and refugees denied effective protection in Turkey” (2016a), described the EU-Turkey deal as reckless and illegal, where it urged the EU to immediately suspend such deal, concluding that Turkey has failed to provide protection to refugees.

Turkey: A Push Factor for Syrian Asylum Seeking in the EU

As of January 2016, Turkey hosts 3 million Syrian refugees, of whom 300,000 reside in 25 camps and the rest live in urban areas. (Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency, 2013, p. 2). Turkish policies towards Syrian refugees were initially very welcoming. The Turkish government officially referred to the displaced Syrians as “guests” and not “refugees”. Turkish authorities assumed that the Syrian conflict would be settled soon and enable the displaced population to return home. Therefore, they did not plan for a long-term or permanent resettlement of Syrians in Turkey and instead focused on providing temporary refugee camps for Syrians on the Turkish borders with Syria. According to the Disaster and Emergency management Presidency (AFAD) report on Syrian refugees in 2013, 22 camps were set for displaced Syrians across south-eastern Turkish borders with Syria. Several international and domestic human rights commentators including the UNHCR described the conditions in those camps as significantly more standardized, comfortable and controlled in comparison with other camps in neighboring countries as Lebanon or Jordan where Syrians lived in absolute poverty (Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency, 2013, p. 5). In Turkish camps security is provided by the Turkish armed forces to safeguard migrants and prevent crimes or quarrels among residents. Also recreational and educational activities are available in those camps.

Despite the relative comfort and security of camps, a huge number of Syrian refugees have chosen to reside in urban cities for several reasons. First, the number of refugees crossing border from Syria has exceeded the overall capacity of the camps. Therefore, they had no other choice except to live in urban areas and struggle to find shelter and employment. Second, financial independence has enabled some Syrians to live outside camps and find employment. For instance, thousands of Syrians start afresh in Turkey and re-launched the businesses they left behind. Third, a huge number of Syrians entry is considered illegal, thus, they are not allowed to register to enter camps (İçduygu, 2015, p. 10). In urban areas conditions are reportedly worse than camps, as many Syrians find it difficult to obtain employment, access education or health services, find houses or even pay rent.

Assessing the social integration of Syrian refugees can be done through reviewing the main issues facing Syrian refugee that could be highlighted in their living conditions, legal status, health care, access to education and social isolation in Turkey. In return, all those factors have a huge effect on their future planning.

First, living conditions and poverty is the most important factor affecting Syrian integration in the Turkish society. In terms of housing, the Turkish facilities are inadequate in providing accommodation to asylum seekers who cannot provide for themselves. Although the law on Foreign and International Protection (LFIP) states that the Directorate General of Migration Management (DGMM) will establish “reception and accommodation centers”, only one accommodation center was established, which accommodates up to 100 persons only in a remote area at the central Anatolian province of Yozgat (Amnesty International, 2016a). At the same time, the law of foreigners and international protection requires asylum-seekers who are not residing in camps or reception and accommodation centers to explicitly pay for their own accommodation. This means that most Syrians living outside camps are living in private rented accommodation. Also the AFAD assessment of Syrian refugees living conditions highlighted that Syrians living in urban areas “either lived in crowded ruins or make shift arrangements” (Dorman, 2014, p.5). The Center for Transnational and Development Collaboration (CTDC) (2015, p. 11) explained the living conditions of non-camp refugees in Turkey as:

[...]living under very harsh conditions and many of them live under the line of poverty. The lack of humanitarian aid distributed to non-camp refugees is pushing many of them into overcrowded and over expensive housing, and makes them prone to exploitation as cheap laborers and women become more vulnerable to sexual exploitation. Additionally, women are experiencing many forms of violence, exploitation and harassment.

Also in an interview with Hussam Kasim – a 38 years old Syrian refugee in Berlin describing his former living conditions as a refugee in Turkey – he said that he used to work as a cook in a village on the suburbs of Aleppo, Syria. When the fighting intensified he took his wife and his two sons (6years and 15 years old) and made their Journey to southern Turkey. They were not able to enter the camps in Hatay because they were fully occupied, they waited for their legal documents to be issued, but he said “my brother told me it might take up to 8 months to finish your papers” (H. Kasim, personal communication, August 12, 2016). So, he started looking for a place to live in the city of Hatay and finally he found a small room in a shared apartment with four other Syrian families, with one shared bathroom and kitchen. He said “my wife was so depressed because she had to wear her headscarf all the day in front of the other families” (H. Kasim, personal communication, August, 12, 2016). Kasim worked in different restaurants, but he said “I was exploited by Turkish restaurant owners, they insisted on paying only 30 Turkish Liras/day, while paying 100 Turkish Liras/day to Turkish cooks. It became very hard for me to afford the high living expenses in Turkey” (H. Kasim, personal communication, August 12, 2016).

Second, the legal status in Turkey is a major challenge for Syrian refugees. The mass influxes of Syrians have forced the Turkish state to consider new arrangements that respond to the needs of these refugees and enable their integration in the Turkish society. As a result, In April 2013 Turkey adopted a new asylum Law, the LFIP, which came into force in 2014. This law constitutes of many EU asylum models and procedures and was developed in consultation with UNHCR, the Council of Europe and civil society organizations. It tries to show Turkey’s obligation towards displaced people in need of international protection and at the same time it constructs a new legal framework for asylum seeking in Turkey. The LFIP created a DGMM responsible for migration and asylum. The new Law also establishes a unique dual asylum structure. On one hand, a “Temporary Protection” status acquired on a “prima facie, group-basis, to Syrian nationals and stateless Palestinians originating from Syria” (Refugee Rights Turkey, 2015) which grants them the right to stay in Turkey as well as to be provided with health services, access to labor market, social assistance, interpretation and similar services. However, it is not equivalent to a residence permit and it does not grant the right for transition to long-term residence permit. Also it does not entitle its holder to apply for Turkish visa. At the same time, they have to voluntarily repatriate either to their home country or a third-country of residence (Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency, 2013, p. 2)

On the other hand, under the LFIP asylum seekers from other countries of origin are expected to apply for an individual “international protection” status. There are three categories of International Protection: first, “Refugees”, who are asylum seekers fleeing persecution in Europe. Turkey maintains a “geographical limitation” to the 1951 Refugee Convention, and denies refugees from ‘non-European’ countries of origin the prospect of long-term legal integration in Turkey. This means that asylum seekers from non-European countries fall under the second category that is called “Conditional Refugees”. Conditional refugees could wait in Turkey until they are transferred to another country. The third category is “Subsidiary

Protection” which is provided to those who do not qualify as refugees or conditional refugees but need protection because they face death penalty, torture, or because of armed conflict in their country of origin (Amnesty International, 2016a).

Although Turkey’s asylum system came into force on April 2011, it is still in the process of being established and is not capable of coping with the vast amount of asylum seekers in its country. First, there is an absence of publicly available data about how Turkey implements its new asylum system. This information gap results from the refusal of the Turkish authorities’ to provide information to NGOs. As reported by Amnesty international, On March 2016, the Turkish authorities refused Amnesty international’s request for a meeting and refused to provide any of the requested data about the number and breakdown of International Protection applicants (Amnesty International, 2015, p.10). Also On March 29, 2016, Amnesty International sent a request about the housing support provided to the asylum seekers; as of May 2016, the Turkish authorities did not reply to their request. Similar difficulties were experienced by other civil society organizations in accessing information from the Turkish authorities (Amnesty International, 2015, p. 10).

Moreover, there is still a “lack of institutional capacity within the Turkish asylum system” (Amnesty International, 2016a). In December 2015, Refugee Rights Turkey reported that it was unclear how many migration experts and staff had been hired and trained. Also most DGMM directorates have not yet received all personnel expected to be appointed to their province and in most locations DGMM directorates lack sufficient interpreters. The duration between the application process for the temporary protection status and the registration interview may take up to seven months. This time lag became a concern because applicants cannot receive their Temporary Protection identification documents, thus they are unable to access reception services as health care and work permits (Refugee Rights Turkey, 2015).

Third, health conditions of Syrians in Turkey are deteriorating. According to the World Health Organization (WHO) report on Syrian refugees in Turkey in 2015, registered Syrians are provided with free access to state run medical facilities. However, the language barrier hinders their access to those facilities. According to the WHO this situation will remain until the legislation for integrating Syrian doctors and nurses is completed, to alleviate the workload on Turkish professionals in providing health care services to non-Turkish speaking refugees. At the same time,

Surgical trauma and intensive care for the large number of severely injured patients from conflict areas requires inputs of equipment, human and financial resources. Treatment of complex injuries involves long-term post-operative rehabilitation, which remains a challenge for the already burdened Turkish healthcare system (World Health Organization, 2015).

Furthermore, vaccine-preventable diseases became a major risk for the health of Syrians living in urban areas. 246 cases of measles of Syrians in Turkey have been reported in 2015. Also over 40 percent Syrian children particularly those residing outside camps did not have measles or polio vaccination (World Health Organization, 2015).

Fourth, education became a huge concern for Syrians residing in Turkey. There are three pathways for school aged Syrians. First, children in camps between the ages of 6 to 11 are able to attend schools operated by the AFAD and the Turkish Ministry of Education. These schools conduct lessons in Arabic language. However, the Turkish government does not accredit these schools officially. Thus, students are unable to have a proof of school completion. Second, Syrians without residence permits living in urban areas are able to attend Syrian schools operated in Arabic by different individuals or NGOs. However, the Ministry of Education does not officially recognize most of these schools. Limited number of Syrian schools has been established, and lack of funding for teacher salaries in Syrian schools remain huge challenge facing the quality of education in those schools. Third, Syrians living with residence permits in urban areas are able to enroll in Turkish schools. However, the language barrier makes it less possible for Syrians to be enrolled in Turkish schools (Dorman, 2014, p. 6) gave an example of a Syrian man, who explained why he couldn't send his children to schools,

They lost their chances to attend the Syrian schools. I tried to get my children into the Turkish schools, but I couldn't because they can't read Turkish. There is a school in our neighborhood and I tried to register my children there, but they didn't accept them, because my children are not good at Turkish, so they can't get any benefits.

At the same time, economic vulnerability and financial needs led to a high rate of child labor and child marriage among Syrian communities residing in Turkey. Some Syrians said that they are sending their children to work because they cannot afford the living expenses in Turkey. Some also said that "girls were getting married because there was nothing to do and they had no way to complete their education" (Kuğu & Okşak, 2013, p. 3). 80 percent of Syrian children between the age of 6 and 11 receive education in camps and 27 percent of registered students in urban areas are attending schools (Kuğu & Okşak, 2013, p. 3). This extremely low education completion rate among Syrian children means that: “Syrian children are being deprived of the psychological healing that comes from the safe space, routine, and purpose for the day that school

can provide. It is causing additional psychological toll on parents who worry they are not able to provide a better life for their children" (Dorman, 2014, p. 8).

Fifth, isolation became a huge problem for Syrian refugees living in Turkey, especially for women living in urban areas. A study carried out by the CTDC found out that many Syrian women feel insecure and unsafe in Turkey. Also many women are being exposed to sexual and verbal harassment from Turkish community (Center of Transnational Development and Collaboration, 2015, p. 12). For instance a female interviewed by CTDC said,

I do not have a man to back me, I feel exposed. I need to be extra tough with people, so they know that they cannot trespass my boundaries. The owner of a house I used to live in asked me for sex, in an imposing forceful way. I fought back and I left the house" (Center of Transnational Development and Collaboration, 2015, 12).

In fact, this sense of isolation acts as a huge barrier to social cohesion and integration of Syrians in the Turkish community.

Sixth, poor living conditions of Syrians in Turkey affect their future planning. A study carried out by the Yuva Derneği NGO in Turkey specified, "The majority of Syrian respondents said they plan to return to Syria within the next 5 years or seek asylum in European countries" (Yuva Derneği Association, 2015, p. 12). In the interview with the Syrian cook Kasim, he described his pessimism about having a future in Turkey, he stated,

In Turkey, I spent almost most of the money I saved in Syria, and I started to worry because I couldn't provide my family with a better future as I promised them when we were leaving our home in Syria. I looked for a smuggler to help us cross the Aegean Sea between the Bodrum and the Greek Island Kos, a distance of almost four kilometers. Our boat sank in the sea and the Greek security guards saved us. Turkey did a lot for the Syrians, all of us go to Turkey first before Europe, but this country cannot occupy more Syrians anymore. Also, the Turkish population started to be resentful towards the Syrians because they are coming to their country in large numbers. I wanted to go to Germany to look for a better and more humane future for my family than in Turkey (H. Kasim, personal communication, August 12, 2016).

Kasim also specified that he encouraged many of his Syrian family members to take the risk and go to Germany as well, saying, "my two brothers brought their families and came to Germany but they live in places not far away from Berlin, here we could sustain better living conditions for our children than in Turkey" (H. Kasim, personal communication, August 12, 2016).

Conclusion: The Way Forward

The current polarization in media and public debates in Europe on taking the responsibility of protecting refugees with solidarity and burden sharing among 28 MS, vs. the societal and national threats such refugees can pose; is an evident reflection on the in-cohesion and failure of the EU to have a concrete refugee policy with clear resettlement system to meet its normative rhetoric. Instead, the process of securitisation of migration with tight border controls, surveillance and cooperation with neighbouring countries to hold migrants from entering Europe was the EU response to the refugee crisis. Signing re-admission agreements with Turkey was the highlight of this securitisation process on the expense of the lives of Syrian refugees. With the political and economic cost of caring for Syrian refugees in Turkey is rising at a time when the Turkish economy is slowing down, in addition to the deteriorating human rights situation especially after the failed coup, more Syrians would try to cross borders to Europe to escape their poor conditions in Turkey. Therefore, the EU is not solving the problem by signing this agreement, as Turkey will remain a push factor for more refugees in the EU.

This crisis should be a wake up call for the EU to recognize its failure to share the humanitarian burden of displaced Syrians among its MS and with its neighboring countries. Thus, instead of exporting its normative responsibility to offer refugees a safe haven to other countries with questionable political and economic circumstances; the EU should reinforce the principle of solidarity and burden sharing among MS and establish an organized EU refugee resettlement system. This will not only save thousands of lives from dying in the Mediterranean Sea and protect their rights of socio-economic integration, and but it will also reduce the number of terrorists trying to enter Europe as Syrian Refugees.

References

- Amnesty International. (2015, march 29). Letter to the Prime Minister and government of Turkey. Retrieved August 8, 2016, from Amnesty International: <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/asa31/2802/2015/en/>
- Amnesty International. (2016a). *No Safe Refugee: Asylum-Seekers and Refugees Denied Effective Protection in Turkey*. Amnesty International. Retrieved from <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/eur44/3825/2016/en/>

- Amnesty International. (2016b, March 18). EU-Turkey Refugee Deal a Historic Blow to Rights. *Amnesty International*. Retrieved from <https://www.amnesty.org/en/latest/news/2016/03/eu-turkey-refugee-deal-a-historic-blow-to-rights/>
- Asylum Information Database. (2015, August 25). Germany: Halt on Dublin Procedures for Syria. Retrieved August 27, 2016, from <http://www.asylumineurope.org/news/24-08-2015/germany-halt-dublin-procedures-syrians>
- Aydoğan, M. (2016, June 1). Technical experts to visit Turkey as part of visa liberalization process, EU Minister Çelik says. *Daily Sabah*. Retrieved August 29, 2016, from <http://www.dailysabah.com/eu-affairs/2016/06/01/technical-experts-to-visit-turkey-as-part-of-visa-liberalization-process-eu-minister-celik-says>
- BBC News. (2015a, December 9). Paris Attacks: What Happened on the Night. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-34818994>
- BBC News. (2015b, September 4). Migrant Crisis: Hungary Migrants Start Walk to Border. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-34155701>
- BBC News. (2016, April 9). Brussels Explosions: What We Know About Airport and Metro Attacks. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-35869985>
- Center for Transnational Development and Collaboration. (2015). Syrian Refugees in Turkey: Gender Analysis. Retrieved from <http://ctdc.org/analysis.pdf>
- Dearden, L. (2016, August 19). Turkey Coup Attempt: UN Warns Erdogan Government Purges Could Violate International Law After 40,000 Detained. *Independent*. UK. Retrieved from <http://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/europe/turkey-coup-attempt-news-latest-un-erdogan-purges-arrests-international-human-rights-law-40000-a7198856.html>
- Dorman, S. (2014). Educational Needs Assessment for Urban Syrian Refugees in Turkey. Turkey: YUVA Association. Retrieved from <https://data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/download.php?id=7898>
- EU Neighbourhood Information Centre. (2014). *The European Neighbourhood Instrument (ENI)*. Retrieved November 15, 2014, from <http://www.enpi-info.eu/ENI>**
- European Commission. (2011a). *Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions: A dialogue for migration, mobility and security with the Southern Mediterranean countries* (COM(2011) 292). Brussels. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/home-affairs/what-we-do/policies/pdf/1_en_act_part1_v12_en.pdf
- European Commission. (2011b). *A New Response to a Changing Neighbourhood: A review of European Neighbourhood Policy* (COM(2011) 303). Brussels. Retrieved from https://eeas.europa.eu/enp/pdf/pdf/com_11_303_en.pdf
- European Commission. (2015a, June 23). Common European Asylum System. Retrieved August 5, 2016, from http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/home-affairs/what-we-do/policies/asylum/index_en.htm
- European Commission. (2015b). *EU-Turkey Joint Action Plan* (No. MEMO/15/5860). Brussels. Retrieved from http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-15-5860_en.htm
- European Commission. (2015c). *EU-Turkey Cooperation: A €3 billion Refugee Facility for Turkey* (IP/15/6162). Brussels. Retrieved from http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-15-6162_en.htm
- European Council. (2016). *EU-Turkey statement, 18 March 2016*. Brussels. Retrieved from <http://www.consilium.europa.eu/en/press/press-releases/2016/03/18-eu-turkey-statement/>
- European Union, & Turkey. (2014). *Agreement between the European Union and the Republic of Turkey on the readmission of persons residing without authorization* (L 134/3). Brussels: Official Journal of the European Union. Retrieved from [http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX:22014A0507\(01\)](http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX:22014A0507(01))
- European Union. (2013). *Regulation (EU) No 604/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 26 June 2013 establishing the criteria and mechanisms for determining the Member State responsible for examining an application for international protection lodged in one of the Member States by a third-country national or a stateless person* (L 180/31). Brussels: Official Journal of the European Union. Retrieved from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/en/ALL/?uri=celex%3A32013R0604>
- Fakhoury, T. (2016). Migration, Conflict and Security in the Post-2011 Landscape. *Middle East Institute*. Retrieved from <http://www.mei.edu/content/migration-conflict-and-security-post-2011-landscape>
- Harrison, E. G., & Nolan, D. (2015, September 2). Czech Republic Abandons "Ineffective" European Asylum Rules. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2015/sep/02/refugees-stranded-budapest-train-station-hungary>
- İçduygu, A. (2015). *Syrian Refugees in Turkey: The Long Road Ahead*. Washington DC: Migration Policy Institute. Retrieved August 3, 2016, from www.migrationpolicy.org/research/syrian-refugees-turkey-long-road-ahead
- Kaunert, C. & Léonard, S. (2011). The European Union and Refugees: Towards More Restrictive Asylum Policies in the European Union?. Barcelona: *Universitat Pompeu Fabra*, working Paper Series, 8. Retrieved from https://portal.upf.edu/documents/3329791/3455370/WP8_Kaunert_leonard.pdf/960876ba-b460-4ef3-b606-2708c25035ac
- Kaunert, C. & Léonard, S. (2012). The development of the EU asylum policy: venue-shopping in perspective. *Journal of European Public Policy*, (19)9, 1396-1413. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13501763.2012.677191>

- Kilberg, R. (2014, July 24). Turkey's Evolving Migration Identity. *Migration Policy Institute*. Retrieved August 2, 2016, from www.migrationpolicy.org/article/turkeys-evolving-migration-identity
- Kirişçi, K. (2014). Syrian Refugees and Turkey's Challenges: Going Beyond Hospitality. *Brookings Institution*. Retrieved August 2, 2016, from <https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Syrian-Refugees-and-Turkeys-Challenges-May-14-2014.pdf>
- Kuşçu, B. & Okşak, E. (2013). Evaluation of Support to Life's Response to Syrian Refugee Crisis, 2012 & 2013. *Support To Life*. Retrieved from <https://data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/download.php?id=4628>
- Léonard, S. (2010). EU Border Security and Migration into the European Union: FRONTEX and Securitisation through Practices. *European Security*, 19(2), 231–254. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09662839.2010.526937>
- Paolletti, E. (2014). The Arab Spring and the Italian Response to Migration in 2011: Beyond the Emergency. *Comparative Migration Studies*, 2(2), 127–150. <http://doi.org/10.5117/CMS2014.2.PAOL>
- Rankin, J. (2016, April 20). Council of Europe condemns EU's refugee deal with Turkey. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2016/apr/20/eu-refugee-deal-turkey-condemned-council-of-europe>
- Refugee Rights Turkey. (2015). Introduction to the asylum context in Turkey. Asylum Information Database. Retrieved August 10, 2016, from <http://www.asylumineurope.org/reports/country/turkey/introduction-asylum-context-turkey>
- Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency. (2013). *Syrian Refugees in Turkey; 2013 Field Survey Results*. Retrieved August 2, 2016, from <https://data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/download.php?id=4085>
- Than, K., & Nasralla, S. (2015, June 23). Defying EU, Hungary suspends rules on asylum seekers. *Reuters*. Retrieved from <http://uk.reuters.com/article/uk-europe-migrants-austria-hungary-idUKKBN0P31ZB20150623>
- UNHCR. (2016, August 1). Syria Regional Refugee Response. Retrieved August 1, 2016, from UNHCR: <http://data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/regional.php>
- Van Hüllen, V. (2012). The European Union and Democracy Promotion in the Mediterranean: Strategic Choices after the Arab Spring. In T. A. Börzel & K. Böttger (Eds.), *Policy Change in the EU's Immediate Neighbourhood: A Sectoral Approach* (pp.119-144). Baden-Baden: Nomos.
- Van Selm, J. (2016). What if the EU Had a Refugee Policy? *Middle East Institute*. Retrieved from <http://www.mei.edu/content/map/what-if-eu-had-refugee-policy-how-resettlement-among-other-mooted-policies-could-have-played-role>
- Virgili, T. (2014). The “Arab Spring” and the EU’s “Democracy Promotion” in Egypt: A Missed Appointment? *Perspectives on Federalism*, 6(3), 42–75. Retrieved from http://www.on-federalism.eu/attachments/193_download.pdf
- Völkel, J. C. (2014). Money for Nothing, the Cricks for Free: Five Paradoxes in EU Migration Policy. *Comparative Migration Studies*, 2(2), 151–180. Retrieved from <http://doi.org/10.5117/CMS2014.2.VOLK>
- Völkel, J. C. (2016, March 23). Hiring Bullies as Bouncers. Retrieved from <http://www.worldpolicy.org/blog/2016/03/23/hiring-bullies-bouncers>
- World Health Organization. (2015). *Syria Crisis – Turkey: Country Brief and Funding Request*. Istanbul: WHO. Retrieved from http://www.who.int/hac/crises/syr/syria_crisis_snapshot_turkey_june2015.pdf
- Yuva Demeği Association. (2015). *Protracted Displacement: Syrian Refugees in Turkey*. Retrieved August 18, 2016 from <http://www.yuva.org.tr/index.php?lang=EN>

The Impact of Multimedia in Teaching and Learning

Fatmir AGAJ

European University of Tirana

Abstract

The innovations that happen in education seek for great leaders and with an outstanding professional background. The innovation managers are very open-minded to the changes that occur in schools, but unfortunately there are many of them who are closed to such changes in schools, the reason to resist is the lack of knowledge towards these educational innovations and of the changes that could be made in the schools and in the classrooms. Avoiding such problems could be made through active participation of the teachers in trainings, because the development of the technology and the improvement of the educational technology influences many changes in teaching methods and forms. Based on previous research it was seen that the role of multimedia in the classroom influences a great interest in participating actively in learning. This research was chosen intentionally with the reason of playing a positive role in raising the awareness of the community, with the argumentation of the hypothesis that multimedia in the learning process has a great role in purifying students with new information. Education, as a rule, slowly accepts any implementation of innovations in comparison with business, producing, transportation etcetera. In addition to it, implementing multimedia systems, distance learning, virtual schools etcetera would definitely increase the activity of the students in advancing their skills in comparison with their former background knowledge.

Keywords: multimedia, innovation, change, managing, educational technology, feedback.

Introduction

Traditional teaching is more dominated by frontal ways because there is a lack of interaction and lack of time for independent students' activities. In these cases, teaching is verbal and not that clear since it reduces the sustainability of knowledge and linking theory with real life.

Recently, teaching is being well-organized in the implementation of didactic media, in increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of the learning process. But, the educational system has not yet been sufficiently modeled as an integrated cognitive system. In the moments when students seek to quickly find the new information, some of the teachers are still not sufficiently prepared concerning the interpretation of new knowledge that students bring from home, this way students do not know what form of injustice new learning content delivers.

One reason for this situation is that teachers do not have sufficient background knowledge in the implementation of the new educational technology, this way teachers must be trained through workshops associated with the implementation and management of teaching media. There was a lack of educational technologies a few years ago but they have done a boom in every aspect of life, then teachers have become somewhat confused regarding the implementation or non-implementation of these tools in the schools.

Alongside of the development of other fields of technology such as in business, manufacturing, medicine, etc., School is unfortunately behind the advancement in the technology compared with the above-mentioned areas. This process must change and schools should be using technology in the same way to other areas of life, because the school is a basic institution by which society expects constant changes in having a better and a more advanced society and economy in general.

Contemporarily, there has been made some significant steps towards school equipment with modern teaching media with information and communication technologies, in order to have an easier and quicker new information achievement. These and other electronic tools offer the ability to create electronic text, pictures, animations, movies, mathematical calculations etc., there is also the possibility of reviewing them anytime there is something unclear. The quality of contents presented by teaching multimedia gives a much richer content to the learning process compared to traditional teaching, the massive

use of ICT and the Internet in general has enabled distance learning to be based on a system resource electronic information.

Furthermore, with the improvements of operational systems of computers by teachers and students, the users performance has begun to be easier, this way the connection among users and teaching technologies is better and there are better results shown so far. The use of cellular communication connections is providing a faster access to every information worldwide, this way the teachers are having an easier and faster approach to the new information.

By using innovative and communicative technologies, education and balance of knowledge with the rest of the contemporary world is enhanced.

Computer at school is a multidimensional strategy and as a technological-didactic and pedagogical-psychological and social project, in the first place should be applied in teaching by even starting at the elementary level of the lower elementary cycle.

The usage of the computer in teaching, which is based on staff background and training as well as of training of students for technical manipulation with these modern tools , it holds many possibilities of communication based on software by developing contemporary forms briefings, and encourages the students to be more prepared for a direct integration into life and work.

All of these high-tech devices and electronics in everyday life create incomparable opportunities in the organization of the lesson in terms of deployment of them into the so called electronic classrooms, which belong to high teaching standards, but also there are necessary requirements for preparation and professional training of the teaching staff.



Fig. 1. Contemporary learning in computer labs.

Electronic boards used in learning, in a modern society of the XXI century, is one of the greatest demands and what schools must be equipped with. There is a need for modern teachers who know, love and succeed through the use of new techniques and learning technologies. By using such contemporary techniques the learning process would be in a more elevated level, with a higher quality and in a very sophisticated way.

The electronic board is connected to the internet and is very efficient, fast and very specific in giving appropriate answers. Electronic boards as new multimedia strategies have a positive impact in encouraging students' activity and interest in the classroom. With the use of such boards there is an easier way in checking and assessing students academic performance even when there are large classes with more than 30 students. It also stores the previous teaching methods that were shown as successful.

The advantages of this board are:

It can be searched quickly and easily for every material that might be useful for the class (dependent on the distance once there is access to the internet).

In various situations there are chances to revise on previous materials so that students comprehend anything that they might have missed, there are opportunities to look at the visuals, films and they create favorable space in experimental collaboration.

The presence of the electronic board in the classroom makes other tools unusable which means that all of other tools are substituted or can be found in only one place (in the electronic board).

Electronic boards are multimedia tools that possess general and daily school preparations. All the data can be received quickly and easily by just typing with a finger or using a special pen for such boards, by minimizing and maximizing the figures, modifying or changing anything. In overall every request by a teacher or a student can be materialized as quickly and easily as possible.

The use of electronic board in our schools, provides numerous opportunities for educational enrichment of our culture, so first of all, it must be taken into account the professional skills of teachers in the manipulation of this new educational technology. Teachers according to some psychological tests, firstly define problematic situations that may be encountered when working with electronic boards, taking into account the compatibility of learning content with the searched material in electronic board. There should be suitable brightness of the classroom when using such boards and a proper formulation of the learning process.

In this case, the teacher organizes the lesson in accordance with suitable methods, by collecting didactic tasks, creates concrete strategies for the lesson as well as prepares questions and particular assignments which are given to the students before ending a lesson.



Fig. 2. A visual image of an electronic board.

During a survey conducted in some schools where electronic boards were present ,it was obvious that the students were monitored during their presentation. It was claimed that they found such boards very interesting and very attractive as well. Students have proven that by the use of such boards they tend to remember longer. There is a possibility of repeating the material explained by multimedia and participate actively in the process of learning new content.

Acquiring knowledge through multimedia, offer the students the opportunity to think, analyze and seek new information, this means that students cannot learn only in schools. If they have retained enough information associated with the manipulation of these tools, they can even use them at home which would help in gaining new skills that are related to the school curriculum and beyond.

Programs for interactive learning enable students to monitor exposures, to ask questions, provide answers and communicate with one another with all those schools which have installed cameras, so that communication can be performed in real time by exchanging experiences among them.

Didactic media can help a teacher especially when there is no possibility to take objects, phenomena, any plants or species to be presented to the students in regards to any specific subject. This way due to the lack of such conditions, didactic media can help in presenting them through images and videos.

In relation to this issue, it should be mentioned that didactic media are not always powerful to give us information without putting any effort on using them by anyone, that is why there should always be a need for a teacher to solve any problem that might be faced when obtaining a new information.

A good teacher can successfully adjust students' background knowledge, their interests, learning styles, their skills and pace of work by applying them on individual bases and encourages students to be active in every phase of teaching and learning. Additionally, simultaneously can be provided new information in the classroom allowing two-way communication to the students.

The conditions for having active students in the classroom in each phase such as organization, implementation, verification of knowledge can be created by didactic media through them innovative teachers can:

Enhance active attention of students in the classroom,

have a clear picture of the explained material,

encourage different activities and use different sources of knowledge both from within and outside the school,

enable students to understand more deeply the lesson contents and to correct and repeat anytime they want all issues that students might have difficulties with.

- Didactic media will not only contribute to the methods of oral presentation, discussions and work with the text, but they will also contribute to methods such as demonstrations, laboratory work, exploration and discovery, project work and also there will no longer be a domination of frontal forms, but it will be adjusted depending on the situation that may arise such as: organizing group work, individual work, pair work etcetera.

- Didactic media are an important factor in the process of design, realization and in having a successful conclusion of the teaching process.

- The future of innovative schools cannot be imagined without the presence of didactic media. The school and the society in general would be 'illiterate' if not using such media. That is why there is a need in having a closer approach to such media in very early stages of school.



Fig. 3. An image of a smart board in the classroom.

The appropriate usage of didactic media:

Encourages the students to work independently and to expand the already acquired knowledge in the classroom.

Encourages the students to discover and solve problems and to make decisions.

Allows them to develop their critical thinking

Active state towards the living and learning environment

Allows the students some movement in having interaction and active relations in the classroom.

Gives the students the ability to learn better when they are aware of the aim of learning.

Raises students' awareness that they are learning the appropriate content in having a better personality etcetera.

- The function of the teacher can be changed if using didactic media, so there will not be the teacher centeredness, the teacher will be less on the role of a lectures or examiner, his/her role would be much more of a researcher, developer, strategist of teaching and learning, organizer of teaching and learning, counselor and educator of new generations.

- Due to the enrichment functions of teachers with new teaching technology, teachers' commitment to teaching is in a better position to develop its sensitivity to education problems, to their personal problems, questions of their life, education in general etcetera.

- In better circumstances, didactic media can meet the needs, interests and desires of students, can also enhance more enthusiasm and creativity to do their work so that they feel happier due to the media to bring more meaning in their learning process.

-
- Didactic media have an impact in activating many senses in the learning process, they encourage students to learn by doing things.
 - Universal didactic media correspond on the way people want to be connected to the reality, they support and adjust his desire to learn something that could be useful in everyday activities.
 - Some of the most important media that could be used and practiced at school and at home would be: multimedia systems, computer, smart phones, electronic boards, cable and satellite TV, VCR, etc.
 - The use of didactic media during educational activities enable an organizational learning by establishing teaching at a higher level, by motivating students in their learning activities and making the student to succeed more in the learning process.

Conclusion

There are many didactic rules and convincing evidence of what has been achieved if applying didactic media in innovative schools. The educational value of using such media was evidenced through the school results which showed that through their use students feel much more determined, more sophisticated, and show great academic performances.

It has been seen from the teachers, students and from the students' parents that didactic media has an important role in harmonizing what was learnt at school with the real life, the theoretical part with practice as well as making some connections with previous knowledge background, advancing them even quicker with the main purpose of having an advanced knowledge.

Additionally, it is important that the function of this media enhances the activity of many senses showing curiosity towards retaining new knowledge and desire for an active participation in learning and its development. Independent work, transfer of knowledge and the application of them in a didactic way is allowed by multimedia.

Based on the research done, it is obvious that there is a need in using didactic media. In addition to it, 93% of the students claimed that they are pro using didactic media and only 7% stated to be against such multimedia. It has been proved that students feel really interested in methodologies of this kind, because the lessons are well- understood, are more satisfied when learning and that what they learn remains as a long term memory.

Nowadays, there has been a great development of technology, which has led in developing in many other social fields as well, this way didactic media are such methods which have a great role in helping the students to manage their classes better and to make the school environment even more adorable for the students.

Real situations are connected through interactive systems in a way that students show more interest in learning. Students are educated in various subjects and show interest, are more motivated and this way even the teaching is more effective.

Recommendations

Students, teachers, parents and the community, all together should be coordinated and motivated in implementing didactic media into learning, as great factors of achieving better results in the school and in the overall society.

A teacher should know how to work with such didactic media in the classroom-school.

Students should be informed about the objectives of using such media in the classes by their teachers.

Teachers should show the students about the positive effects that these media play on students' academic performance.

Children should be allowed by their parents to use such techniques even at their home.

Students must be informed for the pros and cons of using such media by the professionals.

The schools which express an interest on having didactic media in their educational processes should be supported by state institutions.

The schools which lack on having multimedia systems should try to have such media in enhancing some particular data and systems for distance learning in the service of the students who might have health problems and for those who cannot go to schools and vise versa.

Students should be offered a variety of learning methodologies rather than still continuing with the traditional system of both teaching and learning.

The school which has been advanced from the society, for its particular interests must seek for innovations continuously with the main purpose of advancing students' essential needs. On the other hand, there should be a systematic support and help by the institutions about choosing the activities for students, the type of teaching, and they should offer many new technologies in maintaining a better and a more attractive learning environment.

References

- Danilovič, M. (1996). *Savremena obrazovna tehnologija*, Beograd. Srbija.
- Dika, A., Rodiqi, S. (1998). *Kompjuterët dhe informatika*, Prishtinë. Kosovë.
- Korthagen, F. (2010). *Situated learning theory and the pedagogy of teacher education: Towards an integrative view of teacher behavior and teacher learning*.
Teaching and Teacher Education, 26(1), 98–106.
- Likaj, R. (2008). *Informatika në edukimin fillor dhe parafillor*, Prishtinë, Kosovë.
- Mandic, D. (2010). *Knowledge Based Multimedia System for Teacher's Education*, in the book 9th WSEAS International Conference. on ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE, KNOWLEDGE ENGINEERING AND DATA BASES (AIKED '10), University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom, 2010, pp.221-226.
- Mandic, D. (2003). *Didactical and computer supported innovations in education*, Beograd. Srbija
- Mandic, D., Lalic, N., Bandjur, V. (2010). *Managing Innovations in Education*, in the book 9th WSEAS International Conference. on ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE, KNOWLEDGE ENGINEERING AND DATA BASES (AIKED '10), University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom, 2010, pp.231-237.
- Nikša Šojan, N. (1972). *Nastave i učenje uz pomoće kompjutera*, Zagreb. Hrvatska.
- Osmani, F. (2008). *Teknikat dhe teknologitë mësimore*, Tetovë. Maqedoni.
- Rosen, A. J., et al. (2010). *Noncognitive Skills in the Classroom: New Perspectives on Educational Research*. RTI Press. September 2010.
- Zylfiu, N. (1985). *Aspektet didaktike të kompjuterizimit të punës mësimore*, revista „Pedagogu”, Nr. 1, Prishtinë. Kosovë.
- Zylfiu, N. *Dituria 1-2*. (1976). *Të mësuarit shikuar nga aspekti i komunikimit*, Prishtinë. Kosovë.

Consent to Treatment and Anamnesis as Problem of Communication with Minor Patients in Healthcare Decision-Making

Karina Palkova

Riga Stradins University, Latvia,

Svetlana Semaka

University of Latvia, Latvia,

Abstract

Lately lawyers and medical professionals pay more attention too the process of minor patient healthcare. The research shall address the issues of legal relationship between minor patients and medical professionals, consent to treatment of minor patients and communication problems including the scope of information which the doctor can provide to the minor patient's relatives to protect themselves and patients. Legislation prescribes that the information provided by the medical professional to the minor patient must be not only easy-to-understand, but also be consistent with the patient's age maturity. However, in Latvia, for example, there are no guidelines that specify how medical professionals can determine the patient's maturity. In the course of provision of medical services to the minor persons legal disputes involving communiucation failures between the minor patients, their relatives, legal representatives and the doctors arise increasingly frequently. The research will look into issue of communication problems in healthcare. The aim of the research is to provide insight into challenges of legal relations between minor patients and medical professionals and communication problems in healthcare.

Keywords: consent to treatment, minor patient, healthcare professionals' rights, human rights, communication in healthcare

Introduction

The research covers such important issues of the relations between minor patients and medical professionals as relevance of communication in the process of medical treatment, areas of concern related to rights and obligations of the parties and their solution.

The choice of the topic of the research was prompted by practical issues encountered by medical professionals both in Latvia and in the other countries of the European Union. Working with the minor patients it is necessary to take into account a number of aspects, such as restrictions pertaining to treatment of this group of people and peculiarities of communication.

The aim of the research is to provide insight into regulation of legal relations between minor patients and medical professionals in order to study communication problems of the parties' interaction as part of the process of medical treatment and most common instances pertaining to the minor patients' rights and obligations.

The research reviews in general terms the cases when a minor patient has the right to accept or to refuse medical treatment, what may influence his choice. Particular importance is attached to the concept of minors and its relevance to the process of medical treatment. At the same time the research paper reviews the provisions of the Latvian legislation and European legislative framework on this issue.

Treatment of the minor patients also depends on the behaviour pattern of the medical professional and the ability to explain the situation to the patient. The way and the manner in which the medical professional communicates with the patient determine the progress and the results of medical treatment. Due to the fact that minor patients are a special group of patients it is important to be aware of the potential risks and significance of the incomplete communication process.

Therefore in order to address the issue of the importance of communication communication process has been analysed taking anamnesis of minor patients.

The research operates mainly with analytical and comparative methods. It provides the opportunity to accomplish the objective targeted by the research more accurately. Alongside with that theoretical research method is employed in the paper.

The concept of minor patients and miscellaneous age thresholds in the enjoyment of the rights.

In actual practice medical professionals increasingly frequently must consult the rights of the minor patients. How to respect the rights of the minor patients, be deferential to the minors' opinions, views and beliefs.

Medical professionals are not always sure up to what point the minor patients are allowed to make decisions on their own, in which cases the consent of some other person to the treatment of the minor person is required and starting with what age the minor is authorized to make decisions with regard to the process of his treatment by himself. The scope of obligations of the healthcare professionals in accordance with the specifics of the activities are included in the regulatory enactments regulating the procedure of healthcare services provision (Slokenberga, Gusarova, Lieljuksis, Mucins, Stanislavska, Saberte, Slisere, Taurina, 2015). However, the answers to these questions can be also found by reviewing the regulatory enactments of the Republic of Latvia unrelated to medicine. In particular regard must be also paid to international regulatory enactments.

Article 219¹ of the Civil law of Latvia prescribes that minority of persons continues until they attain the age of eighteen. In exceptional circumstances the person may be declared as being of age of majority at the age of 16 already.

Until the achievement of the age of 14 minors have only the right to be heard and to participate in making of the relevant decision related to treatment according to their age and maturity, however, they cannot give consent to their treatment. Treatment of such persons is permitted only upon receipt of the consent of their lawful representative.

However, upon the achievement of the age of 14 minors have the right to give consent to their treatment themselves and only in case of the refused treatment by the minor, if the doctor believes that the treatment is in the best interests of the patient, the doctor is authorized to request consent of the minor's parents or other lawful representatives. It follows from the above-mentioned that irrespective of the achievement of the age of 14 the person's rights to refuse treatment are limited. It must be noted that in Great Britain the approach is different.

In 1983 the criteria for establishing whether a child is capable of giving consent to treatment were defined - 'Gillick test'. This test shows whether children under 16 are able to fully understand what the proposed treatment involves including its purpose, risks, likelihood of success, etc.².

Sexual and Reproductive Health Law³ of the Republic of Latvia with regard to termination of the patient's pregnancy prescribes other age restrictions than the Law On the Rights of Patients⁴ of the Republic of Latvia. Age restriction determined in Article 27 of the Sexual and Reproductive Health Law⁵ of Latvia is 16 years. Until the achievement of the age of 16 the patient has the right to be heard to by the doctor and the doctor must pay due consideration to the patient's beliefs taking into account the patient's age and the degree of maturity. Consequently, if the patient herself expresses a wish to terminate pregnancy, the decision about termination of pregnancy is actually adopted at least by one of the parents or by the guardian giving a written consent. Part four of Article 27 of the Sexual and Reproductive Health Law of Latvia ⁶ provides the answer to the question what are the options of the patient who cannot convince her parents or guardian to allow termination of pregnancy; namely – the patient is authorized to ask the Orphans Court to deliver the judgement. Probably the legislator believes that the decision of the parents or the guardian sometimes may be based on prejudice and the Orphans Court can render a more comprehensive assessment whether preservation of pregnancy is in the best interests of the patient. This naturally brings up the question as to how long it will take the Orphans Court to consider the issue. It may happen that the

¹ Article 219 of the Civil Law, date 14.10.1998., as amended

² Gillick respondent and West Norfolk and Wisbeck area Health authority first appellants and department of Health and Social security second appellants, <http://www.bailii.org/uk/cases/UKHL/1985/7.html>

³ Sexual and Reproductive Health Law, date 31.01.2002., as amended

⁴ The Latvian Law On the Rights of Patients No 205, dated 17.12.2009, as amended

⁵ Article 27 of the Latvian Sexual and Reproductive Health Law dated 31.01.2002., as amended

⁶ Article 27 of the Latvian Sexual and Reproductive Health Law dated 31.01.2002., as amended

judgement of the Orphans Court is delivered at the time when from the standpoint of the patient's health pregnancy termination is no longer permitted.

Whereas if the patient herself has not expressed a wish to terminate pregnancy, then the consent of one of the parents or the consent of the guardian is not sufficient. The approval of the council of physicians that the patient has medical indications for the pregnancy termination is needed, or a certificate issued by the police, prosecutor's office or the other law enforcement institution in case of the patient's pregnancy resulting from rape.

Therefore it follows from part four of Article 27 of the Sexual and Reproductive Health Law of Latvia ¹ that also in the event when the parents or the guardian have given their consent to termination of pregnancy and there exists additional relevant condition (i.e. the approval of the council of physicians that the patient has medical indications for the termination of pregnancy, or a certificate issued by a law enforcement institution in case of pregnancy resulting from rape), the patient is entitled to address the Orphans Court and ask for the injunction to perform termination of pregnancy. The law does not specify what the doctor must do in case when the patient submits to the doctor an application addressed to the Orphans Court containing a request not to allow termination of pregnancy with the stamp of the Orphans Court testifying to the receipt of the application. On a formal level in the event of presence of the above-mentioned criteria prescribed by the law the doctor must perform termination of pregnancy. On the one hand, this would be logically reasonable, because in separate cases the doctor cannot wait until the Orphans Court renders a judgement, however, on the other hand, terminated pregnancy cannot be reversed and the Orphans Court even if it finds the parents' or the guardian's decision incorrect shall not be in the position to restore the previous condition.

Therefore the national regulatory enactments secure the patient's right to be the master of his health and life. However, these rights are limited as well (Šulce – Rēvele, Likanse 2013).

International legislative framework

The tendency shows that cooperation between minor patients and healthcare professionals becomes more associated with human rights.

The research based on the human rights issue helps to gain a greater understanding of the scope of the patients' and healthcare professionals' rights and obligations. More importantly is to understand to what extent the parties can exercise certain rights. (Exster, 2002).

One of the international master documents that must be reviewed is the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Dignity of the Europe's Convention for the Application of Biology and Medicine ². Second part of Article 6 of the Convention prescribes that if according to the legislative instruments the minor cannot give consent to performance of actions related to his health, then these actions can only be performed upon receipt of the permission of the minor's representative or the permission of the authorities, persons or institutions determined by the law. Whereas Article 6 also prescribes that in adoption of the decision key attention must be paid to the minor's opinion with due regard of his age and degree of maturity.

Similar regulation is contained in the Convention on the Rights of the Child, where in part one of Article 12 it is mentioned that the member states must ensure that every child who is capable of forming his opinion has the right to express it freely with regard to all issues pertaining to him, furthermore due attention must be paid to the opinion of the child according to the child's age and degree of maturity.

It follows from the foregoing that the rights of the minor patient to provide his opinion in the course of the treatment process expand with the increment of the minor's age and the degree of his maturity. This means that the rights of the lawful representative to adopt decisions on behalf of the minor become relatively abridged.

Peculiarities of communication during the process of medical treatment

Cooperation of the patient with the medical professional begins with the visit. It should be noted that taking of the children's anamnesis is a more complicated process and involves a number of specific aspects. Intake of the children's anamnestic

1 Article 27 of the Latvian Sexual and Reproductive Health Law dated 31.01.2002., as amended

data includes interviewing of their parents or the persons who take care of the child. One of the major problems a medical professional may face when interviewing a child, i.e. a minor, is how the parents and the child himself look upon their health problems and are capable of reporting them. Quite often a situation may be observed when a mother or any other lawful representative describes the child's health problems and the medical professional listens only to the lawful representative. Whereas the patient is a minor and it is him who is experiencing somatic problems and can describe them more accurately than the lawful representative. Minors obey their parents and usually trust them, which may result in a situation when a child after having listened to his mother's or the other person's story may develop false memories about his health condition. This happens due to complicated interaction of miscellaneous memories, beliefs and anticipations in the patient's mind. Owing to the memory the patient can remember and answer the doctor's questions when they are asked. Studies show that a lot of people believe that our memory functions very much like a tape-recorder, video-camera or a DVD, namely, human memory in the same way as these devices stores and plays back the events exactly in the way we experienced them (Alvarez, & Brown, 2002; Lenca, & Mills, 2009; Loftus, & Loftus, 1980, as mentioned by Lilienfeld, Lynn, Ruscio, & Beyerstein, 2010). Unfortunately human memories do not exist in a vacuum, they are more likely to interfere with one another in most complicated ways (Green, 1992).

Human memories are by no means the exact replicas of the past events (Clifasefi, Garry, & Loftus, 2007). Human memory is a much more complicated process than it may initially seem. However, it is the patient's memories of his illness that is the first and the most important way to take the anamnesis. Simply stated, memory is the ability of the human brain to encode, save, maintain and later retrieve the information and past experience (Andrade, 2008). Episodic memory is stored in the brain in such a way as to enable the person to remember an event of his life that he experienced a few minutes ago or even a few years ago, also remembering a number of aspects related to the event, for instance, such as perceived details, thoughts, conclusions and emotions (Gonsalves, & Paller, 2002). Neural circuitries that activate the retrieval of these memories, however, do not secure exact recording of any event. Just the opposite, episodic memory retrieval is a reconstructive process where the person starts to use the retained information which is often limited and incomplete. In the reconstructive process at the moment of the event retrieval the memory is deformed (Barlett, 1932; Schacter, 1995; Schacter, Norman, Koutstaal, 1998, as mentioned by Gonsalves, & Paller, 2002). Fundamentally memory consists of the person's background knowledge (Mitchell, & Johnson, 2009), current mental state (Jacoby, Wahlheim, Rhodes, Daniels, & Rogers, 2010) and current emotional state (Brainerd, Reyna, & Aydin, 2010). This is exactly why memory is not the ideal record-keeping of the outside world. Episodic memory involves a reconstructive process that makes it more prone to errors and distortions and false memories are the "by-product" of the constructive memory system (Gallo, 2010).

Studies prove that memory is not reproductive – it does not reflect the bygone information accurately, but reconstructs it. It means that what the patient remembers today is blurred precise memories intermixed with the patient's beliefs, needs, emotions and anticipations. These anticipations rest upon the patient's knowledge of himself, the event he is trying to remember and similar situations from the patients's experience (Clifasefi, Garry, & Loftus, 2007).

In one of their experiments Loftus and Pickrell (Loftus, & Pickrell, 1995) manipulated with the fact that an elderly relative was telling the participants of the experiments the four events, the three of which were real and one unreal, however, the events were described in a way as if the experiment participants took part in them. Later during the interviews the participants revealed that actual events are retrieved by the memory as real in 68% of the cases, while unreal events are reproduced as true in 25% of the cases. If this effect can be observed with the adults, then it can be affirmed with fair certainty that the effect similar to the effect on the adults can be observed with the underage children. The experiment similar in concept to the experiment of Loftus and Pickrell (Loftus, & Pickrell, 1995) was repeated by Hyman, Husband and Billings (Hyman, Husband, & Billings, 1995). In that experiment noone of the research participants recognized false memories as real during the first interview, but when the same participants were interviewed for the third time, already 25.5% of them described the event as real memories. Various researchers in the experiments with the false memories of the event that had never taken place manipulated with miscellaneous factors and discovered that a man can be convinced to be involved in the events that he had never experienced, for instance, medical procedures (Porter, Yuille, & Lehman, 1999). From neurocognitive point of view there is a similarity between the way how the imagined and perceived events are encoded (Johnson, Hashtroudi, & Lindsay, 1993), which actually means that if the person imagines or overinterpretes the experienced event, both pieces of information are encoded in the brain in a similar fashion. Exactly the same may happen to the minor patient. For instance, if the mother has a track record of her child's usual illnesses, she may subconsciously adjust her story to her anticipations. Human memories can be affected and therefore can be modified with any information that the person receives already after the experienced event (the so called postactive interference), or with the information that was available to the person before the same event (the so called proactive interference) memories

of which were formed (Green, 1992). In practice quite often it can be observed that the patients when visiting a doctor have anticipations about their potential diagnosis and therefore the patient adjusts his symptoms to the invented diagnosis. This may be called proactive interference and it affects the intake of anamnesis. In the same manner it may happen that the doctor first tells the patient his anticipations and the patient after having received this information may imagine the details without being aware of it himself. This may be called postactive interference, which also affects the anamnesis. All this is especially dangerous if working with the minor patients, therefore medical professionals must be particularly observant and cautious when taking anamnesis, due attention must be paid to questioning the child.

Usually the intake of anamnesis starts with questioning. Taking anamnesis of the minor patients the medical professional for the most part puts these questions to the child's lawful representative in the presence of the child. In practice quite often it can be observed that doctors ask very precise questions, for instance, such as "Can you say that the child's left side hurt more?" Research shows that asking very specific questions may affect the patient's memory which respectively affects the patient's answers and may distort the anamnesis. In the experiment of Loftus and Palmer (Loftus, & Palmer, 1974) the participants of the experiment were offered to watch the film featuring several car accidents, then they were split into three random groups and each group received a different set of questions. Research results showed that the wording of the questions affects the response. This misleading effect demonstrates that when suggestive and more detailed information is received after formation of the real memories it may replace or transform the old information (Okado, & Stark, 2005; Loftus, & Hoffman, 1989; as mentioned by Straube, 2012). It means that while taking the anamnesis a medical professional must aim at asking more general questions, for instance, such as "Which of the child's sides hurt more and what can it be evidenced by?".

Conclusions

As reflected by the research, there exist several problems in the relations of medical professionals and minor patients. On the one hand, the law protects minor patients, yet at the same time it abridges the rights of medical professionals. Healthcare professionals are unable to provide high-quality care unless their rights are respected. Medical professionals must work under decent conditions, yet maintaining professional independence. (Hervey, McHale 2015).

Responsibility of the healthcare professionals for the health of the patient is enormous. However, the doctor's responsibility for the observance of the patient's rights and obligations is equally important. Performing his daily functions the doctor does not merely have to act as a specialist, but he must also be familiar with the legislative changes and their trends.

Reviewing the issue of the minor patients' rights and obligations in the process of medical treatment in Latvia and the issue of peculiarities of communication with the healthcare professionals allows for the conclusion that::

- 1.the patient who has reached the age of 14 has the right to refuse medical treatment and to adopt any effective resolution provided further that the doctor anticipates hazard effects of the patient's actions;
- 2.the patient who has reached the age of 14 on the one hand, is mature enough and is authorized to take a decision about his treatment himself, on the other hand, assessment of the degree of maturity of the patient is an extremely complicated process that is not regulated by the Latvian legislation;
- 3.working with the minor patients lays enormous responsibility on the medical professional. On the one hand, the doctor must be concerned with the health and survival of the patient, on the other hand, he must respect the human rights of the minor patient.
4. increased attention must be paid to the minor patients themselves, questioning must begin with the minor patient and not with the child's lawful representative.
5. in the course of communication with the minor patient and the patients's lawful representative it is necessary to refrain from announcement of the presumable diagnosis, if there is no absolute certainty about it, also when taking the anamnesis of the minor patients it is necessary to refrain from specific questions aiming at asking general questions without specific indications.

It should be noted that if the relations between patients and medical professionals were viewed in the context of human rights, exclusive right to life would be taken as a governing principle (Abraham, Lewis, 2000).

In view of the above-mentioned it must be concluded that the Latvian statutory enactments regulating the rights of the minors in the process of medical treatment are incomplete. Proficient and professional communication of the healthcare practitioners with the minor patients are not sufficiently secured either at the legislative level or from a practical standpoint.

References:

- Abraham, J., Lewis, G. (2000). *Regulating medicines in Europe: Competition, Expertise and Public health*. Routledge
- Exster A. (3th ed.). (2002). *Antwep-Oxford-New York: Intersentia*. P.148
- Slukenberga, S., A. Gusarova, A. Lieljuksis, R. Mucins, Stanislavska O, Saberte L., Slisere D., Taurina L. (2015). *Medical law. Latvia: Tiesu namu agentura*
- Šulce – Rēvele L., Likanse D. (2013). Development of Latvian Patients' rights. *Journal Jurista vārds*, No. 41 (792) (online) Available at: <http://www.juristavards.lv/doc/260694-pacientu-tiesibu-attitiba-latvija/> (January 12, 2016)
- Tamara K. Hervey, Jean V. McHale, *European Union Health Law*, Cambridge University press, 2015, 160 p
- Lilienfeld, S. O., Lynn, S. J., Ruscio, J. & Beyerstein, B. L. (2010). *50 Great Myths of Popular Psychology*. Blackwell Publishing. United Kingdom.
- Clifasefi, S. L., Garry M., & Loftus, E. F. (2007). Setting the record (or video camera) straight on memory: The video camera model of memory and other memory myths. In S. Della Sala (Ed.), *Tall tales about the mind and brain: Separating fact from fiction*. 60–65
- Gonsalves, B. & Paller, A. K. (2002). Mistaken Memories: Remembering Events That Never Happened. *The Neuroscientist*, Vol.8, No.5, 391-395
- Mitchell, K. J. & Johnson, M. K. (2009). Source monitoring 15 years later: what have we learned from fMRI about the neural mechanisms of source memory? *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 135(4), 638–677.
- Jacoby, L. L., Wahlheim, C. N., Rhodes, M. G., Daniels, K. A., & Rogers, C. S. (2010). Learning to diminish the effects of proactive interference: reducing false memory for young and older adults. *Mem Cognit*, Vol 38(6), 820–829.
- Brainerd, C. J., Reyna, V. F., & Aydin, C. (2010). Remembering in contradictory minds: disjunction fallacies in episodic memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, Vol.36(3), 711–735.
- Gallo, D. A. (2010). False memories and fantastic beliefs: 15 years of the DRM illusion. *Mem Cognit*, Vol. 38(7), 833–848.
- Loftus, E. F., & Pickrell, J. E. (1995) The formation of false memories. *Psychiatric Annals*, 25, 720-725.
- Hyman, I. E., Jr., Husband, T. H., & Billings, F. J. (1995). False memories of childhood experiences. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 9, 181-197
- Porter, S., Yuille, J. C. & Lehman, D. R. (1999). The nature of real, implanted, and fabricated memories for emotional childhood events: implications for the recovered memory debate. *Law and Human Behavior*, No.23(5), 517-37.
- Johnson, M. K, Hashtroudi, S., & Lindsay, D.S. (1993). Source Monitoring. *Psychol Bull* 114(1):3–28.
- Straube, B. (2012). An overview of the neuro-cognitive processes involved in the encoding, consolidation, and retrieval of true and false memories. *Behavioral and Brain Functions*, No.8:35.
- Gillick respondent and West Norfolk and Wisbeck area Health authority first appellants and department of Health and Social security second appellants, <http://www.bailii.org/uk/cases/UKHL/1985/7.html>
- Wheeler R.(2006) Gillick or Fraser? A plea for consistency over competence in children: Gillick and Fraser are not interchangeable. *British Medical Journal*, (8 April): 807

Communication and Social Problems in the Context of Downtown Area Renewal. Case Study of Poznan in Poland

Arch. Bartosz Kazmierczak, PhD

Poznan University of Technology, Faculty of Architecture, Poznan, Poland

Abstract

In the following article the attention is paid mainly to public space attractiveness questions. The main idea in a context of aesthetic and functional issues of urban renewal is to enable all the participants to start a dialogue. It is needed so as to identify local community's needs, preferences and aspirations. There is presented a case study of a city of Poznan in the context of a common city centre problems as well as ongoing spatial and social changes.

Keywords: urban renewal, public space, traffic calming.

Introduction - Poznan as a study example.

Poznan is a historical town whose origins dates back to the tenth century. Throughout history, the city's development was dependent on various external factors. Some of them worked on speeding up the urbanization process, others - as the establishment of the Poznan as a fortress, hampered development for centuries. Contemporary Poznan is also subjected to a number of determinants; some have local, other global dimensions. The rapid development of mass media and free flow of information are conducive to the growth of awareness and the formation of civic attitudes. It is a trend that can be observed in many societies - also among the inhabitants of Poznan. District councils, associations and informal groups consociating residents are increasingly involved in matters concerning spatial changes. Location of strategic functions, filling the space with green areas, selection of appropriate equipment or appropriately selected number of parking spaces – those are the problems issued by the municipal activists.

One of the factors that negatively affects the dynamics of spatial transformations leading to the renewal of downtown, is certainly inefficient transportation system. Tailored to the needs of the city of the second half of the twentieth century, where the car was the dominant mean of transportation, now is a generator of many spatial conflicts. The failure of the construction of planned bypasses resulted in the need to broaden the streets inside the city and thus fragmentation of urban tissue. Shopping streets connecting the Old Town with the district centers have been cut up and lost its attractiveness due to the lack of continuity of functional relationships and apparent disintegration of space. Of course, not only a bad situation of vehicular communication is responsible for the collapse of Poznan shopping streets. The low level of attractiveness of the downtown public spaces results in increased interest in areas on its periphery and the outflow of capital to these areas. Today, more Poznanians are shopping in shopping centers on suburbs than on the promenades and passages of the Old City. This results in even greater collapse of the valuable fabric of the city and its slow degradation.



Fig.1. Urban structure of Poznan city centre in a context of main traffic problems.

Public participation in the process of converting public spaces

Social and political transformations in Poland and global trends results in the increase of civic awareness also in the field of spatial order. Need to save valuable urban structure is felt by both the inhabitants and the city authorities. In order to improve the state of Poznan public spaces, corrective actions were taken.

At first, the authorities focused on soft actions, mainly involving the development of spatial awareness of residents and study their preferences as to the desirable forms of land use. Because the term "public participation" was relatively new, it was necessary to bring together different social groups, which have so far been wary to each other. To this end, a series of meetings were organized, aimed at better understanding of the motivations that guide social groups and an indication of possible fields of consensus on the creation and transformation of urban public spaces. Based on experience gained during the meeting Charter of the Public Space was formulated - a document setting out the basic principles of the creation and use of urban public spaces. In the absence of appropriate legal determinants, the Chart of Public Space has become practically the only document defining the rules of public participation in activities for the recovery of degraded urban areas including the city centers.

In parallel, municipal authorities commissioned the execution of projects for possible changes in relevant spatial development of individual streets. In order to improve the attractiveness of public spaces it was decided to perform studies taking into account such issues as:

- Traffic organization,
- Projects of pavements,
- A small architecture and urban furniture ,
- Green areas,
- Advertising and the media.

There was no radical decisions to incorporate in those studies the technical elements of infrastructure, including lighting, water supply etc. The objective of these studies was more to start the debate on the directions of possible transformations than selecting the appropriate solutions that need to be applied . We managed to collect quite a large number of opinions and voices that certainly will help narrow down the search.

However, participation is not only a tool for creation of social design concepts and public consultation of planned investments. The residents readiness for taking action in common spaces manifests itself in increased participation in various kinds of artistic projects that require creativity and an open attitude towards the activities in public space. The creation of fashionable, unique and attractive places require the use of unusual, unexpected solutions. Today's technical capabilities make it possible to design and furnish the space in such a way to provoke users and residents to specific interaction with it. The use of interactive gadgets in the form of smart infrastructural devices, the intentional design of lightning, pavement texture and sound, can make the streets more friendly – mostly for pedestrians and cyclists.



Fig.2. Workshops with public participation is a tool to define needed parking zones.

The revival of urban public spaces and the problem of vehicular transport domination.

The increase in the number of cars per capita - observed in Poland at the turn of the XXth century, apply to most Polish cities, including Poznan. According to statistical data in 2008 there were 494 cars per 1000 inhabitants in Poznan. This trend began with the political changes in Poland in the early 90s. Nuisances caused by automobile traffic are problematic in most city centers. Further expansion of the streets width does not warrant improve in the flow of traffic. The need to protect the downtown urban structures enforces to honour such a width of lanes that stem from the layout of historical quarters. In such circumstances, attempt to comply with the paradigm of dominance of road transport resulted in a drastic reduction in space for pedestrians, which is deadly to small trade and services located along the routes. The balance of the transport system and diversification in the preferred means of transport becomes a priority in this situation. The document accepted November 18, 1999 defines the Urban Transport Policy as compatible with the principles of sustainable development. The detailed resolutions include the restrictions on parking in lanes (Restricted Parking Zones (SOP)), gradual calming of traffic in central districts (TEMPO zone of 30 km/h) and the promotion of public transport and cycling. Restoration of public spaces for the pedestrian use, which was dominated before by traffic, has become one of the directions of activities of the authorities of Poznan.

The first major project was the introduction of restricted parking zones in the City Center and the gradual expansion of the SOP (Restricted Parking Zones) in downtown districts. The introduction of the zone in a given area is always associated with conducting public consultations with district councils. The author had the opportunity to make urban spatial development plan for downtown district of Wilda. Project covered area adjacent to the Old Town and running up to the Wildecki Market- the main square of the district. The objectives of the project was traffic calming within a main street connecting Market Wildecki Market with the Old Town, regulate and organize the parking spaces in such a way as to minimize their negative impact on the perception of space by pedestrians.

The project introduced solutions untapped in Poland, the so called sharing of the communication space through various forms of transport and pedestrians, such as junction with the lock for *passantes*, raising the crossings to the sidewalk levels, as well as already known in Poznan traffic calming elements such as road chicanes used for greenery or small architecture. The purpose of these operations was to adjust the speed of vehicles to 30km/h.

Another example of a city program aimed at reducing the dominance of cars in the city center, thus giving space to pedestrians and cyclists, is the TEMPO 30 ZONE, which means the designation of areas with limited maximum speed to 30km/h and traffic reorganization in such a way as to prevent transit traffic through the Old Town. Municipal Road Authority in Poznan proceeded to draw up a concept of reorganization of traffic and the creation of new spaces for the pedestrians on Św. Marcin street. In the past it used to be the main shopping street, currently it is badly organized, overgrown with functions incongruent with the rank of the place. Original project commissioned by the Municipal Road Authority did not seek specific engineering solutions, but provoked a discussion not only of experts and activists but also ordinary users.

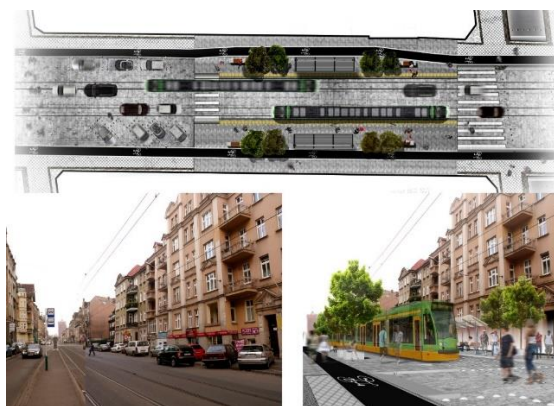


Fig.3. Concept of public space renewal with new organization of traffic and improvement of urban interior elements.

Summary

Strengthening of the local awareness and building urban strategies based on the unique characteristics of individual districts may be the beginning of a long process of renewal of the city center in both the spatial and socio-economic layer. One of the most important elements of urban structure, which role is to create a unique identity, is a system of public spaces of a downtown. This system is a space of increased interaction and social contact as it is the carrier of cultural heritage values. Composed of markets, squares, streets and parks, it reflects the level of social culture and defines the framework for social life. All design decisions and actions redefining these spaces are not only important spatial and economical terms, but also social. The public space has different social functions because of their "equipment" and purpose. Downtown must therefore be subject to continuous evolution and spatial changes made in terms of today's economic and social needs.

Public debate on the future of Poznan public spaces, as well as active participation of the municipalities and expert groups, points to greater openness of the authorities to the needs and demands. On the other hand, the positive trend is occurring for several years in revival in the creative sector, groups of local activists, creative environments, nonprofits and others for whom the matter of the balance in the city and development of culture has become a common idea. Public participation in shaping a new and better image of the degraded areas of the city coincides with the role of the architect - urban planner and includes not only involvement in creation of programs, projects or other documents but also active participation in the life of the city.

References

Każmierczak B. (2014) "When formal becomes informal", *Rethinking the Urban*, DAKAM, ISBN: 978-605-5120-24-5, Istanbul, 2013

Każmierczak B., Social and cultural aspects of a city public space transformation. Case study of Poznan, Poland, MCSEER Publishing, *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol.5, No.19, August 2014, Rome-Italy

Każmierczak B., Touristic infrastructure development in the context of increasing a town space attractiveness, *New Perspectives On Economics And Business Studies*, EUSER - European Center For Science Education And Research, Rome, Italy, 2015

Każmierczak B., Pazder D., Participation in public space renewal. Case study of Poznan - large city in Poland, *European Journal of Social Sciences Education and Research*, vol. 6 nr 2, 2016

Participation and Partnership Within Revival Process. Case Study of a City of Poznan in Poland

Dominika Pazder PhD

Poznan University of Technology, Faculty of Architecture

Abstract

In the following paper there are presented the projects implemented by the Author, together with the Division of Revitalization of the City of Poznan. The issues were undertaken within a revitalization process – especially in its soft, social aspect. Presented effects are results of a long-term cooperation with Poznan Municipality. The main attention is focused on selected activities related to the issues of renewal and activation of public spaces and those of educational value. These are important tools to start a dialogue with city residents and can have a positive impact on social attitude to revival process.

Introduction

Process of either creation or revitalization of urban space within a city centre requires the need to ensure the increase of public participation. It is particularly important at local level. The local community should be given an opportunity to have an effect on changes in their space of living. It is essential within a renewal process to gather residents' opinions and ideas about future development so as to provide a success of taken steps. Local community must have the opportunity to present its point of view, identify its needs, preferences and aspirations. The participation process should be realized from the very beginning of revitalization program development. Thanks to the participation in the process of recovery program, the community has a chance to develop the sense of responsibility for the space, which is especially important at the stage of putting the area for use. Regeneration programs require consultation and social acceptance, though their final form is a result of decisions of the public authorities.

Participation in revival process – chosen aspects

Participation should relate primarily to those social groups that are directly involved in the planning process and will feel the consequences of certain decisions. These include residents of the district or municipality as well as various interest groups of: property or land owners, road users, elderly and disabled people, potential investors, developers, local politicians and representatives of science and culture.

The participation of these groups in the planning process should take place at the level of the creation of planning documents, which is regulated in Poland from 2015 by the revitalization law. The appropriate organization of public participation is also very important, if only because, those entities that have a high social position or capital are in a privileged position. This could have a negative effect leading to abuse and manipulation aimed at meeting the needs of only a narrow, selected group of people. It is also important to prepare the representatives of local governments to such cooperation, so as to obtain the desirable benefits. The most important is to gain general benefits for local community and not to enable political parties and particular groups of interests to realize their individual needs.

For that reason, participatory planning is the most desirable tool in a discussion about a potential of a given space and its development. The desirable instruments to start a discussion with local community are workshops, meetings, project presentations, during which local community and experts are gathered together in order to find a common vision of development or revitalization of a given area.

Partnership within revival process – chosen aspects

The validity of the issue of a city space revitalization is also strongly emphasized in educational activities, both in the departments of architecture or urban planning of Polish universities. The nature of these activities is two-dimensional: theoretical and practical, and their main aim is to develop qualified staff with different professional profiles, professionally

dealing with urban issues. Urban planning, due to the complexity of the questions is interdisciplinary. It can be understood as art and science of building, expansion and planning of the city.

An example of partnership within a revitalization process can be a collaboration of local authorities with universities, which in Poznan already has a long tradition and brings very good results. The impact of Poznan universities for spatial planning and urban development is expressed by taking the subject of scientific research related to the specifics of settlements in a region of Wielkopolska. It can be realized by organizing scientific conferences, urban and architectural competitions. These activities result in both inventory elaboration or architectural and planning concepts which are very useful to start the discussion about future of a district, city or even municipality.

As part of the educational process carried out by the Faculty of Architecture of Poznan University of Technology, there was established the cooperation with a number of cities and municipalities in Wielkopolska region, including Municipality of the city of Poznan. It was realized generally in two basic ways:

1. joint organization and implementation of student internships (e.g. summer fieldwork), which aimed not only at an inventory of the existing urban space, but also contained specific design solutions,
2. joint organization of students' competitions, which can produce various design solutions (in different scales) concerning development of chosen areas of a city. The effects of competitions are always presented to a broad public forum, with the participation of local authorities and local community. The chosen student works are rewarded in various competitions, including prestigious ones as "My Wielkopolska Region", which are organized by the professional associations in cooperation with local authorities.



Pic.1. Presentations, discussions and exhibitions of students' works as a tool of partnership within city revival process – example of cooperation with Międzychód Municipality [photo author].



Fig.2. The example of students' work under author's direction – proposal of a public space activation within a city centre of Poznan.

The undertaken actions are aimed at promoting knowledge and real public participation in planning and revitalization process. The idea is to search for innovative solutions based on the participation of multidisciplinary teams of professionals and involvement of the local community. The result of participatory planning and collaborative revitalization is social consensus about decisions taken at each level of planning: strategic, programmatic and implementation. In this perspective, the role of architect and urban planner should be understood more broadly than just in the meaning of a city space creation. There must be also taken into account the need for new challenges in the sphere of information, education and negotiating. In this context, it is important to create new theoretical solutions including the possibility of their implementation and use in order to minimize conflicts caused by different aims and interests of various social groups.

Case study – chosen activities concerning revitalization process

An interesting example of a long-term cooperation between Poznan Municipality with universities is an initiative "Change your backyard". So far there were held seven editions until 2016 which were organized in the framework of the Municipal Revitalisation Programme. The first pilot project was completed in 2010 in the form of "Green Workshop". The idea was taken from the methodology of the game "City of the Future", which is part of the "Creative Cities" project developed by the British Council and conducted in several cities throughout the world including Oslo, Glasgow, Canberra. The game proves that a creative approach, innovation, commitment and entrepreneurship of city residents can improve the attractiveness and functional offer of individual backyards, neighborhoods and entire cities.

The aim of the "Change your backyard" was to find ideas for the development and revival of the courtyards in the downtown area of Poznan within Jezyce district. The game was attended by representatives of different backgrounds: residents who have applied to participate in workshops, architects, urban planners, specialists in greenery, designers, representatives of various associations, NGO's and Poznan authorities.

The project was done in a form of two-day workshops and its last stage was to evaluate all developed concepts and to choose the best ones. Criteria to be considered included attractiveness, innovation, durability and performance. In addition to the greening of backyards, the result of the workshop was the creation of several murals that were attractive and in visual way revitalized selected areas. The project, funded by Poznan Municipality, was carried out by the Association No Women No Art, which invited chosen artists from the collective PartTimeHeroesCollective. All the murals were created in collaboration with residents, managers and owners of individual houses of the yard.

In 2015, the action of "Change your backyard" covered six areas in Poznan city center, aiming at the improvement of a space in cooperation with local communities. Design workshops which are always constituted as a first phase of the project, are needed to define problems, set goals and find the best solutions. During the meetings there were presented characteristic features of given locations so to identify the key needs and set priorities, create concepts in project groups and to discuss the action plan and next steps to be taken so as to implement the best ideas. This year's seventh edition of the "Change your backyard" project concerned courtyards in the center of Poznan. The motto of the campaign was "Design, perform, use". As a result of workshops conducted with experts and local residents there had been developed new concepts of land use within the chosen backyards. The prize for the winning group was the opportunity to initiate the implementation of a Project with a slight financial support from Poznan Municipality.

Conclusions

The cooperation of Poznan authorities with the scientific community is an interesting tool for participatory planning. The participation process realized with the support of didactic and scientific process (e.g. projects, workshops and meetings involving both experts, students and local community) contributes to an increase of the awareness of direct consumers and city space users like residents, investors, managers and designers in the field of urban development, especially concerning public space within a city centre. It is also a very important element of the renewal process integrating different methods of planning. This kind of partnership seems to be a desirable method to integrate the theoretical assumptions of urban planning with revitalization and city development practice.

Bibliography

Charrette. Kształcenie urbanistów w Polsce. Rola urbanisty w programowaniu procesów rewitalizacji, Poznań 2008

<http://charrette.org/>

<http://www.charretteinstitute.org/charrette.html>

Pazder D., Innovation and creativity in a design of high quality public space. Case study of Poznan, Poland, MCSER Publishing, Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, Vol.5, No.19, August 2014, Rome-Italy

Pazder D., Creative functions as a tool of city space revival - case study of spa city in Wielkopolska region, New Perspectives On Economics And Business Studies, EUSER – European Center for Science Education and Research, Rome, Italy, 2015

Pazder D., Creativity as a tool of a spatial activation of a city centre. Case study of polish city of Poznan, The International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Invention, Valley International Journals, Volume 3, issue 6, 2016

Pazder D., Kaźmierczak B., Participation in public space renewal. Case study of Poznan - large city in Poland, European Journal of Social Sciences Education and Research, vol. 6 nr 2, 2016

Psychological Reasons for "Voluntary Servitude"

Ferihan Polat, PhD

Pamukkale University, Turkey

Ozlem Ozdesim Subay, MA

Pamukkale University, Turkey

Abstract

Obedience to authority which is described as approval and submission to the decision and acts of governors by the governed is recognized as a virtual behavior for many society and religious system since the beginning of time. The first opposition of this recognition is belonged to French thinker La Boétie who claims that obedience is actually against the nature of free human being, in his book called as "The Politics of Obedience: Discourse on Voluntary Servitude" in 16th century. The thinker of 20th century Erich Fromm classified the fact of obedience as introvert and extrovert. The extrovert obedience is defined as individual gives up their own free will; s/he accepts someone else's will and decision's instead of his/her own decision. Despite all modern and enlightened acquisitions in the history, in 21st century, whether in totalitarian regimes or in democracy, as a political behavior of individual obedience occurs in the form of extrovert obedience and voluntary servitude which may lead negative results for human being and continuity of exploitation. The purpose of this study is to understand psychological factors causing voluntary servitude and to focus on unhealthy results of this kind of obedience. For this aim, this study explains the types of obedience as a political behavior and the term of voluntary servitude as one of the type of obedience, by taking into attention to psychological processes causing this behavior.

Keywords: Extrovert Obedience, Introvert Obedience, La Boétie, Voluntary Servitude, Erich Fromm

Introduction

Since the beginning of human being the fact of obedience is described as approval and submission to the decision and acts of governors by the governed, is also recognized as a great virtue. Obedience is basis of structure of social life since it is a requirement of all communal living and it is only the men dwelling in isolation that is not forced to respond, through defiance or submission to the commands of others for authoritarian systems (Milgram, 1963:371). The thinker of 20th century Erich Fromm classified the fact of obedience as introvert and extrovert. The extrovert obedience is defined as individual gives up their own free will; s/he accepts someone else's will and decision's instead of his/her own decision. The introvert obedience is explained as submission of individual to his/her own mind and beliefs, this obedience is just an approval to the acts of governors not a submission. The decisions and acts of individual are not shaped by others judgments and decisions, yet it is shaped by his/her own free will and judgments (Fromm, 2001: 10).

The term of "voluntary servitude" that is put forward by La Boétie in order to explain the power relations in the 16th century, examines how people obey. All thinkers supporting the popular sovereignty acknowledge that the duty of society is to obey political authority which is the representation of society. However, La Boétie claims that human nature is free and the only duty of society is to be free. La Boétie thinks that in every where there is power destroys freedom by explaining the term of politics as power relations (La Boétie, 1987: 63). For this reason, according to him, if there is an authority holding to power there is no freedom and there is no good authority. In this sense, La Boétie doesn't try to analyze which political system is better than the others in his theory and he doesn't consider a political system which gives people their freedom.

In political philosophy the political behavior recognized as extrovert obedience by Erich Fromm corresponds to behavior of voluntary servitude called by La Boétie. In 21st century, whether in totalitarian regimes or in democracy, as a political behavior of individual obedience occurs in the form of extrovert obedience called by Erich Fromm and voluntary servitude called by La Boétie. Despite all modern and enlightened acquisitions in the history, the term of voluntary servitude is causing

negative results for human being and provisions of continuity of exploitation, in order to explain this term there is a need of study field without social and economical explanations. At this point, individual as main component of all societal structure and relations and psychological processes shaping behavior of individual are another study field to understand and examine. In addition to this, in order to clarify the origins of obedient behavior, it is essential to mention about Arno Gruen's self-alienation processes.

1. Types of Obedience: Introvert Obedience- Extrovert Obedience

Since the beginning of human being, manipulating of majority by minority causes acknowledgement of disobedience is a sinful behavior and obedience is a great virtue. The reason of this acknowledgement is that good things in life are only enough for minority and the rest of the good things in life belong to majority. If minority intends to have the majority to work and to serve for them, then the only condition for that is to teach majority to be obedient (Fromm, 2001:13-14)

People feel secure and safe in terms of being obedient to the power of state, church and public opinion. His obedience makes him feel to be part of that great power and with this feeling, he becomes stronger and more secure. He doesn't make any mistakes in his life whether he let this great power decide and lead his life instead of himself. His obedience prevents himself to feel lonely and to commit crimes (Fromm, 2001: 12-13).

To be disobedient, people should encourage being lonely, making mistakes and committing a crime. However, the capacity of this courage defines by the level of human development. The courage of resisting a power is only possible with a human released from his mother's close attention and father's authority completed his psychological development entirely and has ability to think and understand by himself. Therefore, in order to have courage to be disobedient, the prior condition is freedom. The reason of separation from disobedience and freedom is not possible, there is no social, political and religious system supporting freedom at the same time against the disobedience (Fromm, 2001: 13).

Obedience meaning to serve for minority by majority, according to Fromm, can be formed only by pure pressure. However, the anxiety that majority may overcome minority by force due to out of number can make the idea of making majority to be obedient by pure pressure so dangerous. For this reason, the source of obedience has changed as making people believe that being obedient is natural and useful for them instead of forcing them by using pressure (Fromm, 2001: 13).

In order to explain what obedience means, another concept should be mentioned which is conscience. There are two types of conscience; the first one is authoritarian conscience which is a phenomenon makes people volunteer for satisfying to other people and are afraid of not being able to satisfy, this situation is also called by Freud as superego. The term of superego is including interior orders and restrictions given by father that are accepted by a child with fear. Second type of conscience which is different from authoritarian one is humanitarian conscience that is free from exterior rewards and approvals. Humanitarian conscience is heuristical information that ensures to find out what is the reason or destruction of life which is at the same time for humanity or inhumanity (Fromm, 2001:13).

Exterior obedience consists of submission to a human, an institution and a power by renouncing his/her autonomy and accepting judgments and will of any other greater power instead of his/her will and judgments. On the other hand, interior obedience means being obedient to his/her ideas and beliefs which is not a submission but an approval. Therefore, in exterior obedience the acts of human are part of his ideas and judgments by following his own will (Fromm, 2001:12). Authoritarian conscience is by internalized submission to another power although people believe in acting accordingly their own will and judgments; but in reality people accept rules and judgments of another power. Submission to authoritarian conscience has tendency to weakening the humanitarian conscience that has ability to judge itself by analyzing exterior powers and thoughts.

2. Voluntary Servitude as a Political Behavior

Voluntary servitude is not only submission to some power but also to like this behavior with deep sense. According to La Boétie, this political behavior, in general, domination of governors and submission of governed is a terrible vice, which makes politics just a serving of governed slavishly with deep emotions for ruled class. La Boétie claims that liberty is natural condition for human being and intention to submission is not natural-born; therefore, this change in human's situation is a bad destiny which happened subsequently (La Boétie, 1975: 51). La Boétie, in his book titled as "The Politics of Obedience: Discourse on Voluntary Servitude", presents the mechanisms and reasons of voluntary servitude by taking attention to the

acts of political authority in order to settle down this servitude. Accordingly, the important role in order to settle down this servitude is acted by political authority by transforming his power into prescribe power; therefore, the first reason for voluntary servitude is ideologically conditioning and second one is disempowerment of society (Ağaoğulları & Köker, 2008: 290-294).

The first reason for voluntary servitude, according to La Boétie, has great impact of cultural and ideological structures on human being, by adopting people into established system which makes people believe that there are no other lifestyles. Although people think that being servitude is their free choice, in reality this belief is created by education, custom and habits in human nature made by political authority. In addition to this, second lifestyle is created by political authority is stronger than first human nature; therefore ones liberty diminishes the possibility to obtain it again also decreases. On the other hand, political authority doesn't just confine with pressure, but it develops new relations in order to convict the established order with adding a new method, consulting ideological discourse to change the relations into order and approval by gaining its legitimacy (Ağaoğulları & Köker, 2008: 294-297).

The political authority that has already created by voluntary servitude is properly obtained the features of being hegemony. The meaning of hegemony for ruling class is not only perception of submission of governed as a duty but also to like being servitude and desire to maintain it. This ideological environment made by political authority is supported by certain policies and practices. Ideology becomes in action dimension by overcoming discursive level and these practices aiming weakening the people cause the second reason for voluntary servitude that is cowardice and disempowerment of people lost their liberty. The methods causing disempowerment of people are making people addicted to pleasure and entertainment, directed to people dealing with casual problems, providing people to certain financial benefits with paternalist and populist perspective, the restrictions of enlightened and wise men who can create awareness about themselves by understanding evilness of tyranny and lastly using religion as an instrument for politics (Ağaoğulları ve Köker, 2008: 297-300; La Boétie, 1975: 73-74). With these methods people are bounded to political authority, becomes also hegemony, with both in physical and emotional dimensions resulting in structuring of servitude relations voluntarily with authority.

According to La Boétie, the key point causing and providing to maintain voluntary servitude is the network in society created by government which is a mechanism enables people make identification with tyranny by the idea of domination of someone else in every hierarchical level. In this way, people indicate to support powerful tyrant in order to become small tyrant of someone else which causes changing the political structure with tyranny. As a result, transformation of every single person into small tyrants as internalization of the political system leads to reproducing power relations in political system in a permanent way. It is not plausible that people can destroy this mechanism and be liberated from established political order becoming vicious circle. People don't involve in an act that liberates them from their chains because they believe in established hegemony and servitude in whole hearted (Ağaoğulları & Köker, 2008: 304- 306).

In short, exterior obedience called by Erich Fromm giving up autonomy of people and instead of his will and judgments accepting authoritarian conscience leading his beliefs and behaviors, produces a political act voluntary servitude called by La Boétie. Voluntary servitude that is a phenomenon created by ideological conditioning and administrative methods by political authority is internalized with some psychological processes that Arno Gruen mentions about.

2.1. The Psychological Reasons Causing Voluntary Servitude

The roots of obedience should be explained by psychological processes formed the stranger in the individual. In identity development process, if individual forces to give up his thoughts and perceptions, internalization with an authority becomes an inevitable requirement. Suppression of feelings belongs to individual creates hatred and aggression; however these hatred and aggression can't direct to the source of these feelings and find another victims to lead the hatred and aggression. The typical side of this development is the denial of victimization of himself since his pain and desperation is the source of his weakness; in this way, his victimization also becomes fundamental point of his committing crimes (Gruen, 2007: 46-47).

The identity developing in an authoritarian political system is shaped in accordance with the will of authority instead of his interior process, which creates a political culture determining political and private relations by obedience (Gruen, 2010: 85). The formation process of this culture has a direct interaction with alienation process since the source of the violence become people a stranger for himself/herself and obedient are the same. The level of violence experienced by individual determines

the level of commitment to authority (Gruen, 2007:41). The elements of estrangement process transformed the individual as exterior obedient in social life and as voluntary servitude in political life are parents love, loss of self-esteem and ambition.

2.1.1. The Psychic Roots of Obedience: Parents Love

Love of mother has special features as being unconditional and passive, so most of the children are happy for being loved by their mother. The unconditional love is not only a need for a child but also a need for growing ups, unfortunately it is hard to resolve this need for them. Due to the fact that the reason for love of mother is not because child fulfills specific conditions, mother loves her child unconditionally for being her baby. Love of mother can't be deserved, produced and controlled at the same time, which is a feature of love of mother may lead some side effects for a child. Since love of mother is a blessing, if a child losses this unconditional love, in order to reproduce it there is nothing to be done (Fromm, 1956: 49-51).

On the other hand, the relationship with father is different than the mother; as mother represents the home, nature, soil and ocean. Father represents nothing in this natural home but also he is the other side of the human nature as a symbol of thoughts, rules and orders, discipline and sightseeing and adventures. Father as a teacher and guidance for the life of child has conditional love for his child. There are side effects of this conditional father love, like unconditional mother love. If child doesn't perform the expectations of father, child can face the danger of losing his farther love. The nature of love of father consists of being obedient as a great virtue, unfortunately disobedience is named as terrible sin with the punishment of deprived from love of father (Fromm, 1956: 49-52).

In the history of political thoughts, state has been associated with father with the idiom of paternal state having authoritarian, ordering and prescriptive features. With the aim of obtaining conditional love of father, submission to father's rule and fulfilling the duties of citizens to the state and submission to rules of state have formed significantly by the same impulse. The love for homeland described as home is represented by unconditional love of mother because this kind of love can be gained by born in a country in an unconditional way.

The function of mother is to be secured the child in life as the function of father is becoming a teacher of the child by being taught him how to deal with societal problems. Mother love should be reassuring, not be aggressive and not lead to disturbance; at the same time father love should be formed by rules and expectations with forgiving and being patient not an authoritarian and scary way. He should make the child feel satisfactory enough by allowing him, at the end of his development, by obtaining his autonomy with releasing from father's effect (Fromm, 1956: 51).

The mature person has become free from the outside mother and father, and has built them up inside. Individual has built a motherly conscience on his own capacity for love, and a fatherly conscience on his reason and judgment. If the person only retains his fatherly conscience, he would become harsh and inhuman. If, only his/her motherly conscience is developed; s/he would lose his/her judgment and prevent development of himself and others. The basis for mental health and the achievement of maturity lies in the eventual synthesis of this development from mother-centered to father-centered attachment. The failure of this development causes the basis for neurosis (Fromm, 1956: 51-52).

One of the reasons for neurotic development lies in the case that a boy has a loving, but overindulgent and domineering mother, and a weak and uninterested father. In this case, he may be stuck to mother attachment and develop a personality who is dependent on mother, has the characteristic of the receptive person, such as, to receive, to be protected, to be taken care of permanently with the inadequacy of fatherly qualities, such as discipline, independence and ability to master life by himself. He tries to find mother love for himself in every relationship he attached on. On the contrary, when the mother is cold, unresponsive and domineering, the boy may either direct his need for motherly protection to his father or subsequent father figures, or he may develop one-sided father-oriented personality who is completely loyal to the principles of law, authority and order, and with the lack of the ability to expect or to receive unconditional love. If the father is authoritarian and at the same time strongly attached to his son, these features are further strengthened (Fromm, 1956: 52).

2.1.2. Loss of Self-Esteem

As a result of the relationship established with mother and father in childhood, the person starts to realize his own boundaries. When the child tries indulging his parent's requests instead of doing what he wants to attain love or avoid punishment, the child's voluntary compliance with authority is provided. Parents' desire to provide obedience through

punishment and reward indicates them as judges which generates that happiness of the child is depended on the decisions of judges in his/her life whose number increases regularly over time (Duhm, 1996: 25).

If parents define child's feelings as weak and worthless, child learns to be ashamed of his own features; thus parents make the child feel guilty for something which they regard as threat to themselves and the result of this behavior is a deep rooted loss of self-esteem. The blank space appearing in self-esteem constitutes the motivation for obedience by abandoning himself/herself to parents' instruction (Gruen, 2007: 46). The process of gaining parents' obedience through despises and punishment, is not considered as terror by a child, since people still believe that they are autonomous and free, and the authenticity of their feelings. However as a result of the mentioned identity process, it is not plausible for many people to hold these characteristic features (Gruen, 2007: 50-51).

Obedience has deep rooted in the process that leads the person to self-alienation and makes impossible to see his parents for what they really are. This problem does not appear only in relationship with parents. Nowadays, while expectations towards rational and realistic are high, actually everyday denials became a normal part of the culture. Facing the truth is avoided. People who live within this culture successfully through general denial are defined as normal (Gruen, 2007: 54).

2.1.3. Ambition

Two research projects oriented to developing autonomy indicate that the basis of being human or alienation process is settled down in earlier ages. According to two separate research projects Helen Bluvo and Ann Roskam conducted in 1972, two groups of students are investigated. One of the groups is consisted of successful students and the other includes the students who have adequate success yet do not care about being successful. The first group requires a considerable amount of approval and is seized with fear whenever they are departed from well accepted behavior patterns. They can't perceive their parents as autonomous and separate people from themselves, and they idolize not only their parents but also any other authority figures such as their teachers. On the other hand, students in the group that have weaker success-orientation are able to define their parents as real people without having tendency the idealization of any authority figures. What is more interesting is the students, who are success oriented and idolize their parents, have a strong tendency to keep the others under their control which is the only way for them to feel autonomous. This situation demonstrates the outcomes of alienation and obedience as it is recognized that the students, who are most captivated by parents' authoritative expectations and a system through aiming success and accommodating general positive behaviors, can only feel autonomous and free as long as they oppress the others and punish the stranger (Gruen, 2007: 55-56).

This situation brings about two problems reversing personnel development process; the first one appears as a result of the ambition in the alienation process in success oriented personalities. Nevertheless, ambition may let the person to widen his opportunities; however if the person aims to approval for obedient behaviors, this causes a personality shaped as a product of alienation. The second one is that under such circumstances, autonomy turns into a degeneration and causes corruption of feelings. Dominating and trying to suppress another person bring feeling of freedom by freeing person from the burden arising from his own victimhood, which is triggered by obedience as well (Gruen, 2007: 56).

Obedience causes loss of an identity that belongs oneself. This situation appears through that people believe that they are autonomous as they are able to power and use violence without being affected by others' sensitivity and pain. Parents' expectations of success from their child are met by the child through responding these ambitious expectations to satisfy his parents, which is also the discharge of his own aggression instinct. Power and violence are separated from their real targets, which are dominating and controlling others, by being referred to higher ideals such as community, science, progress or growth, through ideological abstractions. While legitimizing, valuing and supporting ambition, our culture hides the destructiveness of this instinct implicitly (Gruen, 2007: 73).

Ambition is the best hidden extension of obedience, as the ambitious person who is also obedient to authority to pursue his/her own goals, also believes that he is actually autonomous, and the reason of his/her obedience is just to attain his/her goals. Ambition involves aggressiveness as an inevitable outcome of the pressure of obedience and does not oblige person to face these destructive feelings; therefore, ambition becomes the folding screen of inhumanity. Being ambitious necessitates the person's detachment from his pain and concerns. This detachment is a part of the process in which the person alienates what belongs to himself and conveys it other victims. Hate is not felt as hate anymore; the target orientation of their obedience, which is interpreted as ambition, leads denial of the hate (Gruen, 2007: 182-183). The degree of the obedient behavior is determined by the environment rather than someone's personality. The experiment of Milgram

indicates the reality is the impossibility of isolating the personality structure, which American democratic society produces, from cruelty and malevolent authority (Milgram, 2006: 105,107). This situation proves the reality of how prevalent is the destruction of the society caused by submission, once again.

Conclusion

Extrovert obedience, which Erich Fromm defines as individual's act of giving his/her autonomy up, and accepting a stranger's judgement and will instead of his own, causes obedience in form of compliance, which La Boétie conceptualizes as "voluntary servitude". According to La Boétie, "voluntary servitude" as the outcome of a change in the human nature that political power has caused, is created by political power through techniques such as ideological conditioning and disempowerment of society.

According to Arno Gruen, who stresses obedience in form of compliance that Erich Fromm recognizes as extrovert obedience and La Boétie names as voluntary servitude, develops through the processes in person's psychic development, advocates that need for obtaining parents' approval is the major factor for formation of obedience. In the psychic development of the person, the conditional love developing subject to obtaining parents' approval compels him/her to give up what belongs to him, hence causing the loss of self-esteem. The person becomes free from the pain, which is caused by the loss of self-esteem, by means of ambition. Ambition hides existing aggressiveness driven by successfulness, tries to replace the pain caused by the loss of self-esteem with providing other people's loss of self-esteem. This process, which leads to compliance to the great tyrant by making the others little tyrant, creates a phenomenon of voluntary servitude in which people adopt the established system, and at the same time alienate themselves.

La Boétie, who establishes another version of the inverse proportion that Erich Fromm defines for extrovert obligation and freedom for voluntary servitude and freedom, claims that once freedom disappears the possibility to recover it also disappears. While La Boétie states that only the person who develops free thinking ability may recognize and demand of freedom, Erich Fromm claims that people who listen their human conscience and exhibit introvert obedience are able to do so. On the other hand, Arno Gruen, referring the alienation process during one's psychic development as the basic reason of obedience, asserts that it is not that easy for people to have a demand of freedom. Therefore, the problematic relation between obedience and freedom opens the way to question the realities of political systems and regimes, which are claimed to be based on freedoms.

References:

- Ağaoğulları, M. A., & Köker, L. (2008). *Tanrı Devletinden Kral Devlete*, Ankara: İmge Kitabevi.
- Duhm, D.(1996). *Kapitalizmde Korku*. (S. Şölçün, Trans.). Ankara: Ayraç Yayınevi.
- Fromm, E. (2001). *İtaatsizlik Üzerine*. (A. Sayın, Trans.).İstanbul: Kariyer Yayınları.
- Fromm, E. (1956). *The Art of Loving*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Gruen, A. (2007). *İçimizdeki Yabancı*. (İ. İgan, Trans.). İstanbul: Çitlembik Yayınları.
- Gruen, A. (2010). *Demokrasi Mücadelesi*. (İ. İgan, Trans.). İstanbul: Çitlembik Yayınları.
- La Boétie, É. (1975). *The Politics of Obedience: The Discourse of Voluntary Servitude*. (H. Kurz, Trans.). Montreal: Black Rose Books.
- Milgram, S. (1963). Behavioral Study of Obedience. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67 (4), 371- 378.
- Milgram, S. (2006). "Yetkeye Boyun Eğme ve Karşı Gelmenin Bazı Koşulları". *Otoriteryan Kişilik ve Uyma* (pp, 83-108). İstanbul: Salyangoz Yayınları.
- Sanford, N., Stanley, M., Muzaffer, Ş. & Solomon, A. (2006). *Otoriteryan Kişilik ve Uyma*, İstanbul: Salyangoz Yayınları.

Returning and Re-Emigrating Gendered Trajectories of (Re) Integration from Greece

Armela Xhaho

PhD Research Fellow, University of New York Tirana

Erka Çaro

Lecturer & Researcher, University of Jyväskylä, Finland

Abstract

The aim of this research paper is three fold: (1) to shed some light on the struggles Albanian return migrants are facing in their psycho-social, cultural and labor market reintegration in the origin country, looking as well to the gendered trajectories of return and re-emigration(2) to highlight their gendered strategies in transferring back in their home country their financial, social and human capital;(3) to better understand the dynamic paths of their migration trajectories and finally (4) to push policy makers to put with high priority the returnees reintegration plan into the policy agenda. We base our analyze on 42 life stories of Albanian migrants, from which, 12 interviews with return migrants from Greece, 30 migrants that are actually in Greece (from which 50% have at least made an 1 attempt to return in Albania and 5 are circular migrants). The study found that: many Albanian migrants return to Albania to stay either temporary or permanently with the idea of investing in home country, though not all of them who return stay in Albania. Returnees and at a greater degree women, face lot struggles and difficulties in their psycho-social, cultural and economic reintegration upon their return, which make them mentally and psychologically vulnerable. Women experienced a sense of disempowerment, reconfiguration and re-traditionalisation of gender relationships upon their return. Labor market integration seem more problematic especially for returned women who faced a gendered gap in labor force participation¹. Moreover, despite migrant willingness to invest their financial and social remittances in Albania by bringing new ideas in the labor market trend, they experience a sense of disillusion. Therefore, having no support system back home, remaining jobless and in many cases failing in their investment endeavors, make returnees consider further re-emigration as a surviving strategy. This study suggest that it is time for policy makers to compile with high priority and with a gender lens analysis a new National Migration Strategy and Return Reintegration strategy, while developing concrete and coherent measures upon returnees successful reintegration in the home country. This policy research brings at the policy agenda an holistic and multidisciplinary approach to returnee reintegration through better multi- level/stakeholder collaboration and dialogue.

Key words: *return migrants, reintegration policies, gender, human, social and economic capital*

Introduction

Contextualizing Albanian migration

Albania is considered a country of massive emigration and by the end of last decade it was estimated that one million people or one quarter of the country's total population emigrated abroad mainly (Çaro at al. 2012) representing the largest outflow rate in relative to its population size(Castaldo et al,2005). Albanian migration was primarily constructed as a "male project" or a "male -led phenomenon", with men being the first to migrate and women coming latter as followers, unproductive and isolated dependents through family reunification(Zlotnik, 2003;Morokvasic, 1983), assuming in this way a "gender –blindness" in the pattern of migration (King and Zontini, 2000). The majority of Albanians migrated mostly in Greece (600,000) and Italy (250,000) (reference).Albanian migration is considered a unique case study for the fact that it

¹ Gender gap refers to different opportunities and salary differences in labor market for men and women.

has experienced quite a massive migration concentration within a short period of time. King sees Albanian as a 'laboratory for the study of migration and development' (King, 2005), while Carletto et al. use the term 'country on the move' (Vullnetari, 2012). Contemporary Albanian migration is divided into three stages: The first stage correspond to 1990-1993, which correspond with the massive exodus of Albanian after the collapse of communist regime. Such wave of migration was triggered mainly due to loss of jobs, unemployment, poverty and isolation of communist regime. The second episode has been the period of 97, triggered by the collapse of pyramid schemes in Albania. The third episode was triggered by the Kosovo's crises of 1999-2000(Vullnetari, 2012). Though not yet labeled as a fourth wave of migration, the recent figures of Albanian migrants seeking asylum in the EU Member States in 2015 is estimated to be around 65 935 , the fifth after Syrians, Afghanistan, Iraqi and Albanian from Kosovo (Eurostat, 2015). During May 2015, Albanian was the main country of origin among asylum applications in Germany with 4,743 first-time requests(Eurostat, 2015) .

The Greek economic downturn coming as a result of economic crises affected Albanian migrants, who by 2013 were assumed to be 47 per cent (INSTAT 2014 p.9; Caro, 2016). However, the burden of the crisis has clearly produced different impacts on Albanian migrants and especially in relation to men and women's lives. Unemployment's rates for migrant men remained much higher than that of migrant women's and that because Albanian men were employed mostly in the construction sector, heavily influenced by the crises, whereas Albanian women were employed mostly in domestic sector, which was affected less from the crises. Left without a job in the host country, men were amongst the first to consider return migration in the origin country. At least in our study the major decision for returning in the migrant couples was that husband lost the job in the host country and the wife followed them again upon their return in the origin country. Albanian 2011 Census data revealed that a substantial number of Albanians residing in Greece, around 139.827 migrant workers have been returned to Albania in the time period 2001-2011 and the majority were males. Amongst the most prominent reason for returning was lack of employment in the destination country. The surprising facts is that in the time period 2009-2013, a total of 133.544 Albanian migrants of the age group 18 years old and above have returned to Albania, of whom 73.7 per cent were males and 26.3 per cent respectively were females (INSTAT 2014, p.9). Albania Strategy on Return Migrants and Reintegration, which has recently expired in December 2015, draws attention to the potential of return migrants and emphasize the involvement of various institutions in the reintegration process of return migrants.

The focus of our analysis are Albanian migrants who have been return as a result of the crises, those who have re-emigrated again in Greece and the ones who are making attempts to further migrate in other countries. We base our analyze on 42 life stories of Albanian migrants, from which, 12 interviews with return migrants from Greece, 30 migrants that are actually in Greece (from which 50% have at least made an 1 attempt to return in Albania and 5 are circular migrants). Duration of the interviews varied from 35 minutes to four hours after which they were transcript and analysed through MAXQDA- data analysis program. The interviews were transcribed preserving the original language, further the transcriptions were analysed using the qualitative data software MAXQDA.

Findings

1. Sense of power and bravery

Migration and return migration patterns are highly gendered and remarkably diverse for women and men. While in one hand, migration served as an empowerment story for many Albanian migrant women, in terms of changing oppressive gender relations and power dynamics within the household, more liberal gender division of labor within home, providing new opportunities, emancipation, more autonomy and social mobility through economic independence, on the other hand, Albanian men experienced a challenge to their traditional role and a threat to the masculinities performed back home were men are still men. It implies a fear of manliness men, which are now becoming voiceless and powerless as their women are gaining access to waged employment, which on the other hand implies they are gaining independence and becoming more powerful (Dushi,2015; Xhaho and Caro, forthcoming). On the other hand, research on return migration has pinpoint the fact that while migrant women experience an empowerment in their gender roles with men being threatened upon migration in the host country, the return migration change again the situation in favor of men who experience a re-gained sense of control, while women losing it. These are the experiences of two women who have been returned from Greece, following their husband(Khalid,2011). In this rhetoric, one of the interviewee said : *"I had the idea I was more brave in Greece rather than in Albania. I could move upward there but not here"* (Dafina, 42, returnee, entrepreneur).. Another returned migrant admitted: *"If you are still a housewife, you don't have any opportunity to display your gained knowledge*

from Greece. I don't know how I could afford staying closed home like that. I am very pessimist" (Anda, 33, Housewife, return migrant).

Our study found that at least 5 out of 6¹ women have been returned in order to follow their husbands who lost the job due to the crises. In the light of such situation, we found that the decision to return was not completely women's independent choice. They were constrained to follow their husband for the sake of not separating the family, showing again for the 2nd time² their role as passive followers. However, not all our migrant women decided to follow their husband upon return. The story of Meri, 30, who works as an esthetic in Greece, shows her decision to stay in Greece, while her jobless husband moved in Albania with his family.

"I wanted something more. I wanted to be independent from the first moment I came in Greece. There is nothing else better than being independent. The Greek men treat their wives differently, with respect. For the majority of Greek husbands, the wife is not the servant as it is in Albania. At least, in the country where I was raised, the wife was the servant for the majority. The wife was supposed to be exploited. ...Only when women stand by its own, she is the master of herself. She has always been in subordinate position compared to male. She has neither values, nor she feels accomplished...she can not move forward. I. woman should stand on her own feet. It is only than she feels free. I want to move forward, to live alone, not be deepened by anyone, which means to achieve everything by myself, starting from zero. I feel I have better opportunities [here] to do a better life...I don't turn my head back any more. I have my new friendship here and in Albania I don't know anyone. I have my job here and I can't do anything in Albania"

Her life story shows how migration changed her attitudes, making more aware about her rights and gender role expectations of women and men and the same time compare it to the Greek norms. It shows again her strength, empowerment and a sense of "enlighten", in terms of independence and gender equity.

2.Psycho-social & cultural re-integration

Many migrants feel they are abandoned by the "old" friends and sometimes they feel alienated even by their cousins. A circular migrant said " I faced difficulties understanding Albania language in school. I tried to adapt to Albanian friends so they helped me a lot" (Jonida,22, circular student). There is a need for them to be socially reintegrated in the new life. In fact, many other return migrants have experienced the feelings of outsider twice: once when they were in Greece and again when they returned in Albania. Migrants thoughts and fears on return migration are interchanged with many factors that affects their ambiguity on whether they should return or should re-emigrate. Another migrant in Greece said "If I return in Albania after 20 years in Greece I am emigrant in my home country. You don't know anyone, all your friendship that you had.. you are like an owl" (Naim, 50, decorator in Greec). The return decision has been for some migrants a very difficult and painful transitory process. Inability to adapt to such major changes can lead sometimes to nervous breakdown, as Liljana , one of our interviews admits. Women experiencing more emotional problems or at least emphasizing such psychological problems more often than their husbands.

You should know the situation, the people as it is quite difficult to be integrated. Here I feel being a migrant in my country. Though now many things have been changed...people have not changed.. they seems even worse. It jus their outer facade that have been changed. I couldn't manage to overcome my nervous breakdown without medications. The return is terrible. If you decide to go, just go and never return(Bela,38,returnee, entrepreneur of a hairdresser salon)

Cultural reintegration is seen as the process of reintegration of the returnee to the values, way of living, language, moral principles, and traditions of the country of origin's society. Many migrants have left Albania in 90s and now after return they experience enormous challenges in adapting to the new post-communist transformations. They find themselves struggling in inventing new surviving strategies such as relying in their family networks.

¹ The 6th women was single and in pension

² The first time relate to women's migration in Greece in order to reunite with their husbands, who came before, mainly through illegal ways.

3. Labor Market Reintegration Dilemmas of Returnees

The study found that for many return migrants or the ones who want to return the most concerning issue have to do with their labor market integration. From the interviews of our migrants we understood that at least none of them have profited and received any direct support from the Migration services centers. The major needs concerning them were in regard to job placement support and no future perspective in Albania. Their major concerns were : What kind of job they will do? How to utilize the gained skills? Do the gained skills match with the labor market demands? (Elezi,2015).

When you first migrate to Greece, you have big ambitious, I will move up and find something better , a job and a wage but while you return, considering what you left in Greece you are not sure any more. It was very difficult I have to find a job here .. may be open a business(Bela,38, returnee entrepreneur)

My perspective is to definitely return but we need to integrate here.. I am integrated but I am as a parasite here. I feel people need to be integrated with a job they can do better , and not finding something that you don't know how to do(Pandeli, 59,circular migrant, cheese processor in Greece)

Though, for some return migrants opening a business is seen as a process of reintegration, for others that's not the case as they are challenged by incompatible labor market trends and regimes. In terms of gender differences women are as well more predisposed to be affected by incompatible gender norms in the labor market. For example Anisa , a 37 years old women who worked with her husband in a bar in Greece, found it almost impossible to work again with her husband in a bar they both decided to open in Albania, upon their return. Though, the gender norms made it quite acceptable for women to work in bars in Greece, this was not the case of Albanian patriarchal mentality, were women are supposed to work in domains which are compatible with traditional gender role expectation (Caro at al., forthcoming; Xhaho, 2013; Caro at al 2012)).Left without an employment choice she decided to separate from her husband and her daughter for working again in Greece.

4.Entrepreneurship and investment pathways

Our study found that many Albanian migrants return in Albania to stay permanently with the idea of investing in home country. Both, women and men were most likely to see the perspective of entrepreneurship as the most common solution of economic reintegration. At least around 8 out of 11 returned migrant tried to open a small business. Moreover, around 15 out of 32 migrants in Greece tried to open a business in Albania. The study shows that many return migrants want to invest in Albania, either through financial capital but even their human capital such as skills and knowledge they have taken in the host countries marketplace. Studies have shown that the likelihood of being involved in one's own business is highest among migrants who return considering the emotional/social ties with the home country. Return migrants are considered more skillful and knowledge in terms of modern technology and work ethic, making them a real asset for investment in their home country. The same time the networks that such migrants have created abroad and their capacities to hold relationships across cultures and borders make the full in terms of social capital (Fetahu 2015; Kopliku 2015; Chaloff, 2008) and increase the chances of setting up transnational economic partnerships. Since 2005 almost 2/3 of small business owners in Albania have a migration history and 70% considered their foreign experience as useful for their business (IMF, 2006). Strategies to navigate in the labor market are: gained skills, economic capital, family networks, prior business plan, adapting Greek culture, market studying (Caro, 2016).

However, they experience lots of difficulties when trying to invest their financial capital in their home country. Some of them claim that they have money, but they do not have idea were to invest. Many of them have been living and working abroad for many years, which make their labor market integration a difficult process. Despite the home country ties and their emotional connection to Albania, with what we call "patriotic tourism", they are faced with many integration dilemmas and ambiguity of everyday life and work issues. Considering that the first wave of Albanian, returnees come with the idea to invest and bring some host -country-style in their business but, soon they realize that their master plan have failed, either because they had no previous information on possible investment sectors, step by step orientation or any other kind of support, facility and service tailored particularly to migrant investment in the home country. However, though they bring back elements of host country labor market they do not have any experience and training in investments and business plan management, beside the many problems they experience with institutional and administrative issues for setting their business. The cases below illustrate the ambiguity of migrants were to invest, regardless their eagerness to come back and invest : "We were discussing of opening or own business here, but we need money. Because all my savings were

expended for bricks and mortar" (Alda, return migrants and entrepreneur of a bakery shop in Tirana and grill house shop in Himara). Marjola (54, domestic worker) returned from Greece with her partner, with an idea to open a business. Even though they constructed the building and brought all the modern swing machines from Greece and new model ideas (financial & human capital), they were obligated to close it shortly because they could not afford it due to high taxes. Naim, is one of the migrants in Greece who as many other migrants have failed in his attempt to continue the business he opened years ago in Albania. Unfortunately, due to problems he faced with the management of his retail shop, he decided to re-emigrate again in Greece.

Re-emigration

Though the role of returnees in the development of the country is widely confirmed, their potential gains are not so far utilized in the right way, nor are they provided with adequate reintegration programs. Studies on return migration have shown that there is a high percentage of return migrants who have intentions to re-emigrate again either because they have failed to meet their financial goals or (ETF, 2007) or because they are not satisfied with the services offered (INSTAT, 2014).

The same time studies have been shown than return migrants from Albania are more likely than non-migrants to be self-employed, that is a strong indicator for them to invest in a new enterprise (Naude, Siegel & March, 2015). The vast majority of return migrants have the tendency and would like to spend their remittances by business investment, though there is not any concrete study to measure the significance and success rate of business in which return migrants have invested their savings (ETF, 2007). However, the likelihood to start up an enterprise depends and can be enhanced by state policies. The recent figures, provided by the last Albanian CENSUS reveal the fact that the investment rate of returnees in Albania was only 8 per cent, focusing primarily in the retail trade, hotels and restaurant industry and agriculture. The main reason for not investing for around of 81.2 % of returnees from Greece according to the survey conducted by INSTAT was lack of insufficient capital to start up a business. The fact that returnees relied mostly in their savings almost (99 per cent), and just few of them around 15 per cent on bank loans (INSTAT 2014, p.10), might be an indicator for the necessity of economic reintegration of returnees and special financial incentive packages, for the ones willing to invest. Further on, given the fact that almost 61.5%, from the ones who have invested had encountered problems in their business management, in forms of unfair competition, insufficient capital, administrative constrains and managerial challenges (p.46) highlights again the importance of measures that need to be taken to overcome such obstacles.

For some of migrants return in Albania has been a temporary project as they re-emigrate in the host society again within few months. Studies on return migration have shown that there is a high percentage of return migrants who have intentions to re-emigrate again either because they have failed to meet their financial goals or (ETF, 2007) or because they are not satisfied with the services offered (INSTAT, 2014). After accumulating enough financial and human capital, Eglja, (54) and her partner who has worked for several years as a wood specialist in Greece, decided to return in Albania and invest their savings in a wood processing factory. They constructed the building and bought all the materials but they failed to manage their business because of the uncomfortable business environment. They have to pay lot of taxes which they could not afford as a new business. So, they left everything and decided to re-emigrate again in Greece. Her cousin as well returned from Greece in the origin city, Divjaka, and invested all the money in building a marble factory, which resulted a total failure. He was then obligated to move again to Greece with his family, but now without any money left in pocket (Eglja, 54 re-migrant in Greece)

Therefore, not all of them succeed in their endeavor, considering the varieties of challenges they have to face in opening and managing their business. Faced with such constrains and the same failing in their psychological, social and economical reintegration strategies, some of them decide to migrate in another country in order to escape such situation.

Lack of state policies on return migrants

The Ministry of Labour coordinates and implements the National Migration Strategy in Albania and Migration Action plan and Reintegration Strategy for Returning Albanian Citizens (2010-2015) and its Action Plan with other line ministries and dependent institutions which have their responsibilities. The emerging problem is that both strategies have already expired and there is no any other announced strategy yet. The monitoring *results of the National Action Plan implementation on the Migration, and of the National Strategy on the Migration*, from European Institute of Tirana (2007), emphasize the fact that the strategy needs continues monitoring, as it is not a static document, but rather a dynamic one. Though, there was

an explicit link between the development and migration policies, the strategy lack better coordination, institutional capacity and financial resources for implementation (EIT, 2007). Implementation of the NSM was hindered by ongoing institutional uncertainty regarding the coordination and fragility of commitments of various institutions involved in the implementation. The striking fact coming from monitoring result is that out of 15 Ministries and state institutions involved in the strategy implementation and in the action plan, 8 of them were not aware for the existence of such strategic documents, 64% of activities and 53% of planned measures in the strategy were not implemented. Moreover, as concerns to return migrants several measures in the strategy were partly or not implemented at all. For example, measure 8. Broaden the reintegration services, in order to guarantee permanent return. Activity 1. "Drafting and implementation of joint employment programmes with small businesses" was not implemented and 2. "Provision of career guidance, job placement and vocational training" was partially implemented. Moreover, in collaboration with the IOM, the Albania launched the Voluntary Assisted Return and Reintegration (VARRP) to encourage return of asylum seekers. The program offered a variety of services such as advice and information and assistance with travel expenses, schooling fees, job placement and training (IOM website). However, as it will be shown a considerable number of returnees have not profit from such services and the majority of them do not have the idea that such services even exist.

Invisibility of Migration Counters

Though the core element in the Reintegration Strategy for Returning Albanian Citizens (2010-2015) and its Action Plan, were the Migration Counters, located at 36 regional and local employment offices throughout, which offered public services, such as health, education employment. Data from the last study by INSTAT reveal the fact that few returnees were aware that such centers exists (INSTAT 2013, P.19). given that only 26.5 % of the interviewees have contacted such centers to receive support (p.52). Our study found that none of the returnees have had the chance to profit from such services. Moreover, such centers were almost invisible in the rural areas. The problem with returnees who return in their villages is that they can not claim they are unemployed and profits from such service as they are considered as self-employed in agriculture in case they or their family owns a plot of land (INSTAT, 2014)

Conclusion

Although research on Albanian migration has a long been discussed by migration scholars (King and Vullnetari 2003; Carletto, Davis et al. 2006)few studies attempt to grasp in detail the return migration process and reintegration strategies of returnees, especially from a gender perspective. The contribution of this study was to look at the gendered trajectories or return, reintegration and remigration of Albanian returnees. We found that their migratory trajectories are quite diverse, gendered and dynamic, changing overtime depending on a set of structural and socio-economic factors in the host and origin country. Considering the fluidity of migrant pathways it is almost difficult to talk about permanent or temporary return. Migrant are continually moving back and forth, with a set of values, norms and ideas which are constantly shaped, transformed and challenged through their circulatory movements. The study found that returnees face difficulties in their psycho-social, cultural and economic reintegration upon their return. They experience a sense of alienation from the country of origin and find themselves "outsider "in both countries, which makes them, especially at a greater extend women mentally and psychologically vulnerable. Women experienced a sense of disempowerment, reassuming their traditional identity and gender role expectation, while at some degree felt less brave than in Greece. While experiencing a reconfiguration and re-traditionalisation of gender relationships, they were faced as well with incompatible labor market norms, which made them being excluded due to sexist workplace norms. Moreover, a great deal of literature already exists in the potential gain that returnees can bring for the development of their home countries and this not only in terms of sending remittances but through human, social and financial capital (Gibson and McKenzie, 2012). Similarly, both genders employed distinctive and similar coping mechanisms to deal with reintegration dilemmas. Though the majority of returnees came back with an idea of investing their financial capital in their country of origin and brining the same time their social and human capital, they are now facing lot of struggles. Having no support system back home, remaining jobless and in many cases failing in their investment endeavors, make returnees consider further re-emigration as a surviving strategy. This paper highlights the importance of government's officials in building an integrated policy framework that take in consideration with a gender lens analysis returnees' needs.

Policy Recommendations

Holistic gendered approach to reintegration of returnees

It should be developed a comprehensive multi-dimensional reintegration strategy encompassing social, psychological, economic and political reintegration strategies taking in consideration gender lens policies as women and men have different priorities and needs. Furthermore, language and cultural adaptation training should be taken into consideration by the Ministry of Education and Sports. Such services should be coherent and be advertised and made visible to returnees upon their arrival in their home country. Brochures holding information on reintegration plans should be advertised in corresponding embassies, airport info centre and halls, municipality and other institutional halls, different NGOs, health centers and other respective public and local institutions.

Enforce migratory centers

In terms of return migrants infrastructure, there is a need to establish information centers in the municipalities or to strengthen the capacity of Migration counters. The aim would be to disseminate information and guidance on the reintegration programs, work and business investment opportunities. Migration counters should be transformed and provided continuously with technical and financial resources, considering the Administrative Reforms .

Multi level/stakeholder collaboration and dialogue

International organizations, civil society and the government need to coordinate their efforts in order to create a multidisciplinary approach (Psychological, social, cultural, economical) to reintegrate migrants. It is not the role of the state to provide direct services for returnees, but it has the role to formulate politics that could promote and assist organizations working on return migrants and reintegration as well. Such organization might provide special assistance to returned women as well, who might be in a more vulnerable position.

Oriented business development plans- follow up

Making return migrants familiar with local regulations and legislations for starting a business, along with issues relating to local labour market and business practices. Specific trainings books in business managements plans should be provided by Job offices

Two way process in Vocational Educational Qualification

The National Employment Service should works towards capacity building programs, by offering and promoting Vocational training courses addressing the needs of migrants with different skill levels in local communities and the same time make use of returnee's human capital by placing experienced migrants as trainers for many of the VET courses that are provided to other interested persons.

Develop more effective cross-governmental, local and central coordination mechanisms

Increase institutional communication between the local and central level. It is important that services for returnees should not only be localized in the capital city but distributed accordingly to the distribution of migrants. Therefore, closer collaboration, intensified dialogue and flexibility should be considered between local and central power government

Bibliography

Çaro,E., Bailey,A.& van Wissen,L. (2012). 'Negotiating between patriarchy and emancipation: Rural to-urban migrant women in Albania.' *Gender, Place and Culture* 19(4), pp.472-493.

Caro, E.,Bailey, A.,Van Wissen, L.(forthcoming):"I am the God of the house': How Albanian rural men shift their performance of masculinities in the city?". *Journal of Balkan and Near Eastern*.

Caro,E. (2016)."I am an Emigrant in my Own Country": A Profile of Albanian Returnees from Greece. *Journal of Science and Higher Education Research*, 1(1), 9-25.

Castaldo, A., Litchfield,J.,& Reilly, B.(2005). *Who is Most Likely to Migrate from Albania? Evidence from the Albania Living Standards Measurement Survey patterns of Albanian households?* Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalisation and Poverty: Brighton.

- Carletto, C., B. Davis, et al. (2006). "A country on the move: International migration in post-communist Albania." *International Migration Review* 40(4): 767-785.
- Chaloff, J. (2008). *Albania and Italy Migration policies and their development relevance. A Survey of Innovative and "Development-Friendly" Practices in Albania and Ita.* Working Papers 51/2008. Centro Studi di Politica Internazionale. Rome.
- Dushi, M. (2015). Influence of Migration in Women Emancipation. Case Study from Kosovan Albanian Diaspora. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences* 58 (2015), 91-103
- Elezi, P. (2015). *Albanian Returned Migrants Integration into Labour Market: Do Their Gained Skills and Experiences Match with the Labour Market Demand in Albania?* RRPP Balkans Annual Conference 2015, Skopje Macedonia
- European Training Foundation (ETF) (2007). *The Contribution of Human Resources Development to Migration Policy in Albania.*
- Fetahu, E. (2015). Increase of Trust to Meso-Level within the Community of Albanian Immigrants, Precondition for their Economic and Social Development. *Anglisticum Journal (IJLLIS)* 4 (5-6), 403-410.
- Gibson, J., and McKenzie, D. (2012). The Economic Consequences of 'Brain Drain' of the Best and Brightest: Microeconomic Evidence from Five Countries. *The Economic Journal*, 122 (560), 339-375.
- IMF Economic Reviews (2006) *ALBANIA*, International Monetary Fund Washington, D.C
- INSTAT (2014). *Return Migration and Reintegration*, 2013, Gent Graphic, Tirana, Albania.
- King, R. and Zontini, E. (2000). The role of gender in the South European immigration model. *Papers*, 60, 35-52.
- King, R. and J. Vullnetari (2003). *Migration and development in Albania, Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalization and Poverty.*
- King, R. (2005) Albania as a laboratory for the study of migration and development. *Journal of Southern Europe and the Balkans*, 7 (2), 133-155.
- Khalid, R. (2011). Changes in Perception of Gender Roles: Returned Migrants. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 9, 16-20.
- Kopliku, B. (2016). Between the Two Worlds— Mobilizing Diaspora and Transnational Relations in a Rural Community. *Journal of Science and Higher Education Research*, 1(1), 9-25.
- Morokvasic, M. 1983. "Women in Migration: Beyond the Reductionist Outlook." in *One Way Ticket: Migration and Female Labour*, (ed.) A. Phizacklea. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Naude, W., Siegel, M., & March, K. (2015). *Migration, Entrepreneurship and Development: A Critical Review.* IZA DP No. 9284. Institute for the Study of Labor :Germany
- Vullnetari, J. (2012). Women and Migration in Albania: A View from the Village. *International Migration*. 50(5), 169-188
- Xhaho, A. (2013). Albania gender inequality in workplace: expectations of femininity and domesticity " *Haemus*, (45-50), 364-369.
- Zlotnik, H. (2003). *The Global Dimensions of Female Migration*, Migration Information Source. Retrieved from: <http://www.migrationinformation.org/feature/display.cfm?ID=109>

Web

Reintegration Strategy for Returning Albanian Citizens (2010-2015)

http://www.esiweb.org/pdf/schengen_whitelist_project_Strategy%20on%20Reintegration%20of%20Returned%20Albanian%20Citizens%202010-2015.pdf

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurosta>

www.iom.al

www.sociale.org

This paper is written in the framework of the project "Industrial Citizenship and Migration from Western Balkans: Case studies from Albania and Kosovo migration towards Greece, Germany and Switzerland". This project is supported by Regional Research Promotion Programe. Principal Investigator: Erka Caro. For more info :www.icm-westerbalkans.com

Appendix 1.**Table.1 : Migrant Information**

Education	Years in Migration	Sector	Gender	Age groups	Return migrants
6 have primary school	18 have migrated from 91 to 94	14 domestic worker	19 men	20-30- 5 migrants	3 returned in the period 2000-2004,.
5 have secondary school	19 during 97-99	2 construction	23 females	31-40-12 migrants	4 in the period 2005 - 2009
6 have university	5 during 2001-2004	3 hairdresser		41-50-11 migrants	4 other returnees in the period 2010-2014
24 have vocational educational training		2 work in agriculture		51-60-9 migrants	
1 have post graduation		1 graphic designer		61-70-1 migrants	
		1 specialist in factory,			
		2 waiters			
		1 deliver,			
		2 entrepreneur			
		1 seller			
		1 cooker,			
		1 baby sitter			
		11 unemployed			

Marketing in Insurance Industry, Marketing Functions in Insurance Industry

Besnik Zekaj

PhD Cand.Faculty of business, Public University "Haxhi Zeka"- Peja, Kosovë

Abstract

According to the logic of economic laws of market economy, the existence of enterprises is determined by it as to organize and realize the sale of their products and services. So, insurance companies or companies in this case can only exist if developed, increasing their activities in the field of insurance services that offer their clients. The need for marketing development in the field of insurance as service activities, in economic conditions of today's market it is necessary increase, so even the functioning of the insurance market today depends on the marketing of products that insurance companies offer customers through insurance market. In theoretical terms it is defined as the marketing concept of the market, management and leadership in the company, which instead of former production orientation, the orientation of the market inaugurates the general policy of the enterprise. Marketing plays a key role in insurance market to meet supply and demand, because insurance products are products that are not seen, not touched, but exist only in the form of pledges. Selling a promise requires a confidence, a belief that the service provider will be realized if the loss will occur. In any other economic or economic subject, whether manufacturer or service does not have such kind of product. Marketing insurance plays a manifold, on the one hand made product promotion security, then raise the awareness of citizens about models of protection from risks, increased reliability to consumers, the cost of paying for the promise given by the insurer if a loss occurs will accomplished.

Keywords: Marketing in Insurance Industry, Insurance Market, Insurance Company.

Introduction

Modern economy is characterized by the free market, which means that business activities and economic generally are associated exclusively with the market. On the market are two main mechanisms: Market supply and demand. Demand in the market is found to consumers (individual, household, enterprise), while formed in the enterprise offering, in order to meet customer requirements. Who meets answer the request or needs, it is clear: demand meets supply.

Production of goods and services has given birth to the degree of development of the productive forces of social development, previously Marketing has only assisting function, where most of the production enterprises key problem was not selling products. In this regard, the directors of enterprises to be more engaged improved production techniques since the most difficult was to to produce than the market allocation. Activities that today are known as marketing by the end of the nineteenth century were named as sales, also after the First World War the sale was the main concern of enterprises, formed society of consumption where manufacturers offer unlimited amounts of products on the market, while consumer it was rare. This step marks the birth of advertising and marketing since 1950 has a modern approach to solving problems in a complex way within the enterprise, where these activities are achieveable and beneficial.

The term marketing summarizes the philosophy business enterprise, institution or individual that characterizes concentration, or focus on the customer, expressed through the effort of permanent and harmonious whole enterprise, in the process of fulfilling the needs and wishes of the customer and its implementation enterprise objectives.

The purpose and mission of each enterprise is customer satisfaction. The fact that the meaning of key concept of marketing focus to consumers, any business entity that is engaged in the manufacture of products and services, to be successful you never dare to forget that in a market economy free customer is king and according to this companies also have adopted different market offers.

Marketing in the insurance market plays a key role to meet supply and demand, because insurance products are products that are not seen, not touched, but exist only in the form of pledges. Selling a promise requires a confidence, a belief that the service provider will be realized if the loss will occur. In any other economic or economic subject, whether manufacturer or service does not have such kind of product. Marketing insurance plays a manifold, on the one hand made product promotion security , then raise the awareness of citizens about models of protection from risks , increased reliability to consumers , the cost of paying for the promise given by the insurer if a loss occurs will accomplished.

This paper is composed hereafter practical examples of various forms of promotional marketing that make enterprises - insurance company through forms of compartmentalisation advertising transmitted in the print and electronic (television , radio , newspapers, magazines , billboards , internet , flyers , etc.).

The findings and recommendations are an important part of this work by giving opinions about forms of marketing and the role that marketing in the development and advancement of insurance companies, thereby attempting to convince people that every company wants to win over rivals his.

Marketing and its element in insurance industry

The combination of supply and demand for these products can not be believed without any regulatory mechanism. Main market regulator. The insurance market is one of the most developed markets and most powerful in the world .It is characteristic of this market is that increasing the number of insured will not affect the reduction or increase of premiums. "Marketing can be defined as the process of planning and realization of the concept, pricing policy, promotion and distribution of ideas, and services for asset swap, which meet individual and organizational goals"

Marketing strategy operacionalizohet through segmentation and selection of markets desired, which means the process of division of the total market of insurers in homogeneous groups of the insured, who between them are distinguished according to their needs, so choose segments which sigurusit will provide services. When it comes to marketing in insurance marketing as diciplin then scientific thought and understood as the conception of the work in the field of insurance. Such an approach requires the construction of a unique marketing your strategy and integration within comprehensive insurance. Utilizing marketing concept in the insurance market is the research of the insurance market are defined as synonymous marketing research. Insurance market most often explored:

Capacity of the market

2. Range of insurance types;
3. Market development oportunities;
4. Distribution;
5. Market prices.

The participants in insurance industry are:

1. The Insured (individuals, families, businesses, society etj),
2. Insurance intermediaries (agetns, brokers etj),
3. The Insurer (the coverage provider),
4. User (compensatet claim).

The specificity of the insurance market is that insurance product created itself on providing contract, which means selling that product. To say that this is the specific area of insurance when considering their economic activity and by product (services) offered by the insurer (insurance company) insurance market. Insurance company - insurer, in this case sells "safety", to which the insured during his business realizes the fulfillment of obligations taken on those economic entities to which the insured is realized. Unlike other manufacturers of goods, in insurance there is no possibility of establishing inventories of products.

Insurer might produce 10,000 "cheap" policies to market if we assume that this is its capacity, as it can be a producer of other goods. But the insurer may extend the sale directly to the required size. In practice insurance market segmentation realized by geographic, demographic, economic and other aspects, namely by other criteria. Each of these criteria has its own characteristics, which is why it's so specifically defined, and defined so is used in the insurance market segmentation. All this is accomplished with the aim of practical benefit from market segmentation, in order to be placed as well on the services provided.

Marketing Elements in the Insurance market

The insurance market is specific because the products that are sold and specific customers. Marketing in the insurance market is comprised of four core elements: Products, Price, Distribution and Promotion

Products

Insurance products in the region are homogeneous, any introduction of new product in market requires the development of a long-term insurance products because they have a high cost expenditure. Beliefs of consumers for these products are long-term civic obedience. Convince consumers to purchase these products, it requires reliability, which is one of the main components in the insurance market. Also insurance product range quite prosperous. It is assumed that by now are over 90 insurance products in developing countries a high classification of insurance required by international standards, and most have a low development party insurance homogeneous products. This is because the introduction of new products is very high cost.

Price

The most important component in the insurance market is the price of the service or product offered by the insurer. To manage risk taking must have tools. Insurance companies provide the means of price policy, or premium, which in itself contains functional and the premium which serves to cover the costs of directing. On premise pricing should know that what serves as the basis for calculating the premium. (Net premium) or functional Premium is part of the premium that would cover losses and expenses with estimated losses. (Gross premium) includes net premium or functional as well as directing or operational costs.

The premium is the price quotes for insurance unit. Security Unit can be quite complicated, which subordinates insurance product that is the word, for example in the provision of fire it can be a building cover 150,000.00 euro, while measuring the production unit will be the value of production for the sales clerk insurance unit that done. Vehicle insurance to insurance unit is provided vehicles for a year. In determining the premise quota should keep in mind that one way to attract customers from the other side must keep in mind the definition of the premium, because low premium may lead to the insurance company in bankruptcy. So to set the price of an insurance policy expert engage various fields using different methods statistical probability accounts, dynamic analysis, methods that are inaccessible to the customer.

Distribution

Distribution of insurance products is done through direct and indirect channels. Direct channels in the insurance market are insurers who themselves develop strategic policies to ensure long-term civic and market development, using various methods of economic propaganda, economic publicity etc. In order to keep close relationship between the insured and the insurer, the insurer uses indirect channels for placing products using many agents, brokers etc.

Promotion

It is a process of communication between providers and consumers in order to create a positive conviction for products and services offered by the insurance market. The promotion is a permanent process of communication by insurance providers for existing and potential customers according to Kotler "Promotion includes all the tools of marketing system, whose task is to communicate with potential buyers." Besides the offer more attractive, sales of insurance products often depends from different communities, whether external or internal. Good communication with the customer company adds belief because consumer confidence will have much more knowledge of who will buy services. Companies that have the highest ratings and working tradition will certainly have greater sales of products, but if this company does not have adequate communication with customers, will miss the marketing of insurance products.

Communication of insurance company with the customer aims to:

Consumer awareness

Selling Product

Maintaining consumer confidence The company's communication with the customer is done through various means such as television, radio, daily newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, leaflets, publications, website, exhibitions, posters, sponsorships, etc. Billboard.

Advertising as a form of marketing:

Advertising is an effective way to promote your products and services. When you advertise potential customers know who you are, where you are and what you can do for them. A successful advertising fields will spread the word around your products and services, attract customers and generate sales. If you try to encourage new customers to buy an existing product or a new service, there are many options from which to choose

Good advertising should

1. Build your business image;
2. Explain the benefits of your product and out services;
3. Increase the awareness for new products and services before, during and after the launch;
4. It generates interest in the market that aim, as well as a new audience of potential customers;
5. Encourage customers to ask about your business, increasing customer demand for your products.

Advertising is a vital part of any business operation, which in reality represents the tip of the iceberg in sales process. It can bring no more than a temporary success for an inferior product, but a very positive result for sale of products. We should be noted ad buyers or customers why they should buy your products, respectively in case of an insurance company products (insurance products). Advertising should be done regularly through various forms electronically, print or media. There are also other forms of marketing that affect virtually increase sales of products to businesses in Kosovo market, next we will mention in order to see the positive impact of marketing in realizing the goals of firms and increase the satisfaction of costumers.

In this paper we analyze forms of marketing in insurance companies as part Dardania Kosovo in the financial market, the company's campaign on television, radio, billboards, newspapers, magazines, flyers, internet and other forms used by the company.

About the company

Insurance Company "Dardania" entered in the insurance industry in 2000, with a temporary license by UNMIK, which became permanent from the Central Bank of Kosovo, in 2002. In 2010, the Insurance Company "Dardania" became part of Dukagjini Group, and more specifically its owner became z.Riza Luke. In late 2011, a new team of professionals, entrusted the management of the company, known for their successful experience in the insurance industry of Kosovo. During a short period, they were injected by the owner with significant financial value, which led to the repayment of old debts (inherited from the previous shareholders) at a total value of 4.5 million euro. Change not only the company provided financial support, but also brought a change in the mentality of the operation of the company, creating:

A new organizational structure;

Increase sales points (12 to 46) and accompanying infrastructure modernization of the company;
Evaluation of existing insurance products, bringing and has adapted to market requirements;
The establishment and licensing of new insurance products, bringing innovation to the market of Kosovo;
Contract with the Reinsurance company - a world leader in this market;
Contract with well-known companies - in the field of International Medical Assistance (covering health outside the territory of Kosovo);

Insurance products provided by "Dardania" Insurance Company

Insurance Company "Dardania" offers a variety of insurance products ranging from compulsory insurance GMTPL, followed by property insurance, insurance professional or health insurance and other types of insurance products, to be equally competitive in the market. Dardania insurance products offered in Kosovo insurance market are:

Personal Accident Insurance;
Health Insurance (group and family);
Travel Health Insurance;
Property insurance (fire and all other additional risks);
Providing Residential (apartments, residential houses);
Public Liability Insurance;
Product liability insurance;
Professional liability insurance;
Provision of all the risks during construction;
Provide money during transport;
Provide Cash in Safe;
Provision of Guarantee Bid;
Provision of Guarantee Contract (execution, and maintenance advance);
Providing own motor vehicle - CASCO;
Compulsory GMTPL;
Compulsory GMTPL Kosovo Plus (available for Macedonia);
Providing border.

Dardania advertisement in TV

Insurance Company Dardania its advertising in four main television stations in the country: RTK, KTV, RTV 21 and TV Dukagjini local television. Advertising this company on television mainly dealing with the promotion of their products, by publishing advertisements dealing in insurance mandatory: TPL and TPL - Plus, as well as voluntary insurance where they went: CASCO, insurance of property and assets - housing, health insurance, and other types of insurance



Advertisement broadcast advertising in the block during the transmission of any series or entertainment show. Advertising is over 26 seconds.

Dardania advertisement in Radio

Insurance Company "Dardania" markets in two main radio stations: Radio Kosova and Radio Dukagjini. Advertising text on radio is the same as that on television. Advertising usually transmitted to block advertising time, their duration is 26 and 27 seconds. Dardania Insurance Company is the sponsor of a radio show.

Dardania advertisement on internet

Usually one of the most popular format today to insurance companies are advertising through the internet, respectively various web sites such as Facebook on their official Web site on the Internet, etc.



Conclusions and recommendations

Research and promotion of sales of insurance products as an element of marketing in insurance, represents one of the most important segments in the field of marketing research in insurance. Exercising such research requires the construction of such sales channels of insurance services through which will be acceptable to the user or the insured.

Insurance products are products for sale, ever since such products are not produced, and therefore has no warehouse stocks of these products. An application for such products bear based on information available to the insured on the risks that can be posed.

Sales in the insurance market plays a key role to meet supply and demand, because insurance products are products that are not seen, not touched, but exist only in the form of pledges. Selling a promise requires confidence, a belief that the service provider will be realized if a loss occurs. To any other economic entity if we do not manufacturer or service such a type of product.

The media are a very important element in the promotion of insurance products. In countries with a high development of insurance marketing is a very high cost compared with other sectors in an insurance company.

Marketing in insurance plays a role in many fold, by one side makes promoted the insurance products, then raise the awareness of citizens about models of protection from risks, increase reliability to consumers, the cost of paying for the promise given by the insurer if the loss occurs, it will happen. Advertising plays an important role of insurance products placed on the market. The best ads by many respondents as the insurer by the insured is also "the damage to Rate Best and timely pay the damage."

In terms of a functioning modern enterprise market it is almost impossible without a strong marketing, knowing that any day now marketing is changing and being perfected thanks to the informative teknologjsë, visive means, electronic, print etc. In this regard, we can say that insurance companies it is impossible to exist without a successful marketing.

To achieve this concept insurance companies must meet the following recommendations:

Insurance companies must invest in different types of marketing, because marketing is a very important aspect so that the products or services to be closer to the customer. Various forms of promotion, advertisement and other forms of marketing, make your product or service with attractive for the client.

Marketing research should be done to increase the market opportunities, research competition in market conditions for marketing takes time and appropriate budgetary allocations.

Every insurance company must have a marketing strategy and a marketing plan that should be useful for the development of the company for marketing stimulates the sale, the sale depends on the existence of the company. Every time we have to be one step ahead of rival companies operating in the local market.

Literature

Bakraqi, Xh. (2004), Risk Management and Insurance, Prishtina- Kosova

Jobber, D (2010), Principles and Practices of Marketing, 6/2010, London, England

Gashi, Sh. (2013), Risk Management in the Insurance Market, Prishtina - Kosova

Jakupi, A. (2008), Introduction to Marketing, Prishtina- Kosova

Vërçuni, A & Ulledaj, Gj (2009), , Introduction to Marketing, Tirana- Albania

Ceku, B & Aliu, H & Deari H (2011), Principles of Marketing, Tetova- Macedonia

Guri, Rinald & Gjoni, Elisabeta & Dervishi, Anxhela, (2012) "Fundamentals in the Insurance " , Tiran,- Albania

Kosovo Insurance Association, (2012), Periodic Newsletters, Bulletins, Nr. 1,

www.bqk-ks.org

www.dardaniainsurance.com

Political Parties in Kosovo , Organizational Structure and Their Internal Democracy

Dr. Sci. Veton Zejnullahi

Abstract

The collapse of communism in the former Eastern bloc , which was followed by the establishment of democracies popular and holding free elections to the parliaments of the countries concerned had its impact in Kosovo , which although occupied accepted among first democracy in the former Yugoslavia , which was followed by the creation of political parties at that time. The role of political parties in the years of occupation there was a genuine character of party activity as a result of the occupation, because the main word on Kosovo was Serbian government, installed after violent suppression of Kosovo's autonomy in 1989. Political parties in general It served as a national movement, some of which joined the Kosovo Albanians by articulating their demands for freedom and independence. This included organizing parties in Kosovo and the Albanian parties in other areas in the former Yugoslavia was organized by the Coordination Council of Albanian Parties. End of the war in 1999 brought a completely new situation, changing political scene with the formation of more political parties, as well as providing more opportunities for a better organization of the political scene. Some of the political parties no longer exist, while others have a very small number of members. The formation of new parties expected profiling of political scene, however, serves only their declarative they are right or left, in most cases a proper profiling has not happened yet. Political parties in Kosovo even after so many years of activity apparently still in the phase of consolidation but also in search of their identity.

Keywords: Kosovo , political parties , internal democracy , occupation

Introduction

A political party in Kosovo originates since the early nineties of the last century, more precisely after the collapse of the party system of government, led by the Communist Party. Knowing that in those years, Kosovo was under severe apartheid, and under occupation classic, certainly cannot speak as to the normal functioning of political parties, much less internal democracy subjects then political, because the activity was almost other semi, since as members also hounded and jailed leaders from the Serbian government in Kosovo installed. Known as the "Kosovo Option", which in itself includes all parties of that time, they managed to hold twice conditions parliamentary and presidential elections in 1992 and 1998 where he was elected Parliament and President of the Republic, bodies which they never made it constituted as a result of repressive measures imposed by the Serbian authorities. Democratic League of Kosovo party was first formed which was followed by the other parties as Peasant Party, the Albanian Christian Democratic Party, the Parliamentary Party and some other smaller parties. We must emphasize illegal entities that operated underground from which later formed the KLA, the Kosovo National Movement and the National Movement for the Liberation of Kosovo.

In such conditions we could not occupation for internal party democracy, because every decision taken by the party chairman. Although held an internal election process, it was all very formal and serves propaganda purposes than genuine internal democracy.

But after the war in 1999, in Kosovo, and the creation of new circumstances were formed many political parties thus enriching the political scene, while in terms of internal organization of particular internal democracy is still a lot to be desired . Political parties are still operating under the old system with a retention assembly or congress, in which the chairman shall propose a list of party organs and which is approved by acclamation by the delegates present. Formally opened an internal election process, but that is not supervised and decisions are prepared and almost become the choice of people loyal to the party leader. Even in other parties the situation is almost identical, because long before the elections, it is known who will be chairman of the party and the team close to him, and in all cases the party chairman has no opposition candidates in case of election, or even if one candidate, more formal candidacy, saying better than for show and meet a point required by statute.

Political organization in Kosovo

Political organization in Kosovo as in any other country is regulated by law. Kosovo is a pluralist parliamentary system of organization and political activity. Political parties in Kosovo operate under Regulation number 01/2013 on the registration and operation of political parties¹.

The political scene in Kosovo is characterized by parties to the ideology declared as the right where you can list the PDK , LDK , AAK , left-wing parties as VV , party center-right and center-left , then party religious character as Albanian Christian Democratic Party - PSHDK , which show the values of the Christian Democratic Party and Justice- PD , which discloses Islamic values and national minority parties that aim are the protection and representation of minorities in parliament . Otherwise, according to the register in Kosovo currently operate 63 political parties be they political party, movement or election list².

All non-Serb minority parties in parliament have their parliamentary group "Six plus" through which participate in government with a ministerial post and some other lower positions. While Serb minority is organized by some parties and a list called "Serbian List" which is led by the Serbian government and the conviction that there is no action taken without prior consultation with Belgrade officials. Otherwise the government represented by three ministerial posts and several government positions lower under the country's constitution and comprehensive plan of President Ahtisaari. Regarding the organizational structure and internal democracy is about the same as other political parties.

It is clear that the political scene is not yet profiled and related coalitions for narrow interests of power and not because the program. Even the voting is still done based on non-program leader of the political party and still presents family voting.

Political parties in Kosovo have not yet been organized elections within the party that will really touch a step forward in the organization as well as in political emancipation but also in terms of internal democracy. With the exception of Vetevendosje Movement, which tried to take a bold step, but unfortunately was only a step, nothing more.



Photo.Logos of some political parties³

The organizational structure of political parties

Political parties in Kosovo have almost similar organizational structure, the parties emerged in the former communist bloc in Eastern Europe . In order to include as many people in the structure, including remote mountain areas, build party structures are such that no one remains outside the organizational structure. The names of the structure are different and distinct from the parties as asset, section, paragraph, center etc, but basically the function is the same. Levels of organization usually look like this:

Asset - session- lower unit of the organization and consists of Assembly and Board

Sub-branch - points -content the assembly and the presidency of the sub - paragraph

Branch - center - consists of assembly and board of branch - center.

Party Assembly - delegates from all branches, including branches of the Diasporas elects the Board and President of the party

Governing Council or General - elect party leadership; The national party; The party leader; Women's Forum; Youth Forum

¹ <http://politike.al/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/Rregullo-re-per-regjistrimin-e-partive-politike-Kosove.pdf>

² http://www.kqz-ks.org/Uploads/Documents/15-9-2013%20Regjistrimi%20i%20partive%20politike%20ne%20Kosove_dxjenszvhx.pdf

³ <http://www.albinfo.ch/kosove-partite-politike-pa-demokraci-te-brendshme/>

During elections the electoral process by proposing delegates for central assembly, and at all levels of the organization. After all proposals voted branch delegates who represent the central assembly.

On the other hand the party's central organization is almost the same to all parties, or just changes the name of the body which plays the same role. In central assembly voted for the Governing Council or General of the party, who is obliged to elect party leadership. According to statutory regulation Assembly elects the Chairman of the party.

But what happens with the election of the leadership directly affects internal democracy , because the party president is empowered to propose that the list of members of the presidency are here this straight cut this right to assembly.

Also every political party have formed organizations of women and that of young people, in the form of special forums , which meant they carry values that disclosure of these two categories more vital to society .

Besides AAK , through statute has regulated explicitly the representation of women and youth through quotas in decision making structures of the party¹, in terms of other parties , there is a general conviction that these forums more are as decoration party than to have any impact on the party's policies , not having representation quotas set . All we have managed to "win " is what the respective presidents have automatically secure place in central presidency , so the structure representation is usually over 90 % of men in the leadership as well as in other governing bodies of the party.

Internal democracy in political parties in Kosovo

When we read the programs of political parties and their statutes, an assumption that we are dealing with subjects that in most cases, except for the acronym "democratic", actually have internal democracy, and everything done according to statutory rates.

But when we see actions that occur during daily activity, especially on the eve of election campaigns, the acronym "democratic" loses its meaning. In most cases applies the principle, where the mayor party's own party, because contrary to any norm statutory him above his party and decides on its behalf, especially during the accession of new members during electoral campaigns in many cases members newcomer also appointed deputy chairman of the party, during the press conference specially convened for this activity by violating the party statute which clearly specifies how elected deputy party, or any other function that has to do with the presidency.

This phenomenon is present with all parties without exception and serves as proof of how the party is strengthened. In most cases, the newcomers have just taken the post of deputy, left acting as an independent in parliament, because their condition is included in the list for deputy or ministerial posts, whether minister or deputy minister.

In some examples to see how it works in real internal democracy of the main political parties.

Since the establishment of the first political parties in Kosovo , forms of organizing elections within the party has remained the same, marking a standstill in relation to the region and comparison with established democratic countries as doable . In almost all cases contested assembly election - Congress political parties in all Albanian political geography.

In this paper we will focus on some of the major political parties that are simultaneously parliamentary party , and more specifically -PDK Democratic Party of Kosovo , the Democratic League of Kosovo - LDK , Vetevendosje Movement - LVV, and see how they work especially as they respect internal democracy , based on conventions - assemblies their party conventions . To gain a clearer picture as to make a comparison with the main political parties operating in the Republic of Albania , namely three main parties , the Socialist Party - PS -PD Democratic Party and the Socialist Movement for Integration, LSI .

Regarding the electoral conventions of political parties in Kosovo, excluding assembly of LDK, known as "Assembly chair" during which ran two candidates from two sets to take over the party, but that escalated into violence between the two groups rival.

¹ <http://www.aak-ks.org/?id=18>

The outcome was fatal for the group as it usually occurs won the Albanian political spectrum, entirely removed; leaving the other group outside the party structures that resulted in the formation of another party, the Democratic League of Dardania - LDD.

This division also contributed to the division of the electorate and also divided into two groups, once the first party in the country's general elections was defeated by second-ranked political entity.

So rather than this moment be used for further deepening of internal democracy of the party, through the legalization of factions within the party as political parties in countries with democracy more advanced, there was quite the opposite and the party was closed on itself by guided by a narrow group of people that led to inevitable defeat in national election.

There is no party that has installed the principle of one member one vote, where election commissions will rise and will vote secretly on ballot boxes, which will be the result of an election campaign in party and numerous meetings with party membership. It is worth mentioning that the ethnic Albanian lands the first to have applied the system one member one vote, is the Socialist Movement for Integration in the Republic of Albania, which was later followed by the Socialist Party, and lately also from the Democratic Party, after losing she suffered in national elections. But, unfortunately, these elections were contested by candidates for President of the Party, as happened in the case of DP raising contentious issues in the election process in the Democratic Party. So we are dealing with phenomena that select the outgoing President of its successor, and prepared the same field that also solved. This is explained by the fact that the outgoing president still wants to maintain influence in the party.

Contests were recently in elections organized by the Socialist Party to hold a referendum on the election of the party chairman, which was impossible with a campaign equal to good arguments, members of the Socialist Party, and as usually happens, the parties Albanian land he lost the party chairmanship after the end of the congress. We must mention that the perpetrator list compiled for the party chairman and the same has proposed and is endorsed by the party.

Tradition of denial of internal democracy joined the Democratic Party of Kosovo - PDK , which recent convention attended the same operations as other political parties regarding the election of the party leader who was elected by acclamation by delegates assembly . Also a list for party leadership which was proposed by the chairman was adopted without objection. At the last congress delegates it is interesting that with their vote have determined the party's ideological character by declaring party as right, though this should not be party oriented programming decision, not assembly. The same operations were done again for president of their party convention VII PDK , in which there were no opposition candidates and there was no secret ballot , but the mayor was elected by open ballot which is inconsistent with the Party Statute.

Contestations made in the last Assembly election the Democratic League of Kosovo - LDK for a point in the statute requires that a candidate for the post of party president needed the signatures of 51 % of the delegates to the convention, which actually prevented running Vjosa Osmani fact logically and mathematically only one candidate can reach this number , which in this case is the chairman of the current party 's re-election which was not voted into the assembly after being elected by acclamation by eliminating the democratic procedure of election of the President through secret ballot determined by the statute . As in the case with other parties, LDK was not immune and did the same, approving the list of members of the leadership which the proposed chairman of the party at which inevitably lack the name Vjosa Osmani and several supporters of her, remaining outside the party leadership.

Vetevendosje Movement is the only person who tried through ballot boxes organizes internal elections by inviting the membership to vote on the day of voting, but it is the general impression that the current chairman of the selected founder of the Movement, which is explained by the fact of conservation the impact on the Movement. VV is the only entity which puts in place a disciplinary commission¹ which in some cases has taken a decision to exclude members. Committees such de - jure remove those members who have run afoul of the charter party but de - facto eliminate political dissent in a political party, although in VV there is a group called " faction plus " consisting precisely of members excluded from the disciplinary commission.

¹ http://www.vetevendosje.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/Statuti_i_Levizjes_VETEVEN DOSJE_mars_2012.pdf

Conclusions

Political parties step up their activities normally in the eve of the election campaign at any level whether elections where new arrivals start bypassing party for democracy and internal rules for party chairman makes their cooptation without no preliminary proceedings and outside the party apparatus makes appointment to important positions in the party and appointment to a senior ministerial post or choice for deputy in Parliament. Usually targeted by these flows are journalists and members of civil society who are critics of the party and thus vanish even as opposition voices are few in society. Independent intellectuals were targeted political parties, but the practice has shown that in these cases, this action served more as decoration than supposedly intellectuals are politically engaged than he has had any positive impact on their engagement.

Compiling lists for national elections and the candidates for mayor formally made through branches of political parties , but the last word usually is the party chairman who often defy the opinion of branches and list which it also approves the list becomes official party to participate in elections .

Never in Kosovo has no political party internal election process step through its branches with two or more candidates who will be running the first election in the party programs and then in municipal elections for mayor.

Participation of women in political life is very small and is usually organized through the forum of women who like the forum of youth have no impact on party politics and simply serve only as numbers and to meet obligations arising from statute . The 30 % who serves on the participation of women in Parliament and in Municipal Councils does not apply to their representation in the party and as a result of all municipalities is the only female president of the municipality and two women ministers in the Government of Kosovo . Therefore , women's organizations and youth it rather than be the partner organizations with political parties that operate them usually are dependent on them and this affects their activity is limited to party frameworks.

Knowing that internal democracy means participation of citizens in politics and internal party through which I express their concerns and being organized in various working groups that practice there are no political parties in Kosovo comes into disinterest of citizens especially the middle class to join the party , so no political party in Kosovo do not know the exact number of its members and usually confused by the mixed here with the number of voters or supporters.

Another characteristic is that all parties in Kosovo are therefore belonging to a national group lacking national minorities when entering the Albanian parties or even the opposite. This is a precedent for countries in the region are frequent cases where political parties have more character represented all citizens and ethnic groups.

Women's organizations and youth it rather than be the partner organizations with political parties that operate them usually are dependent on them and this affects their activity is limited to party frameworks.

Disciplinary Commissions although serving in principle for maintaining statutory violations at a party although de - jure remove those members who have run afoul of the statute of the party , there is a general conviction that de - facto eliminate political dissent in a political entity.

Bibliography

Daniel-Louis Seiler, Partitë politike, UET Press Tiranë

Wilhelm Hofmeister, Karsten Grabow, Partitë politike- funksioni dhe organizimi në shoqëritë demokratike

Demokracia e brendshme partiake në Kosovë, Qendra për hulumtim dhe ndërtim të politikave

Mentor Agani, Gent Gjikolli, Albert Krasniqi, Blerim Murtezi, Violeta Haxholli , Sistemi zgjedhor dhe partiak në Kosovë, perspektiva e zhvillimit të demokracisë brenda partiake

<http://www.aak-ks.org/?id=18>

<http://www.albinfo.ch/kosove-partite-politike-pa-demokraci-te-brendshme/>

http://www.kqz-ks.org/Uploads/Documents/15-9-2013%20Regjistrti%20i%20partive%20politike%20ne%20Kosove_dxjexszvhx.pdf

<http://politike.al/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/Rregullo-re-per-regjistrimin-e-partive-politike-Kosove.pdf>

http://www.vetevendosje.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/Statuti_i_Levizjes_VETEVEDOSJE_mars_2012.pdf

Obtaining of Collagen Extracts Used as Biomaterials with Applications in the Medical Field

Melat Cherim

UMF "Carol Davila" Bucharest, Faculty of Pharmacy, Traian Vuia Str. Nr. 6, Sector 2, Bucharest, Romania

Rodica Sirbu

"Ovidius" University of Constanța, Faculty of Pharmacy, Campus Corp B, University Alley, Nr. 1, Constanta, Romania

Abstract

Collagen is the core protein of connective tissues: skin, bone, tendon, base membrane, etc. Collagen is actually a family of several different genetic types. Currently they are known, in vertebrates, at least 27 different types of collagens, which shows a remarkable diversity in molecular and supramolecular organization of the tissue distribution and function, discovered and developed over 45 years. They were studied, in detail, 12 main types. Collagen-based bioproducts can be produced in a variety of molecular structures (micro and nano structures) in powder form, hydrogels and injectable solutions, films, membranes and matrices, etc. This paper presents the drying processes that are selected depending on the nature of the extract (undenatured or denatured) and morphological structure bioproduct or sponge, fibers or membranes. The most frequently used procedures for drying are freeze-drying and free drying at a temperature of approx. 25 ° C. Both processes produce no distorts to the extracts. They are presented bioproducts derived from collagen which are used in medicine.

Keywords: *Collagen, bioproducts, molecular structures, hydrogels.*

Introduction

Collagen is a unique in its ability to form insoluble fibers that have a high tensile strength and right-handed triple superhelical rod consisting of three polypeptide chains and is found in connective tissues, including tendons, bones and skins (e.g. type I collagen) [1]. It is classified into a number of structurally and genetically distinct types. Type I collagen is a heterodimer composed of two $\alpha 1(I)$ chains and one $\alpha 2(I)$ chain that spontaneously forms a triple helix scaffold at neutral pH and 37 °C.

Collagen type I is an excellent substrate for the culture of hepatocytes, fibroblasts, spinal ganglion, muscle cells, Schwann cells, embryonic lung cells, epithelial cells, and a number of other cell lines. It has also been used in the study of growth, differentiation, migration of cell lines, and tissue morphogenesis during development.

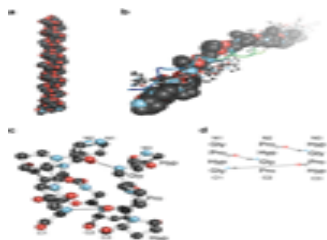


Fig. 1 Overview of the collagen triple helix. [2]

Although fish-derived collagen does not form high-viscosity gels, it is extremely convenient for some applications, such as micro-packaging or obtaining photosensitive coatings. Films and porous matrixes can be obtained from collagen-based

gels, just as from mammal-derived ones. They can be successfully used in dental medicine for treating oral diseases – they form bio-absorbable membranes and matrixes and they can incorporate different active ingredients which can be subsequently released in order to obtain the intended therapeutic effects [3]

Collagen has been, traditionally, isolated from the skins of land-based animals, such as cow and pig. Non-denatured collagens from these sources find applications in food, cosmetics, biomedical, and pharmaceutical industries. Denatured collagen, known as gelatin, finds applications in the food and biomedical industries. Biomedical and pharmaceutical applications of collagen include the treatment of hypertension, urinary incontinence and pain associated with osteoarthritis, use in tissue engineering for implants in humans, inhibition of angiogenic diseases, such as diabetes complications, obesity, and arthritis [4].

The alternative sources of collagen, especially from aquatic animals including freshwater and marine fish and moof fish by-products as a source of collagen can beneficially impact waste management. Collagen molecules in solution denature close to the upper limit of the physiological temperature or the maximum body temperature of the animal species from which the collagen is extracted [5]. Many researchers have focused on the practical utilization of marine animals to produce collagen [6]. Some concerned collagens from freshwater fish, such as carp [7], [8] and grass carp [9]. However, relative lower denaturation temperatures, i.e., lower thermostability, have become one of the main limiting factors for the application of fish collagens, especially for those from marine fish.

Gelatin is a multifunctional ingredient that has long been used in the food industry as a gelling, thickening, and film-forming agent, as well as an emulsifier and stabilizer [10]. The source of collagen and the manufacturing process significantly affect the physicochemical and functional properties of gelatin [10]. Traditional gelatin production involves the pretreatment of raw material followed by extraction and purification steps [10]. Acid or alkali is usually used in the pretreatment steps to remove impurities and cleave the collagen crosslinks, then gelatin is a produced by a partial thermal denaturation of collagen.

This paper aims at presenting two comparative biotechnology used to obtain collagen-based gels from grey mullet skin : Cold-treatment with 0.5M acetic acid, and treating with hydrochloric acid . Obtaining the biomaterial was prosigns by freeze-drying the hydrogel .

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fresh "grey mullet (*Mugil cephalus*)" fish were collected from market. The skin were washed thorough- ly with distilled water, and stored at -25°C until used. All reagents used were of analytical grade.

A.The Biotechnology used to Obtain Collagen from "grey mullet (*Mugil cephalus*)"

A.1. DEMINERALIZATION PROCESS

Initially, the fish scales were washed twice in 10 wt% of NaCl solutions to remove unnecessary proteins on the sur face by stirring the solution for 24 h. Demineralization was achieved with 0.4 mol/l HCl solution (dry scales: solution = 1:15) for 90 min. The demineralized scales were washed three times with distilled water for collagen extraction.

A.2 ISOLATION OF COLLAGEN

COLLAGEN EXTRACTION FROM *Grey Mullet* by ACID TREATMENTS

A.2 .1 COLD-TREATMENT WITH 0.5M ACETIC ACID

As room temperature enabled – in the case of bovine skin – removal of the epidermis, this pre-treatment was also applied to grey mullet Considering the fact that the denaturation temperature of collagen extracted from fish skin is lower than that obtained from bovine skin, the 0.5M

acetic acid pre-treatment was applied both at room temperature (23-26 °C), and in the fridge (5-7 °C), without stirring, using variable skin/acid solution ratios, between 1/7.5 and 1/20, aiming – each time – at submerging the skin entirely. Shark skin quickly becomes soaked in the 0.5M acetic acid solution, significantly increasing its volume and weight. Thus, at 27 °C it gains – in about 1 hour – circa 74% in weight, it thickens and gets a jelly-like aspect. Horny epidermis can be cleaned (it

was cleaned) and the solution will be clear and of low viscosity, so under these circumstances collagen was not extracted completely (losses are negligible). After cleaning, the skin was washed twice in tap water and twice in distilled water to remove any remains of horny layer, then it was finely chopped and divided into two batches in view of extracting collagen: one batch was still treated with acetic acid of the same concentration, while the other was treated with pH 3.5 hydrochloric acid, in both cases the ratio between soaked and filter paper-dabbed collagen and solution being 1/7. The samples were stirred energetically for 1 hour and 40 minutes, and then they were placed into the fridge. In the meanwhile viscosity increased, appearing to be higher than in the case of the hydrochloric acid solution. On the second day they were removed, left to reach room temperature and forced through fine muslin to remove the jelly-like component, whose suspension also contains visible bits of skin. Colourless filtrates were centrifuged for 30 minutes, then placed into the fridge, while a new amount of acid was inserted over the jelly-like component to continue extraction.[3]

A. 2.2 TREATING WITH 0.5M HCL

The other batch of skin was inserted into a pH 3.5 hydrochloric acid solution, using a wet skin/solution ratio of 1/5. After 24 hours it seems unchanged and, indeed, its weight increased during this while by only 9%. The skin was removed from the hydrochloric acid, it was washed entirely using tap and distilled water until all chlorine ions had disappeared, then the other treatment was applied, involving cold 0.5M acetic acid solution (skin/acid ratio =1/7) and storage in the fridge. After 24 hours the skin increased its volume considerably, it started peeling off, although with difficulty and incompletely, which is why it was left for another 24 h in acetic acid, just as in the case of direct treatment with acetic acid.

After 48 hours the epidermis was cleaned, the clean skin was chopped into small pieces and then inserted into 0.5M acetic acid solution. Both the vessel containing skin and acetic acid and the colourless and relatively viscous supernatant were placed into the fridge. After 5 days the viscous supernatant was separated from the undissolved skin by decanting, and the two samples were mixed.[3]

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Some physical and chemical characteristics of collagen from Grey mullet, are presented in Table 1.

The technology used to dry is selected according to the nature of the extract (denaturated or non-denaturated) and the morphological structure of the bioproduct, that is, sponge, fibres or membranes. The most commonly used drying techniques are lyophilisation and natural air drying at temperatures of approximately 25°C. Neither of the two techniques leads to denaturation of the extracts.

Table 1 Physical and chemical characteristics of collagen

CARACTERISTICS	COLLAGEN EXTRACTED with 0.5M acetic acid	COLLAGEN EXTRACTED with 0.5M HCL
Aspect	fibrous	fibrous
Colour	White-yellow	White-yellow
Humidity, %	0.130	0.162
Minerals %	97.95	99.77
PH	3.5	5.5



Fig. 2 Collagen extracted: with 0.5M acetic acid with HCL 0.5M



Fig.3 Obtaining collagen biomaterials

Lyophilisation is a drying procedure relying on the rapid freeze of collagen solutions from -25°C to -70°C and sublimation of the ice directly in the water vapour phase (2×10^{-3} torri). In place of the ice crystals, pores are formed and collagen molecules are restructured into fibres and fibrils. Lyophilized collagen is represented by a sponge called matrix, with similar characteristics to the extracellular matrix.

Natural air drying of collagen extracts is performed in shelved dryers with warm air current at a temperature of 25°C and a rigours control of humidity, so that drying can be performed slowly in 48-72 hours. Under these circumstances, between the collagen molecules of the extract intermolecular bonds are made, without requiring the intervention of chemical agents.

Atomization drying is used for denaturated collagen extracts, especially for hydrolysates. Procedures for obtaining gel or colloidal solutions require technological filtration and condition in sterile environments so that the bioproducts are not contaminated with microorganisms.

Regarding the process of obtaining biomaterials from non-denaturated collagen (pastes and gels or collagen solutions) key-steps are represented by: restructuration, chemical alteration, compatibilization with various bioactive compounds and drying or conditioning as a finished product.[10]



Fig.4 Extraction with 0.5 M acid acetic



Fig.5 Extraction with 0.5 M HCl

CONCLUSION

In this study, acid soluble collagen (ASC) from skin of Grey Mullet were extracted with weak acid solutions of 0.1M - 0.5 M acetic acid and HCl. 0.1 M – 0.5 M.

Better results were obtained after acid extraction with 0.5 M acetic ACTA.

The result showed that it is possible to use the fresh fish skin as an important collagen or gelatin source.

The isolated collagen may serve as an attractive alternative to mammalian collagen for biomedical and pharmaceutical applications .

At the same time , the study aims marine waste valorisation of the Black Sea, avoiding environmental pollution.

REFERENCES

Gelse K, Pöschl E, Aigner T. Collagens—structure, function, and biosynthesis. *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews* 55:1531–46, 2003;

Bella J, Eaton M, Brodsky B, Berman HM. Crystal and molecular structure of a collagen-like peptide at 1.9 Å resolution. *Science*. [PubMed] NOTE: First high-resolution (1.9-Å) crystal structure of a collagen triple helix, formed from CRPs.;266:75–81, 1994.

Anamaria Bechir, Rodica Sirbu, Minodora Leca, Maria Maris, Dan Artenie Maris, Emilia Mihaela, Cadar, Marius Maris, The Nanobiotechnology of Obtaining of Collagen Gels from Marin Fish Skin and Yours Reological Properties for using Like New Materials in Dental Medicine .World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology International Journal of Medical, Health, Biomedical, Bioengineering and Pharmaceutical Engineering Vol:2, No:6, 2008

Morimura S, Nagata H, Uemura Y, Fahmi A, Shigematsu T, Kida K. Development of an effective process for utilization of collagen from livestock and fish waste., *Process Biochemistry*, 37(12), 1403-1412. DOI: [10.1016/S0032-9592\(02\)00024-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0032-9592(02)00024-9), 2002,

Privalov PL. Stability of proteins. Proteins which do not present a single cooperative system. *Advances in Protein Chemistry* 35:1–104, 1982;

Rigby BJ. Amino acid composition and thermal stability of the skin collagen of the Antarctic ice-fish. *Nature* 219:166–7, 1968;

Duan R, Zhang JJ, Du XQ, Yao XC, Konno K. Properties of collagen from skin, scale and bone of Carp (*Cyprinus carpio*). *Food Chemistry* 112:702–6, 2009;

Duan R, Zhang J, Li J, Zhong X, Konno K, Wen H. The effect of the subunit composition on the thermostability of collagens from the scales of freshwater fish., *Food Chemistry* 135:127–32, 2012;

Zhang Y, Liu WT, Li GY, Shi B, Miao YQ, Wu XH. Isolation and partial characterization of pepsin-soluble collagen from the skin of grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*). *Food Chemistry* 103:906–12, 2007;

V. Trandafir, G. Popescu, M. G. Albu, H. Iovu, M. Georgescu, *Bioproduse pe baza de colagen*, Editura Ars Docendi ISBN 978-973-558-291-3, 2007,

Studies Concerning the Stability of Antioxidant Compounds in Aronia Melanocarpa Fruits

Naliana Lupascu

UMF "Carol Davila" Bucharest, Faculty of Pharmacy, Traian Vuia Str. Nr. 6, Sector 2, Bucharest, Romania

Rodica Sirbu

"Ovidius" University of Constanța, Faculty of Pharmacy, Campus Corp B, University Alley, Nr. 1, Constanta, Romania

Abstract

Aronia Melanocarpa fruits are high in vitamin C. Vitamin C is an antioxidant necessary for the human body to prevent scurvy, gum disease, bone and blood vessels and boost immunity. The paper also highlighted the determination of vitamin C in the Aronia Melanocarpa fruits, and studies on the stability of vitamin C in different pH environments in the process of oxidation in atmospheric oxygen. Ascorbic acid oxidation reaction proceeds through a chained mechanism. In 1936 Barron et al. [1], conducted the first study of auto-oxidation of ascorbic acid to dehydroascorbic acid. Through this research we highlight areas where vitamin C pH will be stable.

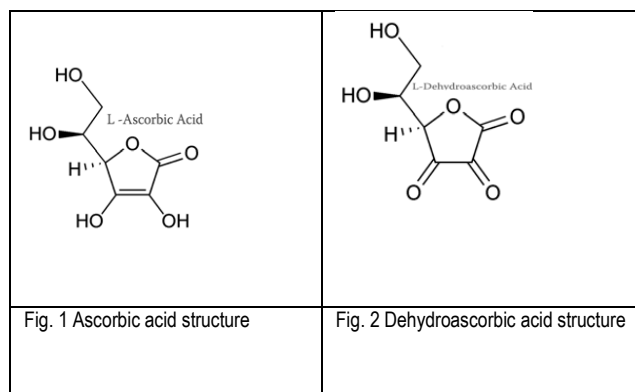
Keywords: Aronia Melanocarpa, pH, Vitamin C, antioxidants

INTRODUCTION

Aronia melanocarpa belongs to the *Rosaceae* family and originated from the eastern parts of North America and East Canada. Its fruits are harvested between August and September [2].

A common name for *Aronia melanocarpa* is chokeberry. It is often confused with chokecherry, which is the common name for *Prunus virginiana*.

Vitamin C is a common natural substance, especially in plants. The content of vitamin C is an important parameter for assessing the nutritional value of the food as it degrades during storage [3], [4].



Vitamin C is a highly water-soluble compound that has both acidic and strong reducing properties. It naturally occurs in many plants and animals except in humans. The natural vitamin exists in L-ascorbic acid form. The D-isomer (i.e., D-ascorbic acid), which is the mirror image of the same molecular structure, has only about 10% of the activity of the L-isomer. L-ascorbic acid is a weak sugar acid which is structurally related to glucose attached to a hydrogen ion.

It is a strong reducing agent, which carries out its reducing function and easily converts to its oxidized form, the L-dehydroascorbic acid, when oxidative stress is present. Due to this characteristic, L-ascorbic acid is commonly applied in food industry as a food additive functioning as a versatile antioxidant to protect foods from deterioration by oxidation.

The richest natural sources of Vitamin C are fruits and vegetables, for example, blackcurrant, blueberry, orange, lime, lemon, strawberry, cabbage and malt. It is noted that Vitamin C can be chemically decomposed under certain conditions, such as heating and oxidation, many of which may occur during the cooking of food. [5]

The retention of vitamin C is often used as an estimate for the overall nutrient retention of food products because it is highly sensitive to oxidation and leaching into water-soluble media during storage, it begins to degrade immediately after harvest and degrades steadily during prolonged storage [6]

Vitamin C is an important anti-oxidant, helps protect against cancers, heart disease, stress, it is part of the cellular chemistry that provides energy, it is essential for sperm production, and for making the collagen protein involved in the building and health of cartilage, joints, skin, and blood vessels [3].

Aronia berries are high in vitamins, minerals, and folic acids.

Aronia fruit derived products have been widely studied and have gained popularity as a healthy food source, as well as for medicinal purposes [7], while the high content in phenolics, especially anthocyanins derivatives, is at the basis of most medicinal benefits. [8]

The juice from *A. melanocarpa* berries is an important source of phenolic compounds with antioxidant properties: procyanidins, anthocyanins, (-)-epicatechin, chlorogenic acid, neochlorogenic acid [1], [9].

Medical research has documented many health benefits of aronia berries.[10]. Pîrvu L et. al [8] demonstrated anti-inflammatory power effect of the fruit of *Aronia Melanocarpa* and dermal tolerance testing in rabbits (see Fig.3). The skin was examined 24 hours later, to evaluate the degree of erythema, oedema, desquamation, scab formation and any other lesions. Examination was repeated after 48, 72 hours and 7 days. Anti-inflammatory power is similar to that of indomethacin.

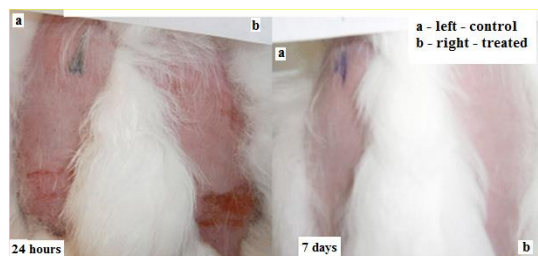


Fig. 3 Anti-inflammatory power effect of the fruit of *Aronia Melanocarpa* and dermal tolerance in rabbits [8]

Materials and Methods

Plant material: Mature *Aronia Melanocarpa* fruit samples (see Fig.4), approximately 1 kg each was collected from Dragasani Vâlcea in September 2016. The marketing conditions of these products were recreated in the laboratory by stocking them at 4°C.



Fig.4. Aronia Melanocarpa Fruits from Dragasani - Vâlcea

A. EXTRACTION OF ASCORBIC ACID FROM SAMPLES

The extracts were obtained following the next protocol: 15 gram fresh fruits of Aronia melanocarpa fruits as extracted with 10 mL of acidified solutions methaphosphoric acid 5%. The residue was re-extracted until the extraction solvents remained colorless (the total solvent volume was 50 mL). The extract was filtered through a Whatman no. 5 filter paper. Fruit juices were prepared using a robot type fruit squeezer. Juice clear samples was filtered to remove pulp and seeds and stored in already labeled plastic containers were stored at refrigerated at 4°C for seven days after processing.

Acid ascorbic concentration was determinated by titrimetric method on Aronia juice pulp clear juice and fresh fruits.

B. STANDARDIZING SOLUTION AND TITRATION OF JUICE SAMPLES:

Vitamin C standard solution: 1mg/mL

Vitamin C solution (10 mL) was titrated into 100 mL conical flask and 10 drops of starch solution was added. This will be until the first blue colour which persisted for about 20 sec was observed. Juice samples and fresh fruits extracts (10mL) were titrated. The initial and final volume of iodine solution required to produce the colour change at the end point was recorded triplicate in all cases.

C. CHEMICAL ANALYSES

Vitamin C from fresh fruit and juice was determined using KIO_3 titration and pH of the juices was evaluated using a digital pH meter pH/mV Cond /TDS/Temp at 25°C (see Fig. 5).



Fig. 5. pH - Aronia Melanocarpa juice (Day 3)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The level of ascorbic acid was found 127,85 - 120,08 in fresh fruits and 180,42 – 150,42 in fresh juice is in agreement with the other studies in literature. Our results illustrated that ascorbic acid should be responsible for the effective antioxidant properties of the Aronia Melanocarpa extract (see Table 1).

Table 1. Evolution of vitamin C and pH during storage

S/NO		Sample		Ascorbic Acid mg/Kg and mg/L			pH			Diference	
		Common Name	Botanical Name	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Vit. C	pH
1	Fresh Fruits	Chokeberry	Aronia M.	127.85	122.36	120.08	3.58	3.50	3.45	7.77	13
2	Fresh juice	Chokeberry	Aronia M.	180.42	174.86	150.98	3.45	3.40	3.37	29.44	8

The pH fluctuations were measured between 3,58 - 3,45 from fresh fruits and juice between 3,45 - 3,37. These results show differences depending on the fresh fruit and fresh juice and retention time (see Table 1).

pH is the main factor affecting the stability of vitamin C, thus high values of pH favoring the oxidation processes of vitamin C [3]

It is recommended fresh juice, squeezed and consumed immediately.

CONCLUSIONS

The relationship between food and health is becoming increasingly important, customers are now demanding healthy, tasty, natural and functional, which were grown in uncontaminated environments. [3]

Aronia Melanocarpa are high in vitamin C but results presents in this study confirm the degradation of vitamin C in time that the Aronia Melanocarpa extracts.

REFERENCES

- Oszmianski J., Wojdylo A., *Aronia melanocarpa* phenolics and their antioxidant activity, *Eur Food Res Technol*, 2005; 221: 809–813;
- Kulling S.E., Rawel H.M., Chokeberry (*Aronia melanocarpa*) – A review on the characteristic components and potential health effects, *Planta Medica*, 2008; 74: 1625–1634;
- Leahu A, Damian C, Oroian M., Ropciuc S., Physico-chemical parameters of fruit juices - evolution during storage, *Lucrări Științifice-Seria Zootehnie*, vol. 59, 2013;
- Corina Costescu, D. Părvu, A. Riviș, 2006. The determination of some physical-chemical characteristics for orange, grapefruit and tomato juices, *Journal of Agroalimentary Processes and Technologies*, Volume XII, No. 2 (2006), 429-432. Experiment 1: Determination of Vitamin C (Ascorbic Acid) Concentration in Fruit Juice; *Food Science and Technology Strand Laboratory 1: Food Science and Technology Strand*, 2013;
- Njoku PC, Ayuk AA, Okoye CV. Temperature effects on vitamin C content in citrus fruits. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition*.;10(12):1168-1169, 2011;
- Kokotkiewicz A., Jaremicz Z., Luczkiewicz M.. Aronia plants: a review of traditional use, biological activities, and perspectives for modern medicine. *J Med Food*.,13(2), 255-69, 2010;
- Pirvu L., Panteli M., Rașiț I., Grigore A., bubueanu C., The Leaves of Aronia Melanocarpa L. and Hippophae rhamnoides L. as source of active ingredients for biopharmaceutical Engineering, *Agriculture and Agricultural Science Procedia* 6 , 593 – 600; 2015;
- Oprea E., Manolescu B.N., Fărcășanu I.C., Mladin P., Mihele D., Studies concerning antioxidant and Hypoglycaemic Activity of Aronia melanocarpa fruits, *Revista Farmacia*, Vol 62, 2014;
- Everhart E., Aronia: A New/Old Berry Crop for the Northeast Horticulture Consulting, 1208 Chestnut Street, Atlantic, IA 50022-2236, 712-254-4035
- Lemamy G.J., Lubrun M., Omuouessi S T., Ndeboko B., Mouecoucou J., Evolution of biochemical and physical parameters of two fresh-cut fruits over storage at 4°C, *Academic journals*, vol p, 239-248;

Order of the International Ban and Albania's Agreements with Other Countries

Ph.D Nikolin Hasani

University "Ismail Qemali" Vlore

Faculty of Human Sciences, Department of Law

Abstract

Higher stage of cooperation in criminal matters between European states is undisputed the adoption of the International Order of Prohibition (UEN) which was materialized by means of Decision Framework Constitution Nr.584¹, dated June 13, 2002. This decision was endorsed by the EU Council and published in its official bulletin on June 18, 2002. Among the EU member states this order replaces classical Extradition procedure, except when some member states have declared that they will continue to implement the conventions of Extradition.² From this moment the extradition procedures applied within the EU, are without legal force. The aim of this paper is to present a brief analyse of Albania's agreements with other countries, pointing out specific aims of them, specific conditions of implementations according the specific need for judicial cooperation between Albania and each of these countries.

Key words: international ban order, international cooperation, judicial cooperation.

Order of the International ban

Extradition procedure has been replaced with a more flexible, simpler, like most of arrest procedure applied by the relevant authorities in a member country. It should be noted that in essence the procedure and scope of the UEN is similar on Extradition, but the first were eliminated administrative bureaucracies making more efficient this instrument, merging the boundaries concerning the submission of the defendant by a Member State in another one .

UEN responds the best to primary objective of the Treaty of Amsterdam. So starting from 1 January 2004 between Member States of the EU are not applied to bilateral or multilateral international agreements on Extradition, that are:

European Convention on Extradition, Paris, 1957, with two additional protocols.

Convention on the simplification of extradition procedures between EU countries, in March 1995.

EU Convention on Extradition, in September 1996, etc

Agreement between Albania and other countries

Albania has signed several agreements with different countries with the sole purpose to fight crime, to carry out the punishment of prisoners and detainees, but also to influence the reintegration, socialization and rehabilitation with the family, relatives enabling their transfer from prisons or detention abroad of detention in prisons in the country. Some of the agreements have been signed with Greece, the Kingdom of Belgium, the UK, etc., for example:

Agreement between the Government of the Republic of Albania and the Council of Ministers of Bosnia and Herzegovina on cooperation in combating crime, especially terrorism, illegal drug trafficking and organized crime, signed on 24.03.2009, entered into force on 04.03.2010.

¹ Council Framework Decision 2002/584/JHA of 13 June 2002.

² European Order of Prohibition - Valbona Ndrepepaj.

Agreement on cooperation between the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Albania and the Republic of Bulgaria in the fight against trafficking, organized crime, signed on 01.29.2007, entered into force at 4:10. 2007.

Convention between the People's Republic of Albania and the Czechoslovak Republic on Legal Helpers award for civil, family and criminal matters, signed on 16.01.1959, entered into force on 28.05.1960.

Protocol for Cooperation in the field of justice between the Ministry of Justice of the Republic of Albania and the Ministry of Justice of the Arab Republic of Egypt, signed on 15.12.1994, entered into force on the date of signature.

Agreement between the Republic of Albania and the Arab Republic of Egypt on extradition, signed on 02.04.2002, entered into force on 26.07.2004.

Agreement between the Government of the Republic of Albania and the Republic of Latvia on cooperation in the fight against organized crime, illegal trafficking of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and precursors of other crimes, signed on 16.12.2009, entered into force on 22.07.2010."?

2.1. Convention between the Republic of Albania and Republic of Greece on mutual enforcement of court decisions in criminal matters¹

The Republic of Albania and the Republic of Greece, desiring to expand the juridical relations between the two countries and advance cooperation in the judicial sector, and to facilitate the social reinsertion of persons who have been convicted, remain agree to enter into this Convention regarding the implementation of mutual judicial decisions in criminal matters and for this purpose appointed as the Almighty: Prime Minister of Albania and Prime Minister of Greece, who exchanged the relevant documents which were confirmed as they were designed as needed, put the following provisions: Transfer execution and results.

The transfer request

Article 6

If the state of the sentence deems that are fulfilled, under this Convention, the conditions for the transfer of execution may lead the request to the execution state to transfer the execution of a sentence or measure involving deprivation of liberty has been taken

Admission: Article 7

On the basis of the application provided for in Article 6, which is associated in the documents referred to in Article 13, the state of implementation of the sentence informs state the date and place of the transfer or delivery of prisoners. From the time of delivery of execution of actions in state suspended.

Article 8

When the petition, which is provided for in Article 6 is accepted, the court replaces the state of implementation of the sentence imposed in the State of with a punishment or an analog measure of deprivation of liberty responds to its nature and duration. However, if the penalty or measure of deprivation of liberty for the type or duration of it is incompatible legislation of the State of enforcement, the court of the latter adapts it to the punishment or measure provided for by the law of opportunities for nature or its duration, with the decision for implementation. Despite this state of implementation can not return a sentence of detention in a punishment of liberty other than if its legislation does not provide for punishment of imprisonment for the violation in question. In any case, the state of implementation can not make an assessment of the evidence underlying the decision taken in the State of.

Ways of implementation of decisions including the bail, set by the legislation of the state of implementation.

¹ *The decision of the Constitutional Court No. 6, dated 30.4.2004*

Transfer shall in no case be brought worsening the position of the convicted person.

Duration of the arrest in the state of conviction shall be calculated entirely on the extension of the sentence or measure to be served on the state of implementation.

Results of implementation

Article 9

Subject to the provisions of Article 8, the decision of the State of sentencing, if the transfer of the application, the same legal results in the state of implementation of those decisions on criminal matters in the latter.

If the convicted person evades enforcement in the state of implementation class, state of the sentence takes its right to enforce the sentence for the remainder.

The right of enforcement of state definitely cease to exist if the inmate was convicted or acquitted definitely.

Agreement between the Republic of Albania and the Kingdom of Belgium "On the transfer of sentenced persons"¹

The Republic of Albania and the Kingdom of Belgium, interested in boosting relations of friendship and cooperation between the two countries and in particular the strengthening of legal cooperation; Desiring to resolve issues by mutual agreement on the transfer of sentenced persons, while respecting the fundamental principles of human rights universally accepted; Desiring to allow persons convicted to serve their period of detention in the country of which they are citizens, in order to facilitate their social reintegration; located in this spirit, to maintain the highest level possible, in addition to the terms and conditions of the European Convention on the Transfer of Sentenced Persons, signed in Strasbourg on March 21, 1983, the mutual cooperation in the transfer of sentenced persons imprisonment, have agreed as follows:

Article 1

General provision and expressions used in this Agreement shall be interpreted within the meaning of the European Convention on the Transfer of Sentenced Persons, signed in Strasbourg on March 21, 1983.

Article 2

Convicted persons are subject to an expulsion or deportation order

At the request of the sentencing State, the state executive, according to the provisions of this article may agree on the transfer of a sentenced person without the consent of that person, when the sentence given to the latter, or an administrative decision following of that sentence, includes an expulsion or deportation order or any other measure as a result of which one person would not be allowed to remain in the territory of the sentencing state when he or she is released from prison.

Executing country does not give his consent for the purposes of paragraph 1 before having taken into consideration the opinion of the convicted person.

For the purposes of this Article, state sentencing State gives performers a declaration containing the opinion of the sentenced person in connection with the transfer of his or her proposed; and a copy of the expulsion or deportation order or any other order, which has the effect that the convicted person not allowed to stay in the territory of the sentencing State when he or she is released from prison.

Any person transferred under the provisions of this Article shall not prosecuted, punished or arrested, in order to implement a decision or order of detention for any offense committed prior to the transfer of his or her different from that for which it was given punishment It should apply, he or she does not even restrict the freedom of his or her personal information for any other reason, except when the sentencing state authorizes: a request for authorization, accompanied by all relevant documents and a record legal any statement made by the convicted person.

¹ Law No. 10 378, dated 24.2.2011

The authorization is given when the offense for which requested this authorization shall be subject to extradition under the law of the sentencing State or when extradition would be excluded only because of the sentence and the convicted person has had the opportunity to leave the territory of executing country state, has not done so within 45 days of the release of his or her final, or if he or she has returned to that territory after leaving it. Executing country may take the measures necessary under its law, including proceedings in absentia to prevent any legal effects of lapse of time.

Extradition agreement between Albania and the UK ¹

Binding agreement to transfer the prisoners would allow the British government to transfer legitimate Albanian citizens from prisons in the United Kingdom for their country, to carry out the rest of the sentence. Also, the British prisoners in Albania will be transferred to prisons in the United Kingdom. In both cases, the prisoner will carry out the punishment imposed by the court. But the transfer to a prison in their country will increase the welfare of prisoners and eventual reintegration into society, for example by allowing a greater contact with their family. This is the first bilateral agreement of the UK for the transfer of prisoners which offers a compulsory transfer outside the European Union, as well as a very positive development in relations between Britain and Albania.

Transfer of sentenced persons between the Republic of Albania and Italy

In support of the Council of Europe Convention "On the Transfer of Sentenced Persons", "Republic of Albania ratified by Law no. 8499, dated 10.06.1999, "the Additional Agreement to the Council of Europe Convention on the transfer of sentenced persons" between the Republic of Albania and the Republic of Italy, ratified by Law no. 9169, dated 22.01.2004, Articles 512-518 of the Criminal Procedure Code, the Law on the Prosecutor's Office;

In order:

Increasing efficiency in jurisdictional cooperation as regards the transfer of prisoners between the Republic of Italy and Albania;

Regulation of the unification of the procedure transfer of prisoners, Albanian citizens, who suffer the punishment of imprisonment on the basis of a court decision final, given by the Italian judicial authorities;

Defenition of modalities for the implementation of this form of co-operation.

Conclusions

The literature shows that the Albanian legislation in this area has undergone developments and continuous improvements, toward international standards accepted by responding to dynamic needs and growing demands for change and reform in the system of penitentiary and suffering sentence, and aiming to guarantee the rights and fundamental freedoms.

Albania's commitment to aligning with the EU legislation and to implement international standards, shows the serious and concrete steps to achieve these objectives. It is worth to highlight that the legal framework, the Constitution, the Criminal Code, Code of Criminal Procedure, the Law "On the execution of criminal judgments", the law "On the rights and treatment of prisoners" and other laws and regulations Main this field have brought development and continuous improvement, both in the criminal justice system in general, as well as the transfer institution, implementing social rehabilitation programs, aimed at modifying the criminal behavior and training in social skills.

References

Marrëveshje ekstradimi ndërmjet Shqipërisë dhe Britanisë së Madhe, nënshkruar më 22 korrik 1926.

Assenov and Others v. Bulgaria, vendim i datës 28 tetor 1998, Raporte të vendimeve dhe gjykimeve 1998-VIII, fq. 3296.

¹ *Extradition agreement between Albania and the United Kingdom, signed on July 22, 1926.*

Hoxha,A.:Ekstradimi sipas instrumentave ligjore të BE. Ngjashmëritë dhe ndryshimet me instrumentat e Këshillit të Europës.Tiranë 2010.

Hysi,V. 2009. Penologjia.Tiranë 2009.

Kodi Penal i Republikës së Shqipërisë Miratuar me ligjin nr.7895, datë 27.1.1995. Botim i Qendrës së Botimeve Zyrtare.

Konventa midis Republikës Popullore të Shqipërisë dhe Republikës Çekoslovakë mbi dhënien e ndihës juridike për çështjet civile, familjare dhe penale, nënshkruar më 16.01.1959, hyrë në fuqi më 28.05.1960.

Marrëveshje ekstradimi ndërmjet Shqipërisë dhe Britanisë së Madhe, nënshkruar më 22 korrik 1926.

Ligji Nr.8328, datë 16.4.1998 "Ligji Nr.8328, datë 16.4.1998 "Për të drejtat dhe trajtimin e të dënuarve me burgim dhe të paraburgosur".

Ligji Nr. Nr.8331, Datë 21.4.1998 "Për Ekzekutimin e Vendimeve Penale".

Ligj Nr.8499, date 10.6.1999 FZ. 22-1999. "Ratifikimi i Konventës së Këshillit të Europës", "Për Transferimin e Personave Dënuar".

Council Framework Decision 2002/584/JHA of 13 June 2002.

Council Frameëork Decision 2002/584/JHA of 13 June 2002.

Vendimi i Gjykatës Kushtetuese Nr.6, datë 30.4.2004

Ligji Nr.9911, datë 5.5.2008 "Për disa ndryshime në ligjin nr.7905 datë: 21.3.1995 "Kodi i Proçedurës Penale i Republikës së Shqipërisë" i ndryshuar pas Tetor 2004.

Ligj Nr.10 378, datë 24.2.2011. Marrëveshje midis Republikës së Shqipërisë dhe Mbretërisë së Belgjikës "Për transferimin e personave të dënuar".

The Model of Factoring Agreement to Develop Small Medium Enterprises in Indonesia

Siti Malikhatun Badriyah

Siti Mahmudah

Amalia Diamantina

Aju Putriyanti

Indah Susilowati

Diponegoro University Faculty of Law. Diponegoro University (Undip). Jl. Prof. Sudarto, UNDIP Tembalang Campus. Semarang 50275, Indonesia.

Abstract

The Small Medium Enterprises are benefited with factoring agreement as an alternative of financing scheme. The process of this scheme is more efficient since it is not required collateral, no time consuming and included for the account payable management as well as protection to the enterprises. The main objective of this research is to formulate a social engineering model as a short guide to regulate the factoring agreement for financing scheme to the observed Small Medium Enterprises. The progressive law, welfare of state, agreement, and the other relevant theory have been applied for this study. Further, the methods of legal pluralism and integrated with normative, sociology, and philosophy approaches have been invoked in this study. The result indicates that a positive prospect are found soundly. But of course need a strong commitment among the stakeholders in charged of A (academician), B (business), G (government), and C (community).

Keywords: Factoring, Agreement, Small Medium Enterprises, Law, Indonesia

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Up to now many business sectors, especially small and medium enterprises face many problems in their business activities. The problems generally associated with the ability and limited capital resources, weak marketing capabilities, weaknesses of credit management led to the increasing number of bad loans. As a result, the business continuity is threatened, which in turn makes the company obtain additional financing through finance institutions.

With factoring, companies can obtain financing more easily and quickly than by obtaining funds from banks. In addition, with the support of experienced personnel and experts in the field, the factoring company can help overcome difficulties of credit management, so that the seller accounts (creditors) may be more concentrated on increased production and sales activities.

Factoring is a financing that can be done by the Financing companies as defined in the Presidential Decree No. 61 of 1988 which was later repealed by issuing Presidential Decree No. 9 of 2009 on Financing Institution. The consideration of the government issued the decree is to support economic growth, the public needs funds, and the provision of funds, it is deemed to be expanded so that its role is as a means developing funding sources).

The main principle in the procurement of financial institutions is to help small and medium enterprises in the procurement of capital for business continuity. This is an evidence from the absence of an obligation for employers to submit material guarantees (collateral) to obtain funds through financial institutions, one of which is through factoring. It is different from the

bank, which has been defined in the Act No. 7 of 1992 as amended by Law No. 10 of 1998, which requires the debtor to submit warranty.

Article 1 point 6 Indonesian Presidential Decree No. 9 of 2009 stipulates that "the Factoring Company is a business entity that conducts business in the form of financing, the purchase of short-term receivables as well as the maintenance of accounts."

Factoring is an activity which essentially an agreement. Factoring agreement is not specifically regulated in Civil Code and other legislation. Settings available until now only administrative in nature, whereas the rights and obligations of the parties is not regulated. Factoring agreement may increase in Indonesia based on the principle of freedom of contract (Article 1338 paragraph (1) Civil Code). Factoring agreement can be subordinated to Civil Code Pursuant to Article 1319 Civil Code, which regulates the named and no named agreement.

According to Jenie, factoring agreement is a new type of independent agreement (*sui generis*). Factoring has administrative functions, protection of credit, financing function. Financing services, according to Djumhana through the transaction or contract, Factoring Company can provide pre-financing up to 80% of total accounts receivable. Transactions can be made on the basis of risk without recourse factoring the bills stalled taken over by the Factoring Company. No financing services, do the factoring company to serve the sake of the client's credit management. No financing services can be divided into four, namely: Credit investigation, Sales ledger administration, credit control, including collection. In this case the factoring company monitors sales made by either party clients, including billing procedures stipulated that the receivable accounts to be disbursed in time, Protection against credit risk by seeking ways to safeguard against the possibility of not cashing receivables (bad debts).

In a factoring agreement basically there are three parties involved, namely: (Factoring Company); The seller or bills receivable (client); debtors/ customer. Factoring Companies is a business entity that conducts business financing in the form of purchase and or transfer and management of short-term bills receivable or a company from trading operations inside or outside the country. According to Djairan, sellers Company receivables (client) is the party with the receivables arising from the sale of goods or services to customers with credit terms. The customers is the party who owes money to the company selling the receivables as a result of the purchase of goods or services from companies selling receivables with credit terms.

According to Jenie, factoring agreement is an agreement in the form of standard agreement, i.e the agreement form and content have been prepared in advance by one of the parties, namely by the Factoring Company. The client only accepts or rejects the agreement. If judging the overall content the agreement emphasizes client obligations rather than rights. This shows an imbalance in the relationship between the client with the Factoring Company.

An imbalance in the legal relationship of the parties which resulted in a lack of legal protection for the clients, while special arrangements regarding the factoring yet it is very urgent to do law reform in a comprehensive manner, in order to deliver to the factoring arrangement. Therefore, we need a model factoring agreement to provide legal protection balanced between the parties, especially in the development of small and medium enterprises.

B. The Problem of The Research

From the description of the background of emerging research issues as follows.

The problems of this study are:

1. How is the implementation of the factoring agreement for the development of small and medium enterprises in society?
2. What are the obstacles that arise in the use of factoring in the development of small and medium enterprises?
3. How is the model setting factoring agreement in the future for the development of small and medium enterprises?

II. Materials and Methods

A. Function of Factoring

In Article 1 point 6 Indonesian Presidential Decree No. 9 of 2009 stated that "the Factoring Company is a business entity that conducts business in the form of financing the purchase of short-term receivables as well as the maintenance of accounts."

Knowing the factoring activity, factoring is an activity which essentially is an agreement. Factoring agreement is not specifically regulated in Civil Code and other legislation. Settings are available until now only a mere regulation of an administrative nature, while establishing the rights and obligations of the parties is not regulated. Factoring agreement, can enter and expand in Indonesia based on the principle of freedom of contract (Article 1338 paragraph (1) Civil Code Factoring agreement can be subordinated to Civil Code Pursuant to Article 1319 Civil Code, which regulates the treaty named and not named.

According to Jenie, on the provision in respect of receivables purchase agreement as stipulated in Civil Code, the factoring agreement has clear similarities with the receivables purchase agreement. But to establish that the factoring agreement is a receivables purchase agreement as stipulated in Civil Code is also difficult. This is because there is no provision in the factoring agreement which does not contain in the provisions of the agreement of sale and the purchase of receivables, while these provisions are precisely the typical characteristics of a factoring agreement, which distinguishes it from an agreement of sale and purchase of receivables outstanding, so it can be said it is a new type of agreement independent (*sui generis*).

According to Ramlan Ginting, factoring has the following functions.

1. Administrative Functions.
2. Functions of credit protection.
3. The function of financing.

Regarding the factoring services, it can be divided into two main parts, namely:

a. Financing services

According to Djumhana through the transaction or contract, Factoring Company can provide pre-financing up to 80% of total accounts receivable. Transactions can be made on the basis of risk without recourse factoring the bills stalled taken over by the Factoring Company. According Tedjosaputra (1995: 7) In the case that the Company Factoring provides services financing, it can provide pre-financing to 80% or even 90% of the total accounts receivable, soon after the signing of the factoring agreement, and the production of evidence of sales of goods (invoices) to the Factoring Company, as well as after the fulfillment of the other conditions.

b. No financing services.

In the case that the Company Factoring provides no financing services, the company serves the interests of the client's credit management. No financing services can be divided into four, namely:

- 1) Credit investigation, before approving the purchase of receivables, the client requested Factoring Company to assess the ability to pay of the customer.
- 2) Sales ledger administration, together with sales accounting functions, which regulate the administration of client receivables.
- 3) Credit control, including collection. In this case the factoring company monitor sales done by either party clients, including billing procedures stipulate that the accounts receivable to be disbursed on time.
- 4) Protection against credit risk. In this case Factoring Companies seek ways to safeguard against the possibility of not cashing receivables (bad debts).

There are several types of factoring, among others from the perspective of the client's involvement:

(1) Recourse Factoring, the type of factoring, which, if the Company Factoring did not get a bill from the customer, then the client is still liable to pay it off. There is even a kind of recourse factoring which provides an option for the Company's receivables factoring to sell back to the client.

(2) Without Recourse Factoring, which is a type of factoring that puts a strain bill along with all the risk entirely on the Factoring Company. Thus, if there is a failure in the collection of accounts receivable, the responsibility of the Company Factoring themselves and the client no longer in charge, unless there is an element of fault on the part of clients.

B. Legal Relationship of the Parties to the Factoring Agreement

In a factoring agreement basically there are three parties involved, namely:

- a. Factoring Companies (Factoring Company);
- b. The seller or bills receivable (clients, client);
- c. Debtor (debtors, customer)

Factoring Company is a business entity that conducts business financing in the form of purchase and or transfer of receivables as well as the maintenance of a company from trading operations inside or outside the country. Seller Accounts Receivable (client) is a company that sells and or transfer receivables arising from commercial transactions to the Company Factoring. According to Djairan Company receivables seller is the party with the receivables arising from the sale of goods or services to customers with credit terms. Vending companies such receivables are comprised of companies the manufacturer, supplier, or wholesalers who usually sell goods or services to others for resale to the final consumer.

Company customers is the party who owes money to the company selling the receivables as a result of the purchase of goods or services from companies selling receivables with credit terms. The company's customers can consist of manufacturers, suppliers, wholesalers, or retailers that sell goods or services to the end consumer.

According to Jenie, factoring agreement is an agreement in the form of standard agreement, i.e the agreement form and content has been prepared in advance by a party. In general factoring agreement is made raw, in this case the rights and obligations of the parties have been determined by the Company Factoring. The client-side only accepts or reject the agreement.

According to Kusumowardani, Factoring Company does not require collateral from the client. Insufficient clients ensure that the receivables are sold billable to the customer. This is one of the characteristics of financing with factoring that distinguishes it from financing that distinguishes it from financing services in the form of bank loans. that distinguishes it from financing services in the form of bank loans.

C. Method

This study uses a triangular concept of legal pluralism, which integrates: philosophical approach, natural law (morality / ethics / religion, Normative approach, state law (positive law, sociological approach, societal (socio legal approach). The location of this research is DKI Jakarta and Semarang and primary data sources and activities, consists of: (1) Institute of makers of Law (Law Making Institution): government, Parliament, (2) Stakeholders (Role Occupant), namely government, business, community; (3) Institute IMPLEMENT Sanction (Sanction Activity Institutions) or the Law Enforcement Institutions, namely Judges; (4) Domain Expertise: Legal Experts Economics and Technology, Law and Society, Civil Law and Business Law, Contract Law, Security Law, Law of Financing.

The data in this study was obtained through the activities of observation, interviews, conducted indepth interviews with open-ended questions and closed questions . The research is fitted with a research library. The primary data analysis techniques used Strauss and J. Corbin, the researchers analyzed data from the field . Conduct an analysis of all the facts juridically, philosophically and sociologically then used to make the setting ideal construction of the factoring agreement to provide legal protection for the development of SMEs. Secondary data analysis, conducted in deductive and inductive logic.

The validity of the data relies on the "degree of reliability" (level of confidence) or credibility via triangulation techniques and methods.

III. Results and Discussion

The implementation of the factoring agreement for the development of Small and Medium Enterprises

In the agreement there are three stages, the pre contractual, contractual and post-contractual. At the pre-contractual stage It occurs offer and acceptance between the parties client and factoring companies. Contractual stage occurred since there is no agreement between the parties. Furthermore, post-contractual phase is the implementation phase of the agreement. The agreement should be based on the principles of law contract which includes:

1. The principle consensualisme: the agreement is based on agreement.
2. The principle of freedom of contract: the freedom of the parties determine the parties, the form of the agreement, the agreement.
3. The principle of pacta sunt servanda: the binding force of the agreement, meaning that the agreement that has been agreed as the law applicable to the parties.

The results showed that the factoring agreement meets the characteristics of a standard agreement, as drafted unilaterally by the Factoring Company. Clients only have the option to accept or reject the agreement. Clients are not involved in setting up and did not have the opportunity to change the contents of factoring agreement that has been made in the form factoring agreement. With the signing of factoring agreement, it is considered that the client has approved the agreement, and bound to the agreement, although if judging the overall content of the agreement emphasizes client obligations rather than rights. This shows an imbalance in the relationship between the client with the Factoring Company.

The imbalance and these deviations can be further described as follows.

- 1) The obligation of the client is to submit warranty.
- 2) Clause with recourse.
- 3) Right Factoring Company collects in any way.
- 4) The obligation of the client is to provide information about the state of the customer, and protect the interests of the Company Factoring in all respects.
- 5) The Right Factoring Company is to change the cost of factoring any time without the consent of the client.

The imbalance and distortions can be seen in the following results:

Table 2

Factoring Agreement irregularities in practice.

Irregularities or mismatch Philosophically and Juridically, it ideally should be Empirical Facts.

1. The obligations of the client is to submit a guarantee there is always a
2. recourse clause: if the Company Factoring does not get the bill from the customer, entirely the responsibility of the client should it be the responsibility of the Company Factoring in providing services non financing which is always a clause of accomplishing receivables with recourse
3. Right Factoring Company to collect in any way supposed memperhatika ways that really do in any way

4. Right Factoring Company to change the cost of factoring any time without the consent of the client (this is contrary to the principles of treaty changes that it must deal with the agreement of both parties as well as the implementation of the clause in the agreement Factoring Companies that can change at any time without the client's consent.

Source: A study of the Agreement Text and practices.

C. The Constraints of the Implementation Factoring agreement for Small and Medium Enterprise Development.

In the implementation of the factoring agreement in the development of small and medium enterprises there are many obstacles as follows:

1. There are no specific rules about factoring agreement.

Factoring is an activity which essentially is an agreement. Factoring agreement is not specifically regulated in Civil Code and other legislation. The settings that are available until now only administrative in nature, whereas the rights and obligations of the parties is not regulated. Factoring agreement may enter and flourish in Indonesia based on the principle of freedom of contract (Article 1338 paragraph (1) Civil Code). Factoring agreement can be subordinated to Civil Code Pursuant to Article 1319 Civil Code, which regulates the treaty named and no named agreement.

2. The difficulties of provision of a guarantee by the client.

Small and medium-sized companies generally do not have objects that are sufficient to meet the requirement to provide collateral in obtaining factoring financing .

3. Lack of ability in the management of client accounts.

4. All the risks of billing charged to the client. In general, small and medium enterprises do not have enough ability to manage accounts. As a result, frequent bad loans that could disrupt the availability of funds in the development of its business. In addition, small and medium enterprises may have difficulties in concentration for the marketing of their products.

5. The client must only sells receivables to a factoring company. It thus creates difficulties due to limited sources of outside financing.

D. Model Factoring Agreement on the Future for the development of Small Medium Enterprises

The presence of various obstacles in the implementation of factoring in the development of small and medium enterprises have demanded a renewal of the law, especially the law of contract governing the agreement factoring in a comprehensive manner, covering all components in the legal system, which, according to Friedman composed of substantial components , structural components and cultural component, because all the three have a strong bond. Robert B. Seidman argues that "The law of non-transferability of law", which is a proposition that the laws of a nation can not simply be transferred to other nations. It is caused by the social structure, culture nurseries law was not the same. Changes in the value or the basic rules of society demanding to amend laws in order to constantly adapt to the society.

The development of national laws is the fundamental base philosophy of Pancasila and the Constitution of the State (1945). Grand political design of national law is based on the paradigm of Pancasila is the paradigm of the Godhead (moral religious), humanitarian (humanistic), nationality (unity / nationalistic), democracy , social justice.

Reconstruction is an important source of social relationships to achieve common order. Nonet and Selznick, argued that the law is responsive, that is the law as a facilitator of response to social needs and social aspiration.

Satjipto Rahardjo offers a concept of Progressive Law contrasting of the two components which are the basis in law, namely the rules and behavior .Here, the law is placed as an aspect of behavior, but also at the same rules. The law is for man and not vice versa. If the law is not able to achieve such a guarantee, it must be done, and there must be a concrete effort to that law, including carrying out arrangement and rearrangement. Law is in the process to continue to be (as a process of law, law in the making). Because the law is for a man, it must be in accordance with human existence where the laws are. Therefore, in the efforts to reform national laws, there should be assessment and excavation national values based on

Pancasila and rooted in values that exist in the community (the values of religious and cultural values / customs). Laws should reflect three basic values by Gustav Radbruch called *idee des recht*, which include fairness, expediency and legal certainty.

Based on the theories and concepts related to the factoring agreement, we need a regulatory model factoring agreement in the future to provide legal protection of the parties, including small and medium enterprises in order to develop optimally. The models of the agreement are as follows:

1. There is specific regulation of the factoring agreement, which will guide the community in the development of business, so there is a balance of the legal relationship of the parties and the creation of a justice, expediency and legal certainty.
2. without recourse factoring. The existence of this clause will provide an opportunity for entrepreneurs, especially small and medium enterprises to concentrate more on the promotion and marketing of the product because it is not preoccupied with receivables management.
3. Guarantee of government, so that small and medium businesses can obtain financing through factoring optimally for their business development. On the other hand, the factoring company gained a strong guarantee to provide factoring facilities.
4. Balance the legal relationship of the parties, to realize a justice for the parties
5. No Change of agreement at any time without the client's consent. Agreement is the result of agreement between the parties, so that if there is an agreement should be rechanged between the parties. Thus, there is no arbitrariness of one of the parties.
6. Billing According to legal procedure
7. In accordance with the legal principles of agreement and factoring principles. In this case in accordance with the principles of contract law (principle of consensualism, freedom of contract, *pacta sunt servanda*), values of Pancasila and the 1945 Constitution, the UNIDROIT Principles.

CONCLUSION

The Implementation of factoring agreements often shows Irregularities / mismatch Philosophical and Juridical. The factoring agreement is an agreement in the form of standard contract, namely the agreement form and content that has been prepared in advance by one of the parties, by the Factoring Company. Client-side only takes or leaves the agreement. If the agreement reviewed it is more emphasized the obligations of clients rather than rights. This shows the imbalance between the legal relationship with the client and Factoring Company.

The difficulties of the implementation are there are no specific rules about factoring agreement, the difficulty to provide collateral, The entire payment is the client responsibility, The lack of clients capability for receivable management, the Clients can only sell receivables to a factoring company.

The Factoring Agreement models in the Future: There is specific regulation of factoring agreement; without recourse factoring, Guarantee from the government, The Balance of legal relationship of the parties, No Change of agreement without the consent of the parties, The debt collection of Factoring company According to legal procedure, no accordance with the legal principles of agreement and factoring principles.

REFERENCE

Arief, Barda Nawawi -, 2008, *Kumpulan Seminar Hukum Nasional, ke I-VIII dan Konvensi Hukum Nasional*, Pustaka Magister, Semarang.1994, *Kebijakan Legislatif dalam Penanggulangan Kejahatan dengan pidana penjara*, Badan Penerbit UNDIP, Semarang

Barda Nawawi Arief, 2005, *Pembaharuan Hukum Pidana dalam Perspektif Kajian Perbandingan*, PT Citra Aditya Bakti, Bandung.

- Barda Nawawi Arief, 2008, *Kumpulan Seminar Hukum Nasional, ke I-VIII dan Konvensi Hukum Nasional*, Pustaka Magister, Semarang.
- Badiyah, Siti Malikhatun, 2010, *Penemuan Hukum dalam Konteks Pencarian Keadilan*, Badan Penerbit Universitas Diponegoro Semarang.
- Bogdan Robert -, dan Steven J. Taylor, 1993, *Kualitatif: Dasar-dasar Penelitian*, Usaha Nasional, Surabaya.
- Coffey, Amanda , 2006, *Reconceptualizing Social Policy: Sociological Perspective on Contemporary Social Policy*, Open University Press, McGraw-Hill Education, Berkshire-England.
- Darmodiharjo , Darji-, dan Shidarta, 1999, *Pokok-pokok Filsafat Hukum, Apa dan Bagaimana Filsafat Hukum Indonesia*, PT. Gramedia Pustaka Utama, Jakarta
- Denzin Norman K. -, dan Y. Vonna S. Lincoln, 1994, *Hand Book of Qualitative Research*, Sage Publication, California.
- Djumhana, Muhamad, 1996, *Hukum Perbankan di Indonesia*, Cetakan kedua, PT. Citra Aditya Bakti, Bandung.
- Faisal, Sanafiah -, 1990, *Penelitian Kualitatif: Dasar-dasar & Aplikasinya*, Yayasan Asah Asih Asuh, Malang.
- Friedman, Lawrence M-. 2009, *The Legal Sistem Social Perspective* , Diterjemahkan oleh M. Khozim dengan judul *Sistem Hukum Perspektif Ilmu Sosial*, Nusa Media, Bandung, 2009.
- Fuady, Munir , 1995, *Hukum tentang Pembiayaan dalam Teori dan Praktek, (Leasing, Factoring, Modal Ventura, Pembiayaan Konsumen, Kartu Kredit,)* Cetakan Pertama, PT Citra Aditya Bakti, Bandung.
- Ginting, Ramlan, 1993, *Factoring, Pengembangan Perbankan*, Nopember-Desember.
- Gunawan , Ahmad-, dan Mu'amar Ramadhan (Penyunting), , 2006, *Menggagas Hukum Progresif Indonesia*, Pustaka Pelajar, Yogyakarta-IAIN Walisongo, Semarang.
- Hutchinson, Terry -, 2002, *Researching and Writing in Law*, Piramont-NSW.
- Djairan, Karnedi -, 1993, *Lembaga Pembiayaan dan Peranannya dalam Menunjang Kegiatan Dunia Usaha*, Citra Aditya Bakti, Bandung.
- Jenie, Siti Ismijati , 1996, , *Beberapa Perjanjian Yang Berkenaan Dengan Kegiatan Pembiayaan*, Penataran Dosen hukum Perdata, Diselenggarakan Fakultas Hukum Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta.
- Marzuki , Peter Mahmud ,- 2005, *Penelitian Hukum*, Kencana, Jakarta.
- Menski, Werner -, , 2006 *Comparative Law in A Global Context, The Legal Systems of Asia and Africa*, Second Edition, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Miles Matthew B. -, and A. Michael Huberman, 1992, *Analisis Data Kualitatif*, UI Press, Jakarta.
- Moleong, Lexy 1996, *Metodology Penelitian Kualitatif*, Remaja Rosdakarya, Bandung.
- Muslih, 2004, Mohammad-, *Filsafat Ilmu Kajian atas Asumsi Dasar , Paradigma dan Kerangka Teori Ilmu Pengetahuan*, www.pmiub.files.wordpress.com.
- Nasution, 1992, *Metode Penelitian Naturalistik Kualitatif*, Tarsito, Bandung.
- Nonet , Philippe-, dan Philippe Selznik dalam A.A.G. Peters, Kusriani, 1989, *Hukum dan Perkembangan Sosial*. Buku Teks Sosiologi Hukum, Buku III , Pustaka Sinar Harapan.
- Rahardjo, Satjipto 2008, "Membedah Hukum Progresif", Penerbit Buku Kompas, Jakarta

..... 2004, *Ilmu Hukum: Pencarian, Pembebasan dan Pencerahan* (Editor Khudzaifah Dimiyati), Muhammadiyah University Press, Surakarta.

Siamat, Dahlan-, 1995, *Manajemen Lembaga Keuangan*. Intermedia, Jakarta

Simanjuntak, Emmy Pangaribuan-, 1994, *Lembaga Pembiayaan.*, FH. Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta. 1994, "*Lembaga Pembiayaan*", Fakultas Hukum Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta.

Strauss and J. Corbin, Busir, 1990, *Qualitative Research; Grounded Theory Procedure and Techniques*, London, Sage Publication.

Sudarto, 2002, *Metode Penelitian Filsafat*, Raja Grafindo, Jakarta.

Sutopo, HB , 1990, *Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif Bagian II*, Universitas Negeri Sebelasmaret Press, surakarta, HB
Sutopo, 1990, *Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif Bagian II*, Universitas Negeri Sebelasmaret Press, Surakarta.

Tedjosaputra, Liliana, 1995, *Tinjauan Yuridis Factoring (Anjak Piutang) Sebagai Lembaga Pembiayaan*, Penataran Dosen Hukum Perdata Perguruan Tinggi Seluruh Indonesia, Fakultas Hukum UNTAG, Semarang.

Wignjosoebroto, Soetandyo *Hukum, Paradigma, Metode dan Dinamika Masalahnya*, ELSAM dan HUMA, Jakarta, 2002 , hlm. 104.

Robert K. Yin, *Studi Kasus, Desain dan Metode*, PT Radja Grafindo, Jakarta.

Pancasila

Undang-undang Dasar 1945

Kitab Undang-undang Hukum Perdata.

Perpres No. 9 Tahun 2009 tentang Lembaga Pembiayaan.

The Empowerment Program for Villages Economy Improvement Through Alleviating the Law of Littercys of the Coastal Community Pati Regency Central Java Province – Indonesia

Etty Susilowati

Eko Sabar Prihatin

Amiek Soemarmi

Indah Susilowati

Diponegoro University Indonesia

Abstract

Pati Regency is a coastal region lies in the East-North of Central Java province. Most of the people are occupied as a small-scalers in fisheries and agriculture sectors. Based on Indonesia regulation No. 6 year 2014 re: Village, it is mentioned that for the purpose of business, thus village corporate board (called as Badan Usaha Milik Desa or BUMDES) could be operated as a business and/ or public services units in the respective village. However Bumdes establishment is required for a legal status by law. In facts, the regulation said that people or group or party in the village could not run a unit business or public services whenever they have not performed with legal status registered in the respective Local Government. Furthermore, those group or party is not eligible to manage or even to apply any kinds of grants from the government to expense their activities. It is indeed need to alleviate the illiteracy of law or regulation of people, especially for encouraging the establishment of village corporate board to improve the entrepreneurships of people in the targetted villages in the study area. This study mainly aims to outline a strategy to empower people in a smaller group target to upgrade their literacy to the related regulations and/ or laws in order to manage their enterpreneurships' activity in the village. The Sosio-legal research is applied in this study combined with mixed methods analysis of quantitative and qualitative accordingly. The results revealed that people are likely enthusiastic to reduce their illiteracy and keen on to learn how to improve their indigenus enterpreneurship in running their business with formal regulation and/ or law polishment as a legal entity.

Keywords: law, illiteracy, village, people, empowerment, Indonesia

Research Background

In the last decade, the paradigm of rural development in Indonesia has undergone shifts and changes, such as their basic awareness that resulted in the advancement and improvement of society in the determination on the development insight in general and economics in particular. Development was carried out largely to the structure closest to the community, i.e. the village, which has an important role in supporting the success of the national government at large. Village is a community unit which has the original order based on rights origins that are special.

The rationale in the Village Administration is diversity, participation, original autonomy, democratization and community empowerment (HAW Widjaja, 2003) in other words, the village has the authority to regulate and manage the society, as the village and administrative units that deal directly with the public, so that the position of a village in the implementation of development is very important.

The enactment of Law No. 6 of 2014 concerning Villages has brought new hope for rural communities in general. The village which has been overlooked in full, with the promulgation of Law Village will soon be lifted in order for better prosperity as the condition of the advance of urban, because the village was given the authority to regulate and manage the wealth of the village through the establishment of Village owned enterprises (BUMDes), as set out in Article 1, item 6 Act 6 of 2014 about the Village. The establishment of Village Owned Enterprises (BUMDes) is the realization of productive

economic management of villages conducted cooperatively , participatorily, emancipatorily, in transparency, accountably, and sustainably.

An important point related to the Rural Financeit has sources of income, the greatest value is derived from the State Budget (APBN), the rest comes from the Regional Budget(APBD) and revenue of the villages (Article 72 paragraph (1) and (2) of the Act 14 Th . 2015). The sources of these funds are fully utilized with good management, so that the value of the resulting growth is largely determined by the level of productivity of the use of village funds. Until now the potential institution is still not fully utilized by the public.

Indonesia is an archipelago that two-thirds of its area is water , the most population livelihood from agriculture and fisheries, which is still traditional and has the characteristics of mutual kinship. The existence of the village with its natural resources has been utilized to increase the rural income, which are directly related to agriculture, fisheries, creative economic products and other products according to the characteristics of their villages.

The largest area of Indonesia is a rural area, the abovementioned conditions reflect the lives of villagers (Irzal Effendi, et al, 2006).

Currently in Central Java, especially on the north coast of Java in Pati has grown in aquaculture the mainstay of coastal society i.e activities related to fisheries, including producing fish, either through capture, as well as aquaculture and or fish process to meet human needs of food as a source of protein. For people who live in large area of land they have developed agriculture and farming supported by the fertile land, and managed independently the developing agriculture.

Fisheries business in Indonesia consists of aquaculture fishermen, processing of fishery products, and all businesses involved in supporting fisheries, such as the food industry, fish seed, fuel, fishing gear for fisheries capture, aquaculture, fish processing, pharmaceuticals, as well as boats for fisheries (Irzal Effendi et al, 2006).

The business activities of the fishery commodities and other processing products as well as other supporting goods and services refer to fishery agribusinesses. The fishing business activities are always profit oriented. The supporting aspects of fisheries to increase coastal people's income are supported by capital, coastal natural resources that have a lot of fish, human resources, production management and marketing.

Most fisheries business has no adequate capital yet, so they do not have their own ship as the main capital in searching fish, so that it does not support fish capture in Pati. Aquaculture production is still constrained by our capital. The expertise of the entrepreneurs are not adequate as the majority of low-educated people, because they can not manage the business well.

Entrepreneurs are people who hold a fishing business that still largely establish joint venture as a community to engage in fisheries. In particular, mostly are small and medium businesses (SMEs) (Etty Susilowati, 2015). The formal business that has been registered in the Trade Department of Commerce Business owned by individuals and the Fishery Association.

In the Government programs that improve the welfare of rural communities, in terms of the Financial village has sources of income, the greatest value is derived from the State Budget (APBN), the rest comes from the Regional budget (APBD) and the revenue of the village. The sources of funds are fully utilized with good management, so that the value of the resulting growth is largely determined by the level of productivity of the use of village funds.

The purpose of this study is to examine and analyze the efforts of the regional government in empowering rural communities to manage fishery commodities, to improve the economy of the fishing communities of coastal areas Pati, Central Java.

II. Methodology

This research uses the *Social Legal Research* approach that examines secondary and primary data in the field. The research aims to determine the effectiveness of the law in reality and find a solution. The analysis of the research data was done by qualitative method, which collects data as much as possible from the research literature and spot research. The data was analyzed by the inductive method, and compiled systematically.

III. Framework

The long journey of the history of the village in Indonesia today has brought a fundamental change in the Indonesian state structure construction. The village has grown to such an extent that needs to be protected, and empowered in order to progress in all fields, so the village is currently strong, independent and democratic.

Development paradigm requires a change of development orientation towards economic growth in alternative development with an emphasis on participation and empowerment of the community.

The development paradigm shift is to develop and implement community development model that can be accepted by the public at large (acceptable), to community development model that can be applied or implemented. (Implementable).

A paradigm shift addressed include:

- The purpose of the development towards the equity and balance in harmony is the people's choice between the economic growth and the equitable distribution as a collective agreement.
- To change the success of macro development into regional approaches by taking into account the local wisdom.
- Shift to drive the dominant role of the government into the development approach that involves the wider community.

The context of sustainable development of rural areas has very important and strategic position. The major economic activities in rural areas including mountain areas of agriculture, plantations whereas people in coastal region are seeking fish and aquaculture. Empowering the fisheries sector is an effort to increase the potential and capacity in the fisheries sector which will add value to the wider community.

The local government is given authority through decentralization to manage his own region by potential and local wisdom of each region and given autonomy as much as possible to take care of all of government administration outside of the central government to make a policy area associated with the enhancement of the customer service and community empowerment, and real autonomy and responsibility.

The rural development is carried out from, by and for the people with the help of the government, so that there is an obligation between the local government and communities equally.

The establishment of Act 6 of 2014 concerning Villages, Villages providing the opportunity to establish a Village-Owned Enterprises (BUMDes) which aims to utilize all the potential economic, institutional, as well as other potential possessed by the village which is an agency or institution which can run economic enterprises that provide public services in a spirit of mutual kinship.

The mechanism of the rural development is a collaboration with a harmonious government activities, and the participation of society, even the rural development is done by the community itself, while the government provides guidance, direction, support, direct supervision, and coordination to dig up the people ability to improve their life and economic security, as well as the community development based on the empowerment and strategies as the main approach.

Empowerment defined by Wilkinson:

"Empowerment means providing people with the resources, opportunities, knowledge and skills to increase of reviews their capacity to determine reviews their own futures, and to participate and affect the life of reviews their community".

Wilkinson interpreted the development as empowering more natural development process, namely the formulation of the problem and the solution turned over to the community, to be able to give satisfaction to the community. The community empowerment is to provide benefits to the environment, which will enhance the potential of its resources to provide economic value to rural communities.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

IVA. Empowerment On Fisheries Sector in Enhancing Economic Community

In achieving the welfare, it is necessary to have a policy that provides access and opportunities for rural communities to drive the rural economy by exploring the potential of natural resources and human resources of the village that will be used as a source of rural income. Villagers who still uphold the nature of kinship heading in the direction of rural development for the future is the expansion of employment opportunities and economic diversification in rural areas to support the revitalization of agriculture, fisheries, forestry, and rural development.

An important point related to the rural economy contained in the Act no.6 Th. 2014, Article 72 paragraph (1) and (2) of the Financial village has sources of income, the greatest value is derived from the State Budget (APBN), the rest comes from the Regional (APBD) and the revenue village. In order to increase rural communities that received funding of about 1, 4 (one point four) billion Rupiah, every village builds infrastructure and manages the resources owned by the village in order to improve the rural economy.

The policy can be realized by the establishment of economic institutions managed entirely by the villagers. Established on the basis of Government Regulation it is also based on the initiation of the villagers who came from their economic potential, natural resources (NR) and human resources (HR), and should be managed appropriately and independently.

According to Ono Taryono, empowerment of agriculture and fisheries sector for rural development can be conducted through: first, the change of the agriculture / fisheries to develop optimally (enabling), encourage, motivate and raise awareness that agriculture / fisheries has the potential to develop and profitable. Second, strengthening the potential and power possessed in agricultural sector to become independent and sustainable by providing a variety of input and opens up various opportunities to deliver agricultural / fishery to be stronger. Third, protection of the structural barriers and unfair competition (Ono Taryono, 2007).

The institutional existence of a village, formal judicial confirmed in a decree issued by the government of the village, but not at the village government structure. It is to avoid the intervention of their own personal or group interest. So it is not controlled by certain groups with big capital in the countryside, then the ownership of the institutions should be controlled together where the main goal is to improve the economic standards of rural communities (Etty Susilowati, 2015).

Until now, Pati still can not develop, because it is constrained by legalities. Legality completeness is needed to disburse funds provided by the state, that every village receives 1.4 (one point four) billion Rupiah.

The difficulties or obstacles are to fulfill legal compliance business, especially the legality of shape, caused by uncertainty regarding the legality of the arrangement in the form of legislation about the village. Law No. 6 Th. Article 2014 of the Village. stipulates that Village Owned Enterprises (BUMDES) should be a legal entity, while Village Ministerial Regulation No 4 of 2015

The existing conditions resulted in the establishment of Village Owned Enterprise (BUMDES) through village regulations that havenot been set on the legality of forms of business, they generally refer to the Village Ministerial Regulation. It is one of the obstacles in the process of establishing Village Owned Enterprises (BUMDes.)

Village Ministerial Regulation No 4 of 2015 set also on the possibility BUMDes for petitioned to go bankrupt, it's just not regulated in details. Therefore the regulation on insolvency (BUMDes) based on Law 37 of 2004 on Bankruptcy and PKPU (Suspension of Debt payments) can not be implemented.

Bankruptcy is a way of debt accomplishment to debtors who have at least one of the two creditors and the debt is due and collectible. The individual company or partnership either incorporated or non-legal entity can be declared as bankruptcy. The legality of the company to determine who can be debtors that is declared bankrupt, thus the certainty of the legality of the corporate form is needed in Village Owned Enterprises (BUMDes), so Village Owned Enterprises (BUMDes) can be one form of company that can be accepted by the community as business partnership, to achieve the purpose BUMDes is using its economic potential, institutional, and other potential possessed by the village for public.

In coastal areas Pati , the empowerment in fisheries sector are :

- To encourage the expansion of economic activity, non-agricultural, which strengthen the fisheries sector, the fishing industry and its supporting services.
- To increase the capacity and the empowerment of rural communities, to capture local economic development opportunities, according to the northern coastal areas, that the major income is from fishing activities.
- To improve infrastructure evenly for the marketing activities of fisheries.

This policy is being enforced, but still not familiar in the community of the village institutions.

IV. B. Traditional Fisheries Activities in Coastal Region , Pati

The population and economic growth in Indonesia has prompted the increasing demand for fishery commodities from time to time. The fish demand will be met from the limited resources of fish. The tendency of increasing demand for fish has opened opportunities of the rapid growth of the fishing industry, both captured fisheries and aquaculture.

Settings on the fishery business, set forth in Article 25, s / d Article 45 of Law Number 31 of 2004 updated by Act Number 45 of 2009 on Fisheries. There are three types of business in fisheries namely:

1. Captured Fishery Enterprises.
2. Aquaculture Enterprises.
3. Fishery Processing.

Each type of business has its own production operational characteristics that will directly influence the emergence of various types of costs.

25 (1) of the Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 45 of 2009 on changes to cope Act Number 31 of 2004 on Fisheries. It says :

"Fisheries Business system implemented in the fishing business includes pre-production, production, processing and marketing"

Fishing business is divided into four (4) aspects, namely: pre-production, production, processing and marketing.

Fishery processing business is a business activity aims to improve fishing for added value of fishery products, both from the business captured fisheries and aquaculture business, the business activity aims to bring fishery products to wider market.

By its nature, the general cost of business consists of three types, namely: investment costs, fixed costs and variable costs. As for other forms of expenditure contained in the three types of fishery business:

1. Captured Fishing Business

The captured fishery business is an activity that focuses on producing fish by catching fish from inland waters (rivers, estuaries, lakes, reservoirs and swamps) or from marine waters (coastal and high seas), for example:

The catching tuna , pomfret sea and others.

The Cost includes :

a. Investment cost includes procurement:

- 1) ship or boat
- 2) machinery
- 3) fishing gear
- 4) capture tools.

b.Fixed cost includes:

- 1) Development of Fisheries Business License (SIUP); 2) Making Blue Pass.
- 2) The cost of ship / boat maintenance , machineries, fishing gear, the capture tools; depreciation cost .

c. Variable Cost includes:

- 1) The cost of purchasing Oil / Fuel; 2) the purchase of supplies on the sea -ice cubes 3) levy auction 4) the income share
- 5) The business of Aquaculture

2 Fisheries business or aquaculture is an business that aims to produce fish in a container that is maintained and controlled and profit-oriented. Example: catfish, carp, tilapia, catfish, etc.

Costs to be incurred include:

- a. The investment costs, including: - the cost of land acquisition; -The cost of pond construction;
 - Procurement Pumps; -Procurement fishing tools, nets; Procurement generator.
- b.Fixed cost , include: -Making License; -Making Blue Pass ; -Cost of pool maintenance , -Pump and capture tools .- Depreciation cost.
- c. Variable cost include: - the purchase of seed; -The purchase of fish food ; -The purchase of fertilizers, lime, pharmaceuticals..-The cost of harvest.

3. Fisheries Processing Business

Processing fisheries business is a business activity to increase the added value of fishery products, originating from the business of fisheries and aquaculture business . In addition the business activity also aims to bring fishery products to wider the market. Example:

the manufacture of fish nuggets, fish balls, fish crackers, etc.

Cost includes :

- a. The investment costs includes : procurement of land, construction, fish processing aids.
- b. The fixed costs includes : Making the Business License (License), Maintenance of buildings, wage labor, depreciation costs.
- c. Variable Costs: The cost of purchasing raw materials such as fish, oil purchases, purchases of water, salt purchases, daily wage labor.

In conducting the fishing business known as a small fishing (traditional) and modern fishermen (fishermen in the form of Enterprises with Large capital) fishing boats and fishing gear of course affect the results of fish catch.

Small fishermen are those who work daily to fish for the needs of everyday life, using fishing boats with most 5 Gross Tonnes (GT), because the relationship of fishermen with boats are very close, as they relate to the size and the type of the vessel whether it is an individual vessel or it belongs to the company that is strongly associated with licensing or permissions of fishing business.

Fishing business is divided into three (3) categories: Small, Medium and Large. The development of the three industries require big capital (investment and working capital).

The business activities of small scale fishing (traditional) also face a lot of problems, including:

First: The problem of marketing of fishery products, fish easy to damage, they are not long lasting so that small businesses are always in a precarious position.

Second: Production problems in the fishing business is more difficult to predict, the success rate is highly dependent on external factors such as season (climate) or internal factors include the limitations of the technology, facilities, infrastructure and capital.

Third: Financial issues and capital / capital resources obtained from fishing groups or associations of fishermen who sell the fish capture to collectors / owners of the ship become a dependency, because to obtain investment the ship owner is obliged to provide funds to meet the need of fishermen in transition due to climate change.

Risks for small fishermen:

The business activities of small scale fishing or traditional has irregular result. This is often the reason for financial institutions not to give guarantee / loan capital, where the financial institution sets forth the terms of the collateral high and difficult to meet the entrepreneurs of small scale fishing. Therefore the activities of fishing business will be bound by the regulations / legislation Enterprises, Law on Foreign Investment, where Fishery conducting the catch operations area also depends on the flag ship, fishing grounds, other regulations.

IV.C. Traditional Fishery Enterprises in the coastal region Pati.

The traditional fish processing business in Pati conducted by fishermen together with their relatives along the beach in coastal sites with processing methods inherited. The traditional characteristic of processing is the type, the quality of various raw materials affected by its environmental conditions. The process and the procedure are always different according to the place, the individual. The state is more dependent on nature so that the products are not the same quantitatively and qualitatively.

The size of the vessel will determine the fishing gear and fishing area as well as the number of the result of fish catch, because the operational costs of fishing will be affected by the size of the ship, the span to the location of fishing (fishing ground), the amount of time needed as well as the size of the expenses for fish preservation, the cost of supplies and other expenses.

According to the FAO terminology, traditionally processed fish "Cured FISH" is a product that is processed in a domestic industry. The types of process includes traditional processing products namely : smoked fish, fermented products such as soy sauce, peda, fish paste, where the product is also obtained in Asia, Africa and even Europe (UK, Norway, Poland).

In the small town of PATI, to accommodate the domestic fish production, they have a modern fish processing products with the clotting process (coolstorage), which has a variety of fish species and sizes that are much available matches the industry's capacity. The establishment of PT Putra Leo Nusantara, a company that holds fishery products derived from households that are familiar and has mutual help can accommodate 90% of the fleet of boats / vessels for fishing, where fishermen who earn fish capture the slightest got facilities of preservation, storage and transportation for fish that is possible to be sent to processing factories.

Such conditions provide opportunities to be developed, due to the availability of fish resources and high demand, the number of domestic industries and simple technologies, the traditional processing needs to get to the legality of establishment of legal protection.

In the development at the initial stage, the domestic industry is a small industry that has the following characteristics:

1. The residence and place of work is in one residential building;
2. All working the management, implementation, production and sales are done by the members of one family.
3. Capital used in industrial activities mixed with household money needed to spend day-to-day livelihood;
4. Informal jobs without permission from the government, so the work was not subject to the regulations of State / Government;

5. The profit and loss of the business is difficult to define as the production capital is always mixed with the money for the household

In the next phase there is already physical separation between a house for shelter and buildings to work, though it is still in the same yard. Likewise, between the family and working groups, the working capital and the money for household, has no separation and is not always noticed by small entrepreneurs.

The development of the small industry in general, the company grew from a privately owned or owned by a few people, as generally owner-manager or owner is a company leader who is assisted by several permanent and or seasonal helpers.

The development of forms of fishing business from the production of fishermen household is still traditional and familiar has mutual aid into end the problems of traditional fishermen in developing his venture into bigger business entities and has legality to provide protection in the acquisition of Capital Guarantee to increase welfare.

V. Conclusion

- In rural Indonesia, in order to utilize all the potential economic, institutional, as well as other potential possessed by the village is for public welfare. The majority of Fishing business in coastal communities Pati is conducted by small fishermen having traditional fisheries business activities with a small capital and simple tools, the character of kinship and mutual assistance which has the same goal of improving the economy of coastal communities. It is necessary to obtain legal protection through legal entities owned businesses in order to develop and improve the economy of coastal communities in the fisheries sector.

- In coastal areas Pati, the empowerment of local government development in fisheries in particular.

- Encouraging the expansion of economic activity, non-agricultural, which strengthen the fisheries sector, the fishing industry and its supporting services.

- Increase the capacity and empower the rural communities, to capture local economic development opportunities, according to the northern coastal areas, mostly as a major income from fishing activities.

- Improve infrastructure evenly for the marketing activities of fisheries.

Reference

Amiek Soemarmi, Sengketa Nelayan dalam penggunaan Alat Tangkap Perikanan (Studi Kasus Berlakunya Peraturan Menteri Kelautan dan Perikanan Nomer 2 Tahun 2015 tentang Larangan Penggunaan Alat Tangkap), hasil penelitian, dengan biaya DIPA/PNBP Tahun Anggaran 2015.

Ety Susilowati, *Dari Lembaga Ekonomi Desa Menuju Badan Usaha Milik Desa*, 2015.

H.A.W Widjaja, *Otonomi Daerah: Merupakan Otonomi yang Asli, Bulat dan Utuh*, (Jakarta: PT. RajaGrafindo Persada, 2003).

Irzal Effendi dan Wawan Oktariza, *Manajemen Agribisnis Perikanan*, Penebar Swadaya, 2006.

Siti Mahmudah, Tinjauan Yuridis Terhadap Kerjasama Pola Subkontrak pada Industri Kecil, 2008, Thesis, Program Kajian Hukum Ekonomi dan Teknologi, Program PascaSarjana Ilmu Hukum, Universitas Diponegoro, Semarang.

The Premises of the National Economy's Development in the Context of Integration into the European Economic Area

Chisca Maria, Ph.D. Cand.

Crudu Rodica, Assoc. Prof. Dr.

Abstract

In 2016, there were 194 recognized independent states in the world, members of the United Nations Organization. There are very rich states among these countries, but most of them are comparatively poor and need the help and support of the rich ones. The size of these countries according to geographical area, the population, the size of GDP varies from country to country. Since the economic growth is one of the main indicators of countries' welfare, it has become a challenging issue for the researchers worldwide. What factors influence the development of a national economy in the right way, making the living standards increase and the population wellbeing grow? This article has a goal to identify several competitive sectors of the economy that have potential to lead to sustainable economic growth for Republic of Moldova. The Republic of Moldova is relatively a young independent state, since the dissolution of USSR, and faces some problems that need to be solved in order to increase country's welfare. The results of analysis showed that following industrial sectors: wine; textiles and apparel; information and communication technology; footwear; construction materials and furniture have the most potential for contributing to transformational growth in the Republic of Moldova economy. A big step in achieving this is signing the DCFTA with European Union. The importance of EU trade relations with the Republic of Moldova is of great impact on its national economy. The Republic of Moldova needs all the support and help of its powerful neighbour in order to achieve higher economic growth and to increase the competitiveness of its products on EU market.

Keywords: world economy, economic integration, international integration, European integration, external trade, export, import, absolute advantage, comparative advantage, competitive advantage, global competitiveness index, structural changes, economic growth, industrial development.

Introduction

There were 194 recognized independent states in the world, members of the United Nations Organization in 2016. There are very rich states among these countries, but most of them are comparatively poor and need the help and support of the rich ones. The size of these countries according to geographical area, the population, the size of GDP varies from country to country. There are big countries with resources, still poor with lower HDI like India, China, Russia; and there are big and rich countries like USA, Canada and others. There are also small, but rich countries like Switzerland, Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, and many small and poor countries with a medium to very low HDI like the Albania, Republic of Moldova, Gambia, etc. Since the economic growth is one of the main indicators of countries' welfare, it has become a challenging issue for the researchers worldwide. What factors influence the development of a national economy in the right direction, making the living standards increase and the population wellbeing grow?

In human history, nothing compares to the impact of the industrial revolutions on the national economies and world economy, also on the living conditions of the population. It's amazing how the national economies had changed since then. The continuous growth of the GDP, GDP per capita, foreign trade is the consequence of the Industrial Revolutions. So, there is no doubt, that over the last 250 years, the greatest result of this event had been the change of the regime, as the world economy began to experience a new era, named by the American economist Kuznets S. "the modern economic growth". Another American economist, William Baumol, believed that the modern economic growth and capitalism are synonyms by writing the following "What is obvious to the historians is the fact that the capitalism is unique in registering extraordinary growth, it was able to accomplish periodical industrial revolutions that produced an outpouring of well-being

non-existent so far in human history". The modern era has been characterized by the boom of the birth rate, increasing life durability, rapid urbanization, diversified systems of employment and a steadily increasing income per capita worldwide. However, the industrial revolution and economic growth had not expanded proportionally throughout the world which resulted with a global inequality without precedent. So, nowadays we have about 20% of countries with a very high level of development and about 80% with medium to low level of development. Therefore, these developing countries need all the support and help of the developed ones in order to reduce the gap between them.

Moldova's economic options

Speaking about the Republic of Moldova, it should be mentioned that its development had been influenced by all these events and after gaining its independence, followed by establishing political and economic relations internationally, it still didn't find its place in the world economy. Its geopolitical situation had oriented Moldova toward the decision to restore lost links in the former Soviet Union. This decision was taken on 21 December 1991 in Alma-Ata, Kazakhstan, where the Republic of Moldova signed the Treaty on establishment of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), becoming a full member of this community. The experience of the last fifteen years has demonstrated that this community is not functional and efficient.

Another way to promote international economic relations were the relations with the European Union (EU). After the collapse of the Soviet Union, European Union, at that time European Community had to take a position regarding the New Independent States: Declaration of the European Political Cooperation Extraordinary Ministerial Meeting on the Situation in the Soviet Union, The Hague, 20 August 1991. But the highlight of this statement was completely defined by the document on 16 December 1991, in Brussels, Declaration of the Extraordinary European Political Cooperation Ministerial Meeting on the "Guidelines on the Recognition of New States in Eastern Europe and in the Soviet Union".

According to this document, on 1 January 1992, the European Commission sent a thorough analysis to the European Council regarding relations between the European Community and the new members of the Commonwealth of Independent States. In order to give a legal framework to recent events, European Community proposed to replace the Trade and Cooperation Agreement signed by the European Community with the Soviet Union, with individual agreements signed with each former Soviet republic. Negotiations with the CIS countries were launched on 1 November 1993, with the exception of Moldova, who only replied on 28 January 1994 to the European Commission proposal to define the relations with the European Union. It was the first step taken by the Republic of Moldova in European direction. Still, Moldova had a long and difficult way in the evolution towards the European course.

On 28 November 1994 has been signed the Partnership and Cooperation Agreement between the European Union and the Republic of Moldova. This arrangement provides for a basis of cooperation with the EU in the political, commercial, economic, legal, cultural and scientific areas. Until the entry into force of the Agreement, on 1 July 1998, between the EU and Moldova acted Interim Agreement on trade and trade related measures between the European Communities and Moldova, signed on 2 October 1995. This had encouraged trade exchange between the parties.

The EU Moldova Action Plan (2005) was a political document laying out the strategic objectives of cooperation between Moldova and the EU. It covered a timeframe of three years. Its implementation helped fulfill the provisions in the Partnership and Cooperation Agreement (PCA) and encouraged and supported Moldova's objective of further integration into European economic and social structures. Implementation of the Action Plan significantly advanced the approximation of Moldovan legislation, norms and standards to those of the European Union. In this context, it was built solid foundations for further economic integration based on the adoption and implementation of economic and trade-related rules and regulations with the potential to enhance trade, investment and growth. It furthermore helped to devise and implement policies and measures to promote economic growth and social cohesion, to reduce poverty and to protect the environment, thereby contributing to the long-term objective of sustainable development.

In January 2010, Moldova and the EU began negotiating an Association Agreement (AA), including a Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Area, to replace the PCA. The EU Association Agreement (AA) was initiated on 29 November 2013 in Brussels. It was signed on 27 June 2014 and was being provisionally applied starting 1 September 2014. On 1 July 2016, the Association Agreement (AA) between the European Union and the Republic of Moldova fully came into force, following ratification by all 31 signatories. The Agreement introduces a preferential trade regime – the Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Area (DCFTA), which is very important for the development of Moldovan economy and foreign

trade particularly. So, it depends on the Republic of Moldova to take full advantage of this agreement and evolve in the direction of European integration.

Trade competitiveness of Republic of Moldova's main sectors

The Republic of Moldova is relatively a young independent state, since the dissolution of USSR, and faces some problems that need to be solved in order to increase country's welfare. It is a small country with a small economy. Its growth and development prospects are related to the level of performance on both international and regional markets. Moldova represents the poorest and almost the most vulnerable country in the region which has a big dependence on the remittances and the exports of few commodities. Even if there was a noticeable economic growth in the last decade, Moldova's export still remains on the low level.

Talking about the competitive power of Moldova, imports and exports are structured reviewing the most competitive sectors that can help improving the export potential of the country.

The structure of the main export groups of the Republic of Moldova has changed in the last 10 years. Exports were based on machinery and vegetables, food products, like wine, which was 1st export product in 2003 and fell to the 4th place in 2013, mainly due to the trade restrictions imposed by Russia towards the Republic of Moldova's export of wine. In 2013, the top export product represented electric conductors and cables, mainly because of the foreign firms that changed the production structure of the country.

Income per capita has grown very high, reaching an average rate of 5.8 percent. This resulted from the merchandise expansion driven by the imports. From 2006 to 2016 the import rate has been growing at an annual average rate of 16 percent. On the other hand, the exports rate has not shown such dynamics as imports and it has been growing at a slower average rate of 13 percent, experiencing a 20 percent decrease in the year 2009. On the Figure below we can observe the balance of trade of the Republic of Moldova between the years 2006-2016.

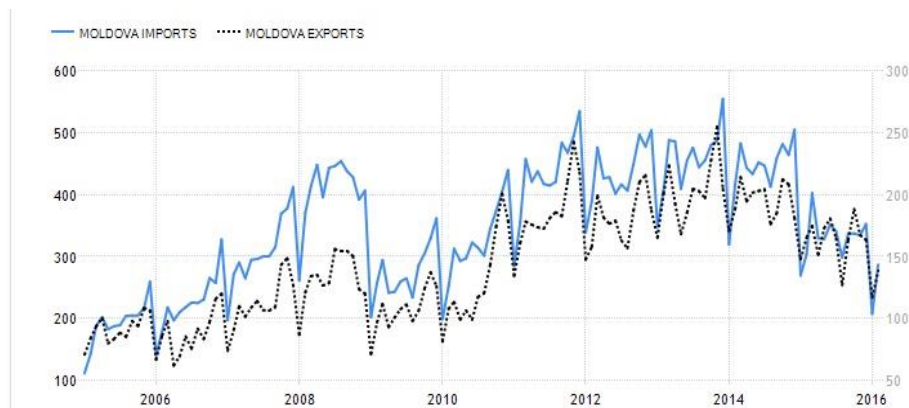


Figure 1.1. Republic of Moldova's imports and exports, 2006-2016, million USD

Source: Trading Economics.

Available under the following link: <http://www.tradingeconomics.com/>

The share of the oil seeds, fruits and nuts as well as cereals and vegetables increased between the 2000 and 2002 and 2010-2013. Machinery and electronic equipment (medical or surgical instruments, vehicle/transport equipment, etc.) also have increased its ration in the export volume. Even if the foodstuff lost a big share in the last years, it still remains the second main export product of the Republic of Moldova. As a result of the process of gradual diversification, its share in the export basket fell to 26.4 percent in 2011-13.

Moldova reached international market share in export of some other products like cables and electric parts. According to the UNCTAD data, the Republic of Moldova has extended a high share in coaxial cables and parts of the seats, but on the other hand there is a high demand for the traditional export products of Moldova as sunflower seed, wine and apple juices. The lost in the market share of some main export products has been obvious in the last years. Products like wine in bottles, apples, spirits, walnuts and sunflower seed fall in demand reflecting mainly, the imposition of trade sanction by Russia in 2006 and the difficulties of the reorienting exports to other markets.

Market dimension is another great achievement of the Republic of Moldova's economy during the last decade. In 2003, Moldova had 63 export destinations growing to 103 in 2013. The exports destinations shifted from the Commonwealth of Independent States market to the European Union market, mainly due to the new export opportunities resulted from the implementation of the Association Agreement. The percentage of the Republic of Moldova's exports going to Russia decreased from 39.5 percent in 2003 to 9.2 percent in 2015. Markets such as China, Egypt and Turkey have become the top among export destinations in the last decade. Even so, Moldova is still looking for more markets in order to expand trade relations with more distant markets.

Therefore, we can see the correlation between the market composition and evolution of export destination. The correlation between exports and economic growth is a vast studied phenomenon which has a positive correlation and cannot be disputed, especially for small economies, such as Moldova, where exports play an important role in ensuring sustainable growth of the national economy.

Development of export potential of the Republic of Moldova is a priority area, which allows analysis of economic reality and potential of the country to integrate into the international economic circuit and face foreign competition. On the other hand, Moldova is trying to increase the competitive level and to refocus directions to other strategic markets, especially towards the European one.

According to the Competitiveness Report, the term competitiveness is associated with characteristics of successful companies that have the goal to provide products at a high level comparing to its competitors, and at the country level, competitiveness is the national institutions, all policies the State performs and the factors that help the development and growth of the economy.

The concept of competitiveness is not yet well defined and unique, being associated with productivity, profitability, management, efficiency at an enterprise, factors of production and the resources of a country that provides increased efficiency based on the availability of resources, competitiveness subsequently being associated with macro-economic indicators of a state.

Competitiveness is addressed in three hierarchical levels: the competitiveness of a country at macro-level and micro level, and the competitiveness of enterprises based on sectorial competitiveness of an industry. The concept of competitiveness cannot be analyzed separately because these three levels are interdependent resulting from one another. But for each level of competitiveness indicators are used distinct analysis to measure competitiveness and different management mechanisms of competitiveness. We can say that the competitiveness of a nation depends on the competitiveness of an industry and on the level of performance of national enterprises.

According to Balassa and Lafay indicators, there were identified the main sectors that the Republic of Moldova is currently specialized in, they are: Alcoholic beverages with Balassa index equal to 20, carpets (18.8), fruits (18.6), vegetables (11.2), oil seeds (11.1), sugar (10.4), cereals (8.5), clothing (8.1), vegetable and animal oils and fats (7.6).

Balassa index is used to determine the related competitive advantage of a country. On the basis of this index, a country is defined as being specialized in exports of a certain product if its market share in that product is higher than the average or, equivalently, if the weight of the product of the country's exports is higher than its weight of the exports of the reference area. A country reveals comparative advantages in products for which this indicator is higher than 1, showing that its exports of those products are more than expected on the basis of its importance in total exports of the reference area.

We are using the Balassa index to further determinate and analyze the export potential of Republic of Moldova by sections, including the comparison with other countries representing the world market for different types of goods. Therefore, in the next figure below is represented the export of Moldova by sections according to the Nomenclature of Goods, in 2015.

In Figure 1.2. we can observe the strongest sections with the largest share in total exports of the Republic of Moldova:

II Vegetable products – with a share of 25.5 %

IV Food; alcoholic beverages without alcohol vinegar; tobacco - with a share of 15.4 %

XVI Machinery and mechanical appliances, electrical equipment and parts thereof; sound recorders and reproducers and images - with a share of 15%

XI Textiles and articles thereof - with a share of 13.9%

VI Products of the chemical or allied industries - accounting for 6%

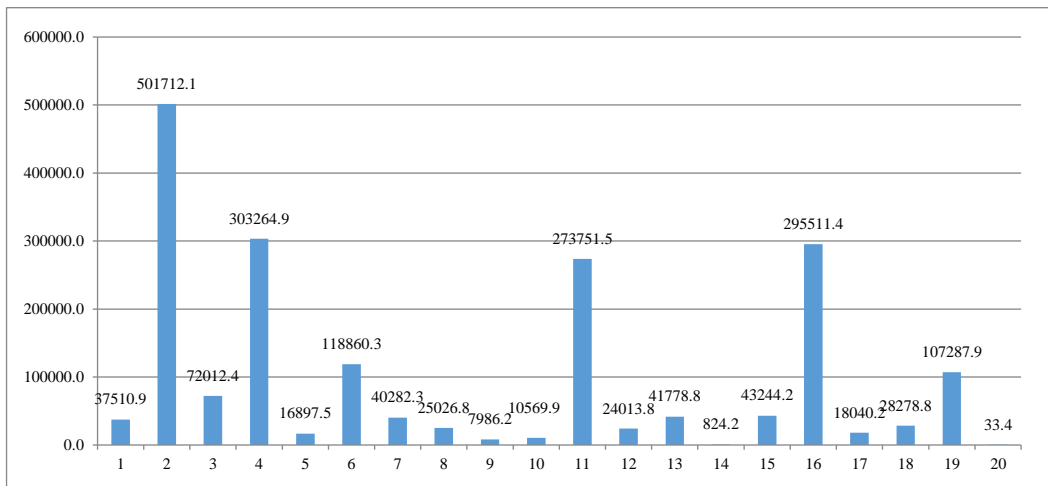


Figure 1.2. Export of the Republic of Moldova by sections, 2015, thousand USD.

Source: Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics. Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/category.php?l=en&idc=336>

Complementing the weight of these 5 sections we can say that they cover more than 75% of exports of 20 sections. The decrease of this indicator cannot be analyzed as a negative trend. This suggests that the market starts restructuring and begins to develop industries and products that were designated before for certain reasons.

In order to determine the sections that registered some jumps or slowdowns it is recommended to analyze the evolution of total exports in correlation with sections I, II and III. Next we will analyze the export potential of RM by sections according to the Nomenclature of Description and Coding.

Not so long ago, agriculture in the Republic of Moldova was considered ineffective because the sector had registered a low productivity and investments in this area were small and at inflated costs. This was comparable with the sector's productivity in Europe in the years of 70's.

At the moment we can say that the situation has improved, the investments in this sector has increased, and local farmers are considered quite competitive on foreign markets among certain categories of products. The biggest disadvantages of this sector are: erosion, landslides, natural disasters. The agricultural sector is considered a pillar of the national economy, contributing to the creation of GDP in the last 5 years with about 15 percent, and the sector is training over 33 percent of the workforce of the country. The total area of farmland in 2013 amounted 74.8 percent of the total land area of RM.

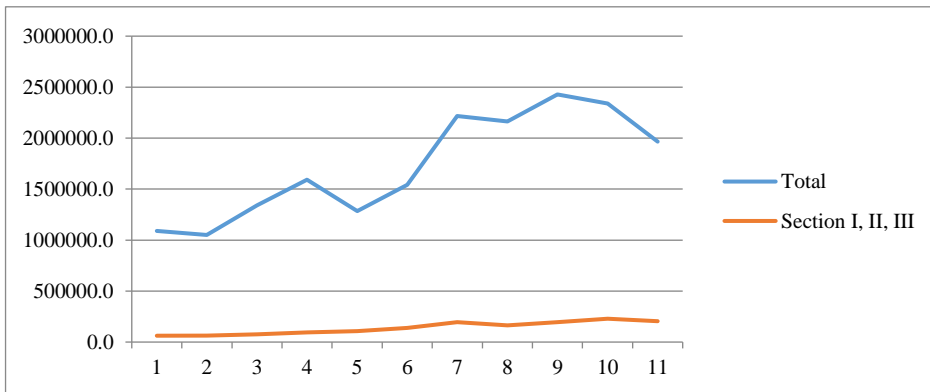


Figure 1.3. Evolution of total exports of the Republic of Moldova and Sections I, II, III in the Nomenclature of Goods, 2005-2015

Source: *Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics:*

Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/search.php?go=1&l=en&searchfield=evolution+of+exports>

According to Figure 1.3, the exports of Livestock Section I, II animal products and vegetable fats and oils and III Animal or vegetable; edible fats; animal or vegetable waxes are greater than imports. This is very positive for the Moldovan economy, demonstrating not only that the country produces sufficient amounts for the population but for export too.

Even if the Republic of Moldova suffered from an economic crisis in 2008, the first three sections of exports were not negatively influenced, moreover it increased by 621.640 USD. The economic crises from 2008 had significantly affected the total exports of Moldova which fell by 308 132 USD in 2009.

Analyzing the figure below we observe that the imports from Sections I, II, III are very small compared to total imports from the Republic of Moldova which means that the country has potential to produce enough for its consumers. Total imports of Moldova in the last 10 years were characterized by steady growth except for the year 2009 after the global crisis when it fell to 1,620,492.2 thousand USD. This significant decrease is observed in the year 2013 on imports of three sections when they decreased by 64072.5 thousand US dollars.

Total imports and the situation of the first three sections of the nomenclature of the Republic of Moldova's goods are not different, they both constantly evolving with a small decrease in 2009 after the global financial crisis.

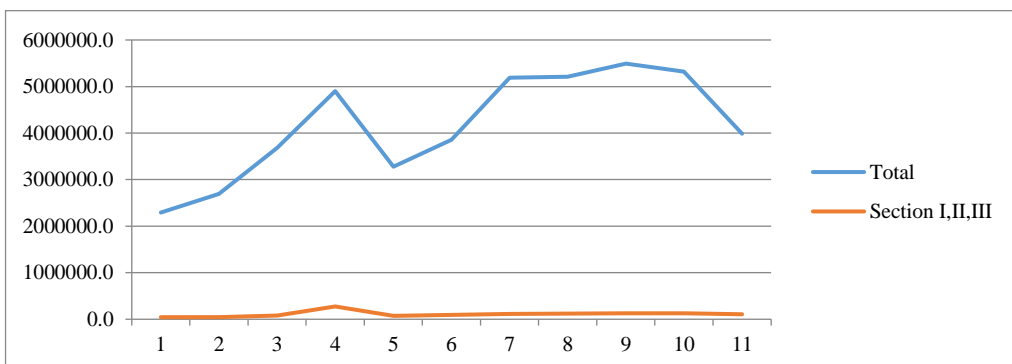


Figure 1.4. Evolution of total imports of the Republic of Moldovan and Sections I, II, III in the Nomenclature of Goods, 2005-2015

Source: *Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics*

Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/category.php?l=en&idc=336>

According to statistics shown in the figure 1.4 the fluctuation of imports for the last 10 years starting from 2005 tend to increase for the last couple of years. Goods in Sections I, II and III which are live animals and animal products, vegetable products and fats and oils of animal or vegetable origin have very low values.

Table 1.1. Exports of the Republic of Moldova of the categories 0101-0106, 2008-2015

(Thousand USD)

	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
0101	2446.4	10954.9	21641.4	21655.9	7167,5	33696.8	8927.4
0102	9203.6	7167.2	10750.8	9744.7	2658,1	14353.4	14351.7
0103	6.0	34.5	7.4	96.6	4,4	93.6	63.9
0104	56759.5	78576.3	86045.5	51873.7	44478,6	200820.8	128721.6
0105	140092.1	228848.1	280660.8	279848.1	117197,0	268710.9	253810.8
0106	16079.8	30616.0	15812.8	37345.3	8590,7	65487.3	48043.8

Source: *Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics.* Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/index.php?l=en>

According to the Table 1.1, there is a major increase in the category 0101, Horses, donkeys which in 2011 reached the rate of 21641.4 USD and which later in 2014 almost doubled reaching 33697 USD. Exports of the subcategory 0102 Live Animals of cattle species reached the maximum value in 2014 equal to 14353.4 USD followed by a big drop in 2015 to 14351 USD.

Exports of subcategories 01 livestock animals have reached a maximum value in 2010 of 9065, 00 thousand USD, but can be characterized by a sudden drop in 2011. In this way, the total value of exports was gaining a sudden increase in 2012, reaching the point of 7577.0 thousand USD.

Exports of such subcategories as 0103 Livestock animals from swine species and 0105 Livestock bird species was not improving, the main cause of this was a slowdown in consumption of swine meat in EU countries and prohibition for consumption in Muslim states. The export of subcategory 0104 is also characterized by slowdowns and insignificant increase, reaching its highest value in 2010 of 2168.0 thousand USD.

As follows, we will try to analyze the foreign trade of the Republic of Moldova and measure its competitive advantage by sections using the Balassa index.

Balassa index can be used to measure revealed competitive advantage of a country. It was defined by Bela Balassa and Mark Noland.

$$RCA_{ij} = (X_{ij} / X_i) / (X_{aj} / X_a)$$

where:

X_{ij} denotes the **export** of products j from country i

X_i denotes the total **export** from country i

X_{aj} denotes the total **export** of product j from reference area

X_a denotes the total **export** from reference area.

On the basis of this index, a country is defined as being specialized in exports of a certain product if its market share in that product is higher than the average or, equivalently, if the weight of the product of the country's exports is higher than its weight of the exports of the reference area. A country reveals comparative advantages in products for which this indicator is higher than 1, showing that its exports of those products are more than expected on the basis of its importance in total exports of the reference area.

The first three sections from the Nomenclature of Goods with the highest exports and imports are represented in Section II, Meat and edible offal. A positive fact for the country is that in all three sections exports are mostly higher than imports.

Table 1.2. Balassa index for I, II, III categories of goods of the Republic of Moldova,

2005-2015

Category of Goods According to NG	2005	2010	2015
01	9.47	24.08	10.49
02	-88.8	-45.87	-49.27
04	10.75	-65.7	-28.39
07	-29.03	-54.96	-47.08
08	54.97	48.57	44.58
10	84.65	75.92	78.03
12	41.94	54.51	70.66
15	58.52	42.31	56.07

Source: *Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics*

Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/index.php?!=en>

According to the Table 1.2 we can observe that the Republic of Moldova has a significant advantage for subcategory 01, where Balassa index is higher than 1 (one). On the table above we can observe the fluctuations of Balassa index, reaching its highest point in 2010 of 24, 08.

For the last five years among the top countries where the products from subcategory 01 are being exported is Syria. Other countries that currently remain in the top 3 importers of subcategory 01 Live animals are Libya and Jordan.

Subcategory 02 Meat and Edible Meat Offal is least competitive than the first one. We can see that Balassa indicator is not reaching one. Nevertheless, export of subcategory 0201 reaches the total value of 8240.00 thousand USD in 2012, followed by subcategory 0204 with the total value of 6880.00 thousand USD in 2011.

For the last five years among the top exports of subcategory 02 Meat and Edible Meat Offal were made toward Russian Federation, reaching an all-time high of 21438.0 thousand USD in 2012. Among other countries where Meat and Edible Meat Offal from subcategory 02 are exported are Kazakhstan and Iraq. (see Figure 1.5)

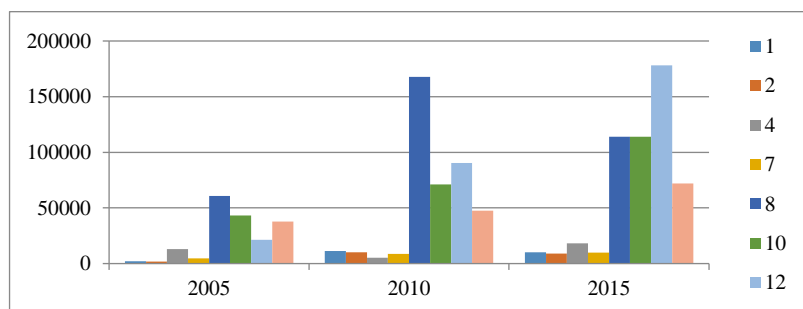


Figure 1.5. Export of I, II, III categories of goods according to the Republic of Moldova Nomenclature of Goods, 2005-2015

Source: *Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics.* Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/index.php?l=en>

According to Table 1.2, analyzing the subcategory 04 Dairy products; birds' eggs; natural honey; edible products of animal origin, not elsewhere specified or included are observed significant exports. We can see that the Balassa index has a positive value higher than one equal to 10.75 that points out the competitiveness of this subcategory. The highest export value was reached in 2011 with a total of 4632 thousand USD by subcategory 0406, followed by subcategory 0402 with a total value of 266 thousand USD in 2009. The export of honey is also characterized by constant and significantly high value of exports, registering the highest value in 2012 of 2315 thousand USD.

Analyzing the competitiveness of subcategory 04 Dairy produce; birds' eggs; natural honey; edible products of animal origin, not elsewhere specified or included, I can conclude that Moldova has a competitive advantage in export of honey that has the highest amount of export from this category.

The main markets for export of honey are: Germany, Russian Federation, Ukraine, the USA, Canada and Uzbekistan. Honey is one of the main Moldovan products where share in the European market is growing continuously. The Republic of Moldova annually produces about 4-5 thousand tons of honey. Experts are convinced that in a short time Moldova can at least double both honey production and exports.

In order to export to EU there is a need to fulfill a number of requirements for product quality. The main export partners for milk products are Russian Federation, CIS and Muslim countries. With the entrance of Romania into the EU have appeared certain difficulties with the export of milk products. Due to the large quantities of milk products of national producers and its invasion, the import of milk products was banned in 2009, which shows a negative Balassa index between the years of 2009-2015.

According to the Figure above, the total exports of subcategory 07 Edible vegetables and certain roots and tubers is in a constant growth, even though it has registered negative Balassa index for the years of 2005-2015. Total imports of edible vegetables are higher than exports. The most of products from this category are exported to Russian Federation, Belorussia, Italy and Romania. In 2012, it was registered a significant value of exports towards Russia, which constituted over 90% from total exports. In the last couple of years, the situation had changed due to the restrictions imposed by Russia.

Subcategory 08 Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit or melons has registered a positive Balassa index equal to 44.58 in 2015. Such high value of Balassa index points out the potential of the Republic of Moldova toward the export of this subcategory. Edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruit or melons are exported to Russian Federation and France which are at the first 2 placed among top importers. Significant exports of this category are performed to Belorussia, Greece, Germany and Iraq. The highest exports of all times were registered in 2015 towards Russia, with a total value of 194.658.7 thousand USD.

Subcategory 10 Cereals is highly competitive registering a positive and stable Balassa index for the years of 2005-2015. Among the countries where cereals were exported are Sweden, Italy and England. On the Figure 1.5 we can see a constant growth of category 10.

Subcategory 12 Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits; miscellaneous grains, seeds and fruit; industrial or medicinal plants; straw and fodder has registered an export potential with a positive Balassa index that is in a constant increase. We can observe that the total export of category 12 is increasing, registering the all-time high in 2015 of 178181.7 thousand USD. This category represents a great potential for the Republic of Moldova. Among the countries where these goods are exported are Sweden, Ukraine and Romania. In 2011 were registered the highest exports of this category of goods with the total value of 181522 thousand USD.

Subcategory 15 represents another competitive category of exported goods with a big potential, registering a significant growth in total exports throughout the years of 2005 – 2015 and a positive Balassa index, it reached its highest value in 2010 with a total of 668 thousand USD. The top importers of this category of goods are Romania, Ukraine and Italy.

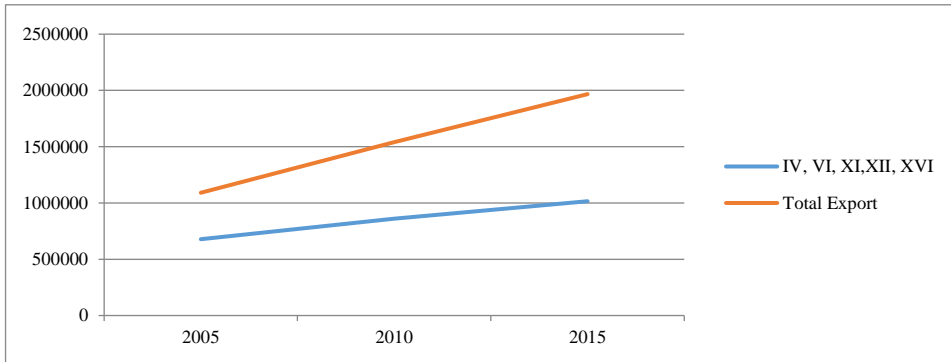


Figure 1.6 Evolution of total exports of the Republic of Moldova and Sectors IV, VI, XI, XII, XVI, 2005-2015

Source: Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics. Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/index.php?l=en>

In the past 12 years, we can see an impressive positive trend in section II, XI, VI and XVI. (See Figure 1.6) However, the evolution of Section IV, although it maintains that position with the largest share of national exports can be analyzed as largely stagnated. Mostly we see that growing value of exports for this section can be divided into two parts.

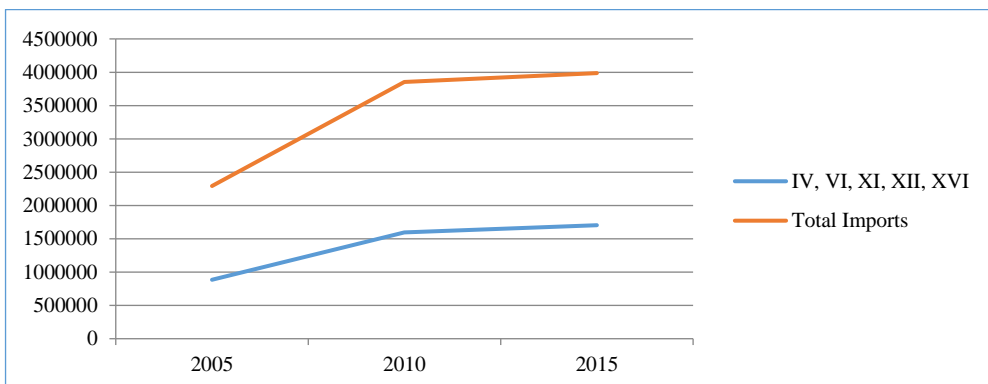


Figure 1.7 Evolution of total imports of the Republic of Moldova and Sectors IV, VI, XI, XII, XVI, 2005-2015

Source: Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics. Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/index.php?l=en>

On the figure above we can observe a constant increase in total value of imports of categories IV, VI, XI, XII, XVI and its movement comparing to total imports of Moldova.

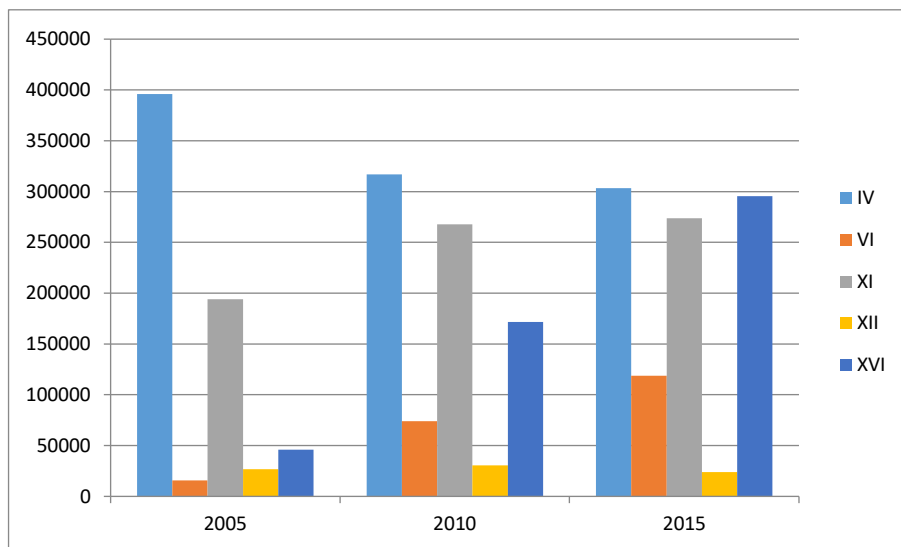


Figure 1.8 Export of IV, VI, XI, XII, XVI categories of goods of the Republic of Moldova according to the Nomenclature of Goods, 2005-2015

Source: Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics. Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/index.php?!=en>

Analyzing each category separately, the largest one is IV Prepared foodstuffs; beverages, spirits and vinegar; tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes that throughout the years have been registering the constant increase followed by the sudden drop due to the embargo placed by Russia. On the Figure above we can see an increase in total exports of group IV followed by an increase in Balassa index with an all-time high of 45.72 in 2005.

The evolution of total export value of Section IV observed in the Figure 1.8 also can tell a lot about the competitiveness of products and their importance to the economy of Moldova. One of the most surprising information is that from 2001 until 2005 Moldova has grown very substantial in export of group 22 Wine products from 69% to 79%. Subsequently, in 2006 and later in 2007 the same indicator fell to 49% with rapid growth in 2008. Over the years 2009 to 2012 the share of exports products of group 22 was stable at the level of 55%.

Currently, there are significant disparities between agricultural production systems of Moldova and the European countries, occupying key positions in the production of agricultural products and trade in food products and wine products. Moldovan farming sector dominates the small farms that practice subsistence agriculture. The slowdown in the development of this sector influences the development of Moldovan economy. Analyzing the Balassa index for this category we can conclude that group IV has a big potential for future development of Moldova.

Analyzing the industrial sector, it can be noticed that the industrial production of rubber and plastics currently has 187 small and medium sized enterprises, but they provide only 10-15% of consumption required. The trade balance deficit for this subgroup has always been common for our country, the deficit increasing every year. The share of processed rubber and raw rubber weight exceeds both the export and import.

Table 1.3 Balassa index for IV, VI, XI, XII, XV category of goods of the Republic of Moldova, 2005-2015

Chapter According to NG	2005	2010	2015
IV	45.72 %	1.33 %	5.40 %
VI	-87.41 %	-69.00 %	-61.32 %
XI	3.76 %	-2.66 %	-2.17 %

XII	37.09 %	16.00 %	12.10 %
XVI	-74.32 %	-54.12 %	-79.50 %

Source: *Elaborated by the author based on information from National Bureau of Statistics*

Available under the following link: <http://www.statistica.md/index.php?l=en>

Regarding the chemical industry, according to the latest statistics, it registered a decline of -30% in late 2013. The research undertaken by the National Profile on Chemicals Management in Moldova reveals that our country produces a limited range of chemicals, facing mostly for the domestic market, namely pharmaceuticals, dyes, paints and varnishes, cosmetics and perfumery. At present we have 69 companies operating in the chemical industry including 19 para-pharmaceutical factories for products and medicines, 12 factories of soaps, detergents and comets. However main use of chemicals is covered by imported products. This way we can see a negative Balassa index for the group VI and a slowdown in total exports of plastic.

Light industry is one of the oldest branches of the national economy. This sector is represented by three types of activities: manufacture of textiles (knitted and carpets); clothing; production of leather, leather goods and footwear (including manufacture of luggage and handbags) that fits all product groups from Section XI and XII of the Commodity Nomenclature of RM.

According to the Strategy of industrial development during 2015, light industry has become a priority branch of the national economy, as it has significant advantages, such as the ability to fit the activity for a large number of manpower, cycle relatively fast rotation of working capital, investments needs are not too large, the existence teacher training system at all levels. Currently nominated branch includes over 278 companies, including limited companies, from businesses and joint ventures, with more than 15 thousand people working in the sector.

Capacities of the country in the textile industry are limited. It gives domestic producers the vast majority of products and services in outsourcing production, who have a minimum contribution. Dependence on foreign markets in terms of import of raw materials and advanced manufacturing with a help of Art Technologies, as well as fierce competition hinder technological progress and productivity in this industry.

Furthermore, the internal factors that hamper the development of textile sector and competitiveness of the textile products are low technological potential and scarcity of FDI in light industry, labor migration and the absence of labor and human capital specialist poor infrastructure, inefficient public administration, and other.

During the period 2005-2015, the highest export value has been registered by group 62: accessories and clothing, other than knitted or crocheted; followed by group 61: clothing and clothing accessories, knitted or crocheted; 57: carpets and other textile floor coverings. In the last two years was a significant increase in exports of groups 60 and 63, which shows an increase in total value of exports of groups XI and XVII. Positive Balassa index for the group XII Footwear points out the potential of Moldova in light industry sector.

Foreign trade with Section XII continues to experience a positive growth with the exception of the global crisis that affected both imports and exports. The highest value export in Section XII has 64 group: Footwear, gaiters and the like as well as parts of these articles. Top 10 destinations export product sections XI and XII are Italy, Germany, US, Ukraine, Belgium, Romania, Russia, Netherlands, UK, Poland.

Analyzing the last group with the high exports XVI Machinery and mechanical appliances; electrical equipment; parts thereof; sound recorders and reproducers, television image and sound records and reproducers, and parts and accessories of such articles it has registered an increase in both total exports and imports.

Exports of electrical machinery and apparatus of Moldova have been changing since 1997. In 1997 the value of exports amounted to 45.7 mln. USD was followed by a steady increase until 2008, when exports recorded a value of 167.5 mln. USD. After the global crisis, exports have slowed down for Moldova, including exports of machinery and electrical appliances, which reached the total of 139.25 mln. USD. In 2009 was common for a drop of 17%.

Since 2012, Moldova's main partners for exports of electrical machinery and apparatus are EU countries. Exports to these countries amounted to 195 mln. USD, and represent 70% of the total exports. The share of CIS countries decreased,

reaching the value of 27 %. The main partners of Moldova regarding export of machinery, electrical equipment, are Romania, Russia and Ukraine, Kazakhstan and other CIS and EU countries.

Republic of Moldova revealed comparative advantage in terms of competitiveness in the production and marketing of nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery. The group XVI recorded a higher value throughout the years 2005-2015 in export of wires and cable toward EU states. Republic of Moldova holds great commercial potential in producing these goods. Even though group XV has registered negative Balassa value between the years 2005-2015 the development of industry and especially of wires and cable production holds a great importance for Moldova, especially since it is one of the most popular sectors for attraction of FDI.

We believe that only the synergy of qualitative economic growth coupled with an ongoing process of human development would allow Moldova to become more competitive internationally. A paradox, despite economic growth, competitiveness indicators of Moldova are getting worse because the human resources are not developing fast enough. If the Republic of Moldova won't try to become more competitive, it will not succeed in attracting external resources, ideas and technologies necessary for a faster and more qualitative economic growth in the future and strengthen its achievements in human development. The global dimension of economic, political and cultural processes becomes more visible. If it succeeds in building up a strong economy and overcome mediocre human development phase, Moldova will be able both to integrate harmoniously into the "global system" of nations and to participate advantageous to global competition.

4. Conclusion

The Government of the Republic of Moldova is trying to stimulate export of the country and improve the position of it on international arena as a country in transition due to the dependence on trade fluctuations worldwide.

Since the year 2006 when first barriers were implemented by Russia, Moldova started to move towards European market increasing both imports and exports every year. Today European Union is the main trade partner of the Republic of Moldova and the development of these relations brings positive trends in country's economy: GDP growth, increase in exports, free movement of goods and citizens between the borders.

The main barriers to the increase of export volumes in the world market include: discrepancies in regulation, non-compliance to national infrastructure of quality assurance requirements or lack of capacity to implement international and European standards, especially sanitary and phyto-sanitary.

Identifying competitive advantage of categories of goods is very important in developing Moldovan foreign trade. The main sectors in which Republic of Moldova currently specializes according to the Balassa index are: Beverages, where the Balassa index equals 17.1, carpets (18.4), nuts (18), vegetable dishes (9.3), oilseeds (9.2), tobacco (7.5), oils and fats of animal or vegetable origin (7.3), clothing (6.6), sugar (6), knitted textile materials (5.6), furniture, stuffed furnishings; lamps and lighting; etc.

Comparative advantage of the Republic of Moldova in certain economic branches such as agricultural sector, industrial sector, machinery, textiles, brings country a possibility to attract more FDI and to increase total export of goods. The development of those is a necessary way to become a full member of European market and improve Republic of Moldova's position on international arena.

Moldova should exploit the advantages arising from increased prices for agricultural products in the international market. There is also an urgent need to adopt and implement EU sanitary and phyto-sanitary measures for the production of animal origin in order to export these products to the EU market in order to increase export of goods from this sector.

Also Moldovan authorities should implement measures to encourage exports to increase their competitiveness, particularly those ecologically pure that are demanded on both European and international markets.

DCFTA agreement signed by the Republic of Moldova in 2014 has offered a unique chance to reach a more sustainable economic growth. The key components of DCFTA agreement are trade liberalization that stimulates exports of goods and services that the Republic of Moldova longs for.

If DCFTA is fully implemented in the last 10 years, it is promised to gain additional 7.6 points to current GDP rate of Moldova. Moreover, if Republic of Moldova makes a favorable climate for foreign direct investments attraction, the GDP expects to grow even higher, around 9.8 points compared to base line.

According to the study the Republic of Moldova should concentrate on DCFTA implementation as being the most credible development strategy. Its implementation will help to find the solutions for economic clauses. The dependence of the Republic of Moldova on European Union as number one trading partner guides it toward correct DCFTA implementation. Of course, the Republic of Moldova has to invest all its efforts to derive the highest possible benefits from DCFTA. Liberalization of trade between Republic of Moldova and European Union is important not only for economic stability and development of the country, but to ensure consumer surplus. Implementation of these general parts of DCFTA can fasten the process of trade liberalization and bring economic prosperity to the country.

References:

Baumol, W.J. The Free-market Innovation Machine: Analyzing the Growth Miracle of Capitalism. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2002. 301 p.;

Balassa, Bela; Marcus Noland (1989). "Revealed Comparative Advantage in Japan and the United States". Journal of International Economic Integration. 2 (2): p.8–22;

Easterlin R.A. Growth Triumphant: The Twenty-First Century in Perspective. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1996. p.202.;

Elsa Leromain, Gianluca Orefic. New Revealed Comparative Advantage Index: dataset and empirical distribution. Available under the following link: http://www2.cepii.fr/PDF_PUB/wp/2013/wp2013-20.pdf;

Hill Christopher & Karen E.Smith. European foreign policy: key documents/[edited by] http://hist.asu.ru/aes/EFP_Documents_0415158222.pdf;

KuznetsS. Modern Economic Growth. New Haven: Yale University Press,1966. p.222.;

Popa A., Prohntichi V., Oprunenco A., Evolution of Exports of the Republic of Moldova to European Union: The role of Trade Regimes, Chisinau: Expert Group 2008;

Radeke J, Giucci R., Lupusor A., Moldova's Trade Policy: Strategy, DCFTA and Customs Union, Chisinau/Berlin: Expert Group, 2013;

<http://ec.europa.eu/trade/policy/countries-and-regions/countries/moldova/>

<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/AG.LND.AGRI.ZS>

<http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/moldova/overview>

https://eeas.europa.eu/enp/pdf/pdf/action_plans/moldova_enp_ap_final_en.pdf

The Reflections of Supply Chain Management Practices on R&D

Mert KILIÇ¹

Harun DEMİRKAYA²

Faculty of Business, Department of Management & Organization, Kocaeli University

Abstract

The globalization of the world brings lots of interferences and relationships for the firms to have competitive advantage. As the logistics services has a very important role for both reducing the direct costs and the customer satisfaction, Supply Chain Management increases its importance by the large area of its effect for both inbound and outbound processes of logistics. R&D is also very critical for the firms to sustain themselves in the age of competition. The customers always desires the best and the most brand-new products on the cheapest price. So examining the relationship between these two very important factors is inevitable. In this paper, it is examined that what is the reflections of supply chain management practices on R&D.

Keywords: Logistics, Supply Chain Management, R&D, Competitive Advantage.

1. Introduction

Nowadays, the inner advantages created on the level of production are determined by the integration of not only the firms, but also the third parties just as the customers and the suppliers. Developing technology and increasing needs of the customers bring the necessity for the firms to change their ways of productions from "pushing type production" to "pulling type production". Because of that reasons, firms have to design their production systems and their relationships with the suppliers flexibly, compensating the requirements of the customers. In this way, firms have to increase customer satisfaction as keeping their level of costs and relationships on the optimum level.

The production organizations' opportunity to sustain competitive advantage in the global competition environment depends on:

- Production of the different products,
- Reducing the costs when sustaining the quality,
- Increasing productivity,
- Production of the salable products according to the rates of sales.
- Restoration of the levels of quality,
- Prompt responses to the potential changes of demands (Dursun, 2001; 28)

R&D is the systematic and creative works for new products and processes of productions. R&D is the organized endeavors directed to innovation of product and process and increasing scientific information. It's providing development for science and technology.

The humanity has come to the today's level of civilization with systematical works since recent history, but sometimes coincidences had played a big role before the recent history just like the apple, which drops down to head of Newton. Today, national economies and even the businesses came to the level that none of the developments based on coincidences. Therefore, countries and businesses should give the importance to the functions of research and development according to their extent of financial opportunities. For this reasons, Firms try to do their activities of R&D with a supply chain, completing each other.

In this study, we aim to reveal the extent of the relationship between R&D and Supply Chain and examine the management, costs and shapes of supply chain. We try to assess how a supply chain could be effective on competitiveness evaluating the cost structure, product and service manufacturing and trade cycle. And also in the process of R&D product development, as an alternative to the production, we aim to understand what are the reflections of supply chain management practices

¹ Corresponding author, , Ph.D Candidate at Kocaeli University

² Professor Dr. at Kocaeli University,

on R&D. The remaining of this paper is organized as follows. In Section II the concept of R&D in general and Supply Chain Management (SCM) in particular are discussed based on a deep literature review. Finally the conclusion part reveals the theoretical and managerial implications of the paper.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. The Supply Chain: Definition and the Mechanism

In the activities of the Firms, the procurement activities are procurement of material inputs, procurement of finance, procurement of personnel and procurement of service. Procurement is supplying necessary equipment and possibilities to reach the goal (Tosun, 1971; 404).

By the developments of recent decades, procurement becomes important part of the production process because the inputs of the production are not being produced, they are being purchased now and also the classical way of stocking mentality is changing its way to the logistics & supply structuring.

These developments caused the creation of the supply chain (Seraslan, 2002; 17). The supply chain management term entered the public domain when Keith Oliver, a consultant at Booz Allen Hamilton, used it in an interview for the Financial Times in 1982. The term was slow to take hold. It gained currency in the mid-1990s, when a flurry of articles and books came out on the subject. In the late 1990s it rose to prominence as a management buzzword, and operations managers began to use it in their titles with increasing regularity (Jacoby, 2009)(Feller, Shunk & Callarman, 2006) (Blanchard, 2010). Supply Chain Management's commonly accepted definitions are listed as:

The systematic, strategic coordination of traditional business functions and tactics across all business functions within a particular company and across businesses within the supply chain, for the purposes of improving the long-term performance of the individual companies and the supply chain as a whole (Mentzer, 2001)

The management of upstream and downstream value-added flows of materials, final goods, and related information among suppliers, company, resellers, and final consumers.

A customer-focused definition is given by Hines (2004: 76): "Supply chain strategies require a total systems view of the links in the chain that work together efficiently to create customer satisfaction at the end point of delivery to the consumer. As a consequence, costs must be lowered throughout the chain by driving out unnecessary expenses, movements, and handling. The main focus is turned to efficiency and added value, or the end-user's perception of value. Efficiency must be increased, and bottlenecks removed. The measurement of performance focuses on total system efficiency and the equitable monetary reward distribution to those within the supply chain. The supply chain system must be responsive to customer requirements."(Hines, 2004).

The integration of key business processes across the supply chain for the purpose of creating value for customers and stakeholders (Lambert, 2008).

Supply chain management encompasses the planning and management of all activities involved in sourcing, procurement, conversion, and logistics management according to the Council of Supply Chain Management Professionals (CSCMP). It also includes coordination and collaboration with channel partners, which may be suppliers, intermediaries, third-party service providers, or customers. Supply chain management integrates supply and demand management within and across companies (Wikipedia).

2.2. The R&D: Definition and the Mechanism

The unit of R&D refers to investigate activities a firm conducts to improve existing products or to lead to development of new products and procedures (Investopedia). It is defined also as a basic research, instead of having commercial concerns, bringing an objective principle to science and technology and extending the limits of science (Şimşek & Akin, 2003: 146). In the basic research, the purpose of the researcher is obtaining more information about the subject of the research, not the commercial or practical results to benefit (Devrez, 1970: 238).

New product design and development is more often than not a crucial factor in the survival of a company. In an industry that is changing fast, firms must continually revise their design and range of products. This is necessary due to continuous technology change and development as well as other competitors and the changing preference of customers. Without an R&D program, a firm must rely on strategic alliances, acquisitions, and networks to tap into the innovations of others (Wikipedia).

The quick changes on the technology, the demands of customers, the intensity of the competition reduces the lifetime of the products. Firms are making strategic plans of one, five and more years according to these data. In the preparation process of R&D plans, it should be suitable with the general plans of the firm. Top managers of the firm should design the R&D programs according to meet the optimum requirements of the business, determine the fields of research and responsibilities of the R&D unit. Top managers should examine the following list (Barutçugil, 1988:50): Significant sub-objectives should be developed to direct the research.

It should be made all of the personnel understand the long-term technological requirements of the firm.

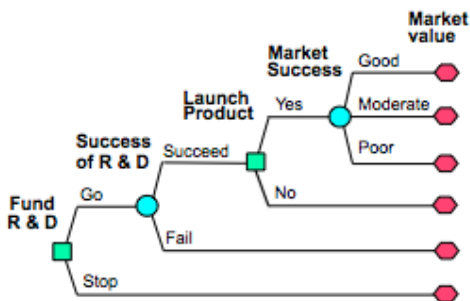
The harmony between R&D works and general business strategy should be provided.

Providing the balance of the program, project choosing and sorting should be compatible with the capacity and the goals of the firm.

To transfer the R&D findings to the production, R&D and production plan should be organized.

General management plan, which formed by top management, is the first step of R&D works. Deciding to research (or not) has the risk and uncertainty. That risks and uncertainties caused by the market from one side and the technology from the other side. But approaching the R&D attempts only in the terms of risk can be misleading. When deciding, The Decision Tree Diagram makes it easier on the Figure 1.

Figure 1. The Decision Tree Diagram



3. The Reflections of Supply Chain Management Practices on R&D

3.1. Effects that Adjust Competition on Business.

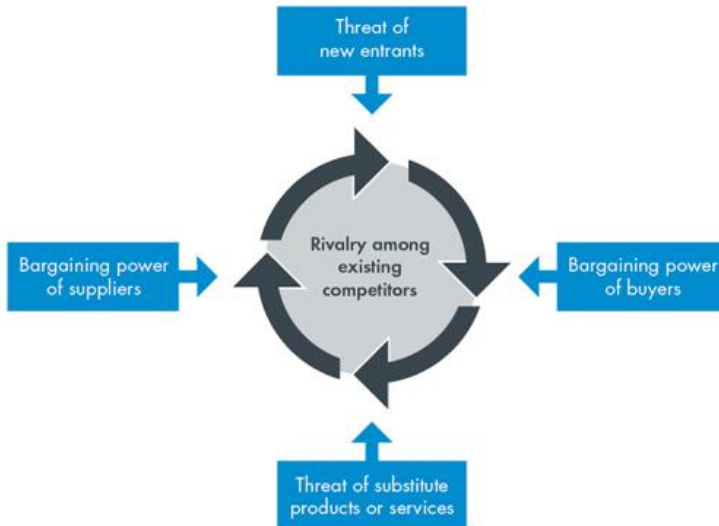
Michael E. Porter developed a method, which is known as the five factors, for the managers to analyze the opportunities and threats. Main purpose of the competition strategy should be orientating to the rules of competition and changing this rules in favor of the firm.

There are five-power factor, which determines the competition between the firms (Güleş & Bülbül, 2004: 47):

- Threat of new entrants,
- Rivalry among existing competitors,
- Bargaining power of buyers,
- Bargaining power of suppliers,
- Threat of the substitute products or services.

The total power of these five factors determines the income, which firms will gain from the investments above their capital cost. According to the Porter, If any of these factors are powerful, the firm's capability of increasing the prices and profitability decreases. Because the complication of the competition factors will be a threat for the firm. On the other hand, a weak competition factor provides the firm more profit opportunity (Şimşek & Akin, 2003: 93). In Figure 2., Porter's five competition forces are indicated.

Figure 2. Porter's Five Forces.



3.2. The Relationship Between R&D and Supply Chain.

If there is an effective relationship between R&D and Supply Chain Management (SCM), any factor which can affect the competitive advantage gained by the products of the firm, which are in the supply chain, should be eliminated via R&D. Any problem which can make competitive disadvantage caused by the suppliers should be solved and even can be transformed to the competitive advantage. Therefore, the relationship between the managers of R&D and The Supply Chain Managers should be very strong, mutual processes should be informed them by each other and the structure of the organization should be shaped in this context. Afterwards, quickly projected R&D processes should be started so that any possible lose of competency should be prevented.

Technoparks are the fields that firms can have chance to take part in R&D processes. University-Industry Collaboration Model, which combines new information and technological application under the same roof, is worldwide model with proven affects in the technology-based development of the countries.

Etzkowitz's "Triple Helix Model" that deals with the theoretical structure of university-industry-government cooperation, covers the University for generating knowledge through research, the Industry for transferring this knowledge into practice, the state for providing the necessary support for the formation of fruitful collaboration platform. Technoparks brings together this trio collaboration under the same roof. According to The United Kingdom Science Park Association (UKSPA), a technopark is an initiative which establishes official relations with a university or a higher education institution or a research center, designed to encourage technology based companies to start and grow within, providing technology and business skill transfers to the relevant companies effectively. Teknoparks can also be an alternative for the cooperation of SCM and R&D.

Conclusion

In this paper, I tried to show the reflections of supply chain practices on R&D. In our era of globalization, realizing the importance of supply chain management and R&D on competitive advantage is inevitable. They are both very critical on the process of production. As we can understand from the literature review, supply chains affect both inbound and outbound logistics, which is the significant part of production and sales. Similarly, the criticality of the R&D unit can be understood

from the literature review also. It is clear that remaining its position for a firm in the area of competition is relevant to the new products, cheaper substitute products or services and these are directly related to process of R&D.

Taking into consideration Porter's five forces, managers have to analyze the opportunities and threats particularly for not to lose competitive advantage or keep it. Main purpose of the competition strategy should be orientating to the rules of competition and changing this rules in favor of the firm. So that when we examine them with the five forces; threat of new entrants, rivalry among existing competitors, bargaining power of buyers, bargaining power of suppliers, threat of the substitute products or services can be seen as a mutual concern of both R&D and Supply Chain Managers. So that, the cooperation between them should be provided. Mutual processes should be informed them by each other and the structure of the organization should be shaped in this context. Afterwards, quickly projected R&D processes should be started so that any possible lose of competency should be prevented.

In this paper, I tried to show the strong relationship between R&D and SCM with a literature review because there is not so many studies or researches about this relationship. But a qualitative or quantitative research can be made examining to understand that:

How should structure of organizations be,
How should the sharing of responsibility between them be,
What kinds of problems can be solved with their coordination,
What the possible effect of their successful coordination to the competitive advantage is

References

- AKIN,H.B.(2005).Yeni Ekonomi,Konya: Çizgi Kitapevi Balaban,Y.(2005, 1 Şubat). Ar-Ge Ligi'nin Şampiyonları,Kapital Dergisi
- AKGÜN, M., (2004), "Tedarik Zinciri Yönetiminde Bütünleşik Faaliyet-Tabanlı-Hedef Maliyetleme Yaklaşımı", MODAV Muhasebe Bilim Dünyası Dergisi, Cilt:6, Sayı:1, Mart.
- AKTAŞ, İ., (2005), "Muhasebe ve Finansman Alanında Dış Kaynak Kullanımı", T.C. İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Muhasebe ve Denetim Yüksek Lisans Programı, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Bitirme Projesi, İstanbul: Temmuz.
- AYDEMİR, İ., (2005), "Maliyet Yönetimi Konusundaki Yeni Yaklaşımlar ve Muhasebe Eğitimi ve Uygulamalarına Yansımaları", XXIV. Türkiye Muhasebe Eğitimi Sempozyumu Muhasebe Ortamındaki Güncel Gelişmeler ve Muhasebe Eğitimine Etkileri, 27-30 Nisan.
- AYSAN, M., (1974), "Maliyetler ve İşletme Kararları", Fakülteler Matbaası, İstanbul.
- BARUTÇUGİL, S. (1988). Üretim Sistemleri ve Yönetimi Teknikleri. Bursa: Uludağ Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- BLANCHARD D. (2010), Supply Chain Management Best Practices, 2nd. Edition, John Wiley & Sons, ISBN 9780470531884
- BOWERSOX, Donald J, (1978), Logistical Management-A Systems Integration of Physical Distribution and Materials Management, New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.
- BULDURGAN, M.(2008), Faaliyet Raporu CEO Mesajı, Temsa Global A.Ş.
- CAN, V., (2004), "Maliyet Yönetimi Aracı Olarak 'OUTSOURCING' (Bir Nakliye Şirketi Örneği)", MÖDAV Muhasebe Bilim Dünyası Dergisi, Cilt:6, Sayı:3, Eylül.
- CAVINATO, J. L., KAUFMANN, R. G., (2000), "The Purchasing Handbook: A Guide for the Purchasing and Supply Professional", 6.Baskı, Mc Graw- Hill, New York.
- CERAN, Y., (2003), "Hedef Maliyetleme Yöntemini Destekleyici Bir Enstrüman Olarak Ürün Geliştirme ve Tasarım Anında Maliyet Hesaplama", MÖDAV Muhasebe Bilim Dünyası Dergisi, Cilt:5, Sayı:4, Aralık.
- CHOPRA, S., MEINDL, P., (2004), "Supply Chain Management: Strategy, Planning and Operation", 2. Baskı, Prentice Hall.
- ÇEVİK, F.(2002). İhracata Yönelik Devlet Yardımlarının Karaman Gıda Sektörü Üzerinde Bir Değerlendirmesi, Karaman İ.İ.B.F
- DEVREZ, G. (1970). İşletmelerde Araştırma ve Geliştirme Fonksiyonu.Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Siyasal Bilimler Fakültesi , s. 236.
- DURŞUN, A., (2001), "Tam Zamanında Üretim (TZÜ) Sisteminde Standart Maliyet Fark Analizleri", Muhasebe ve Denetim Bakış, Yıl: 1, Sayı:2, Ocak.

- ERDEN, A., (2003), "Maliyet Yönetimi ve Küresel Rekabete Yönelik Maliyetleme", MÖDAV Muhasebe Bilim Dünyası Dergisi, Cilt:5, Sayı:4, Aralık.
- ERTÜRK, M.(2000). İşletme Biliminin Temel İlkeleri, İstanbul: Beta Basım Yayın Dağıtım A.Ş. 4. Baskı,s.56
- FEARON, Leenders, Johnson, Flynn (2002), Purchasing and Supply Management, NewYork: McGraw-Hill
- FELLER A., SHUNK D., & CALLARMAN T. (2006). BPTrends, March 2006 - Value Chains Vs. Supply Chains
- FRAZELLE, E. (2002): Supply Chain Strategy: The Logistics of Supply Chain Management, New York : McGraw-Hill .
- FRASCATI KILAVUZU (2002), Araştırma ve Deneysel Geliştirme Taramaları için Önerilen Standart Uygulama, OECD (Ekonomik İşbirliği ve Kalkınma Örgütü)
- GÜLEŞ, H. K., & BÜLBÜL, H. (2004). Yenilikçilik. Ankara: Nobel Yayınları.
- HİNES, T. 2004. Supply chain strategies: Customer driven and customer focused. Oxford: Elsevier.
- İLTER, H. M., (2002), "Global Dışsal Tedarik (Outsourcing)", İstanbul Ticaret Odası Yayınları, Yayın No: 2002-31, İstanbul.
- JACOBY, D.(2009), Guide to Supply Chain Management: How Getting it Right Boosts Corporate Performance (The Economist Books), Bloomberg Press; 1st edition, ISBN 978-1576603451
- KÖSE, T., (2005), "Maliyet Yönetiminde Faaliyet Analizi ve Bir Uygulama", MÖDAV Muhasebe Bilim Dünyası Dergisi, Cilt:7, Sayı:1, Mart.
- KAHYAOĞLU Aytaç, G. (2009).Bisküvi ,T.C. Başbakanlık Dış Ticaret Müsteşarlığı İhracatı Geliştirme Etüd Merkezi
- KASILINGAM, R.G. (1999): Logistics and Transportation: Design and Planning, first ed., Springer, London.
- KAYKAYOĞLU, R. (2008). Ar-Ge'de dünya 25'incisiyiz, PC TIME
- KAYMAKÇALAN, Ö. (1997).Teknoloji Geliştirme ve Transfer Aracı Olarak Teknoparklar,Dünyada ve Türkiyen Örnekler ,İstanbul:Teknoloji Yönetim Derneği Bildiriler Kitabı
- KURTALAN, M. (2009), "Küresel Rekabet Ortamında İşletmelerde Teknoloji Geliştirme Birimlerinin Kurulması ve Teknoloji Yönetimi", Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Karamanoğlu Mehmet Bey Üniversitesi, Karaman.
- LYSONS, K., (2000), "Purchasing and Supply Chain Management", Addison Wesley, 5.Basım, England.
- MENTZER, J.T.; et al. (2001). "Defining Supply Chain Management". Journal of Business Logistics. 22 (2):
- ÖKER, F., (2003), "Faaliyet Tabanlı Maliyetleme Üretim ve Hizmet İşletmelerinde Uygulamalar", Literatür Yayınları: 109, Birinci Basım, Kasım.
- ÖNER, M. (2006). Ar-Ge Yönetimi. İstanbul: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Yayınevi.s.5
- ÖZBAY, T., (2004), "Sorularla Dış Kaynak Kullanımı (Outsourcing)", İstanbul Ticaret Odası Yayınları, Yayın No:2004-27, İstanbul.
- ÖZKAN, A., AKSOYLU, S., (2002), "Kaizen ve Faaliyete Dayalı Maliyetlemenin Birlikte Uygulanabilirliği", MÖDAV Muhasebe Bilim Dünyası Dergisi, Cilt:4, Sayı:3, Eylül.
- PEKDEMİR, R., (1998), "Faaliyet Tabanlı Maliyetleme ve Genel İmalat Maliyetleri", Temel Eğitim ve Staj Merkezi, Yayın No: 17, İstanbul.
- PORTER, Michael E.(2000): Rekabet Stratejisi Sektör ve Rakip Analizi Teknikleri, İstanbul, Sistem Yayıncılık, 2000.
- REKABET FORUMU – IMD, Yabancı Teknoloji Firmalarının Çin'deki Ar-Ge Yatırımlarına Yaklaşımı, Teknoloji, 28.09.2007, <http://www.ref.sabanciuniv.edu/>
- SABIR, H. (2007). Küreselleşen Pazar Ekonomileri ve Rekabet Politikaları. İstanbul: Derin Yayınları.
- SARIHAN, F. (1998). Teknoloji Yönetimi. İstanbul: Alcatel Yayınları
- SERASLAN, N., (2002), "Türkiye Uygulamaları: Lojistik ve Tedarik Yönetimi", Orhim Organizasyon ve Halkla İlişkiler Merkezi Limited Şirketi, 10-12 Haziran Eğitim Notları.
- ŞİMŞEK, M., & AKIN, H. (2003). Teknoloji Yönetimi ve Örgütsel Değişim. Konya: Çizgi Yayınları.
- ŞAKRAK, M., (1997), "Maliyet Yönetimi: Maliyet ve Yönetim Muhasebesinde Yeni Yaklaşımlar", Yasa Yayınları, İstanbul.
- ŞEN, E. , (2004), "Kobi'lerin Uluslararası Rekabet Güçlerini Arttırmada Tedarik Zinciri Yönetiminin Önemi", İhracatı Geliştirme Etüd Merkezi, Aralık.
- TAMER, M. (1997), "Eczacıbaşı hem Koç.hemde Sabancı gibi", Ekonomi Kulüsü, 11 Ocak 1997, Milliyet Gazetesi
- TEKER, E. Sanayileşme Sürecinde Teknoloji Üretimi, Transferi ve Uygun Teknoloji Seçimi, Mühendisler Mimarlar Odası (<arsiv.mmo.org.tr/pdf/10630.pdf>).s.185)
- TOSUN, K., (1971), "İşletme Yönetimi", Fakülteler Matbaası, İstanbul.
- TUNCER, Y. (1974). Ekonomik Açından Bilime Dayalı Teknoloji Üretimi . O.D.T.Ü. Geliştirme Dergisi , s.74-75.
- TÜRK, M. (2003). Küreselleşme Sürecinde İşletmelerde Bilgi Yönetimi, İstanbul: Türkmen Yayınları, s.5
- TÜRKER, M., BALLYEMEZ, F., BİÇER, A., (2005) "Üretim Sürecinde Tedarik Zincirinin Önemi ve Maliyet Yönetimi" V. Ulusal Üretim Araştırmaları Sempozyumu, İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi, 25-27 Kasım 2005
- ÜRETEN, S. (1999). Stratejik Kararlar ve Karar Modelleri, Üretim/İşlemler Yönetimi (s. 248-249). Ankara: Başar Ofset.

ÜSTEL, İ.&KABATEPE, E.(2006), Kobilere ve İnovasyon, AB – Türkiye İşbirliği Derneği,s:16
YETİŞ, N. (1993).Teknoloji geliştirme ve Risk Sermayesi, Risk Sermaye Paneli. İstanbul: İstanbul Sanayi Odası.
YÜKÇÜ, S., ÖZKAN, S., (2003), "Teknolojik Gelişmelerin Maliyet Muhasebesine Etkileri", XXII. Türkiye Muhasebe Eğitimi Sempozyumu Muhasebe-Eğitim: Eğilim ve Etkileşimler, 21-25 Mayıs.
ZERENLER, M. & TÜRKER, N. & Şahin,E. (2007), Küresel Teknoloji, Araştırma-Geliştirme (AR-GE) ve Yenilik İlişkisi Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, Sayı 17, s. 657
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Research_and_development
<http://www.investopedia.com/terms/r/randd.asp>

Managers in Polish Organizations - the Results of Empirical Research

Dr Izabela Bednarska-Wnuk

Faculty of Management, University of Lodz, Poland

Abstract

Today we are dealing with unceasing changes that are not without influence on the functioning of the organization and its subsystems; and managers, who are specific moderators of all activities in the organization, in the face of the volatility of the environment, need to acquire new competences and roles, and realize relevant functions. It seems that the manager's role may be dependent on organizational characteristics such as the type of organization (for-profit, non-profit), the industry in which the organization operates and its size. These features can determine the roles and functions of the persons responsible for the management of organizations. Taking this into account, the aim of this article is to present the role of managers in Polish organizations, depending on their industry and size based on the results of empirical research. The study was conducted in 2015 among 289 organizations in Poland. One of their objectives was to identify a modern role of managers, depending on the selected organizational features based on interviews with people responsible for personnel policy in these organizations. Studies have shown that the role of the manager and basically just its scope is dependent on the size of the organization. On the other hand, no relationship between the role and the industry in which the organization operates has been observed.

Keywords: the role of a modern manager, organizational behaviour, Poland

1. Introduction

In the modern world we deal with unceasing changes that are not without influence on the functioning of the organization and its subsystems; and managers, who are specific regulators of all activities in the organization, in the face of the volatility of the environment need to acquire new competences, and roles, and realize the relevant functions. Their role alongside social role is crucial in the description of the functioning of the organization. It plays a key role in the analysis of organizational behaviour. Considerations about the manager are usually analyzed from the perspective of a set of various requirements and expectations placed upon the role of management. This role under the influence of the changes in the environment is also subject to variation. We can discern the evolution of the manager's role. It seems that the role of the manager may also be constituted, depending on the organizational features such as the type of organization (for-profit, non-profit), the industry in which the organization operates and its size. These features can determine the roles and functions of the persons responsible for the management of organizations. Taking this into consideration, the purpose of this article is to present the role of managers in Polish organizations, depending on their industry and size based on the results of empirical research. Given its purpose, the article first discusses the role of a manager in the organization, and then shows the importance of the size of the organization and its industry for efficient management. Further, it presents the results of research conducted in 2015 among 297 organizations in Poland¹. They are designed to indicate the contemporary role of managers depending on the selected organizational features based on interviews with people responsible for personnel policy in these organizations.

2. The modern manager in the organization - theoretical assumptions

The literature on the role of a modern manager in the organization is very rich (Mair, Thurner, 2008 Rouleau, Balogun 2011, C. Desmarais, Abord de Chatillon 2010). This is due to the fact that the concept of manager is given different meanings, at

¹ The Project was financed from the means of the National Science Centre granted on the basis of decision No DEC-2013/09/B/HS4/02722.

the same time rarely emphasizing their differences. The term 'manager' both in ordinary speech and in the literature on management is used in a broad sense. Manager may therefore be each person considered to be managing the organization or its separate part, no matter what place they occupy in the organizational hierarchy. This means that the term 'manager' is used with reference to the director, manager, supervisor or superior (Ornarowicz 2008).

The role of the manager is usually described in the organization and is characterized by a diverse structure. This is due to various requirements placed upon managers, related to the objectives pursued and tasks in the organization and the numerous interactions between the manager and the other stakeholders of the organization. It is also related to the fact that since the beginning of the development of the science of organization and management, numerous discussions have been undertaken related to the functioning of executives in the organization. Since that time there have appeared a number of typologies describing the role of leader and various sets of requirements. They are consistent with the nomenclature of currently functioning schools or trends in management as well as with given conditions of the organization's environment. It can therefore be pointed out that the role of management and its scope changes over the years, being of interest to many theorists and practitioners in the field of management, sociology or psychology (Mintzberg 1980, Willmott 1987, D Katz, RL Kahn 1966, Ayache, Laroche 2010).

Initially (the turn of XIX / XX) the manager's role was identified with the coordination of activities, extensive control apparatus, administration and organization of work for subordinates. The superior was always placed in the centre of the action. In terms of the time horizon of playing leadership roles, the manager realized them in a permanent manner. He also did not hold the other roles in the organization, beyond those specific ones assigned to a particular position. This means that the organization employed the manager practically 'for life', usually for an indefinite period (Bednarska-Wnuk 2016 p.134). Whereas according to the M. Jablonski, the range of functions realized by the manager in the classic organization extended well beyond the realization of managerial function and tasks of the modern manager. In particular, the functions of the manager towards the organization and subordinates included: taking care of the image of the organization, honesty and willingness to act for the good of the managed institution, "moral care" to promote "local office patriotism" (and according to modern nomenclature, loyalty and trust of employees) , and staff management (Jablonski 2012, p. 27).

Today, however, we observe the change in managerial positions in terms of tasks, image and values. It is noticed in the activities of various business organizations that they move away from the traditional image of the boss as the best specialist in the group of employees, or the boss who is an efficient administrator, towards the role of managers as the rotary project managers, integrators (coordinators) of the operations of network organizations or virtual teams, knowledge managers or high-tech managers (Lachiewicz 2013, p.5). Contemporary managers today are attributed to many different, very advantageous characteristics, both tangible (e.g. education, work experience, vocational training, etc.) and intangible (knowledge of the psycho-social problems, the ability to win people over, knowledge and skills in negotiation etc.). Of crucial importance are also the innate character and special abilities (Nogalski, Śniadecki 2001 p.92).

The approach to organizational power changes too. Today, relations become more democratic. This means making decisions on the basis of joint consultation with subordinates, while the proviso that the final decision belongs, however, to the manager. The relations between superiors and subordinates are based on mutual trust, which affects the decision-making process. Power distance is small. The role of the manager here boils down not only to fulfilling specific management roles and implementation of managerial functions, but also to creating such a work environment that provides subordinates with autonomy and freedom of action. In terms of the time horizon, performing modern management roles is characterized by temporality. This means that the completion of a specific task is followed by a "transfer" of power to another person designated by the manager. The manager, although he has a clearly defined role associated with the managerial work, in practice performs in the organization many other roles within the scope of other jobs (Bednarska-Wnuk 2016, p. 134). There is also noted a tendency to hiring managers primarily in Poland, usually for a specified period and based on the management contract. But it has no regulations in the Polish Labour Code, only in the Civil Code, which in addition to the agreements referred to in the regulations, allows for entering unnamed service contracts. It is a form of hiring managers, which today is becoming increasingly popular among experienced managers, not only in Poland but all over the world (<http://www.hrpolska.pl/kadry/narzedzia/najemnicy-korporacji-kontrakt-na-zarzadzanie>).

3. Selected characteristics of the organization and the role of manager

Efficient and effective execution of the role of manager in the organization depends on many factors, resulting from internal and external conditions. They may also be examined from the perspective of both the individual and the organization. With

regard to individual conditioning, today we have a lot of studies in this field, which emphasize different attributes of a manager in the organization (Akella 2006, Stosik 2005, Rakowska 2007, Nogalski, Śniadecki 2001). There are slightly fewer examples in the literature showing the role of manager, depending on the organizational features that highlight the different ways of organization management. For example, execution of manager functions may be implemented differently in a small business and otherwise in a large enterprise. This is mainly due to factors such as: configuration, formalization, standardization and centralization, which make up the structure of the organization. With regard to the description of the role of the manager in the organization, it seems that the symptomatic features describing the organization¹ include:

- The size of the organization;
- Industry in which the organization operates;
- The shape of the organizational structure.

The first feature, which is the size of the organization, categorizes companies into four groups: a micro-enterprise which employs fewer than 10 employees; small enterprise that employs fewer than 50 employees; medium-sized enterprise employing fewer than 250 employees and a large enterprise, employing 250 workers and over (http://archiwum.parp.gov.pl/dotacjedoc/def_msp.pdf ; access: 18.08.2016). It should be noted, however, that micro, small and medium-sized enterprises, the so-called SMEs have the largest percentage in the structure of the Polish economy and a large share of this sector in the development of Gross Domestic Product.

However, it should be noted that categorization of enterprises by the volume of employment takes into account only those employed under a contract of employment. In many cases, this may not represent the actual scale of employment. This is a problem of statistical categorization, which may make it difficult to analyze many processes in the cross-section of employment volume [Bak-Grabowska 2016 p.117]. Differences in the management of the organizations of all sizes consists mainly in a different approach to the implementation of the functions of management and a concentration on the critical resources of the organization. Large companies usually have more opportunities to compete, have diverse resources at their disposal, and may embrace a greater range of activity than, for example, micro-enterprises. All this also creates other conditions to perform management roles, which causes that their catalogue may significantly differ.

In turn, the industry or the core business of the organization can also significantly influence the decisions of the managers and their role. Industry, and basically its specificity, may in fact determine the different character of supervising the work, which, depending on its type may require from supervisors a typical formal relation to subordinates, or may be based on partner relations.

The last separated feature is the shape of an organizational structure. It contains all the structure-forming elements that affect implementation of the role of the manager in the organization. We can, therefore, list here elements such as: size of the structure, the degree of specialization, centralization, formalization and standardization [Bielski 2002 p.105]. All these dimensions may permeate one another to form various configurations. It should be emphasized that, although the size of the organization is one of the dimensions of the structure, it was decided to purposely separate this element, thus giving it significance during the effective execution of management roles. This procedure allowed for differentiation of organizations, depending on employment, and focusing only on this variable. It seems that the discussed selected features of the organization may significantly affect the role of the manager, its makeup or the scope of organization power.

4. Research Methodology

In order to determine the characteristics of the modern manager the author used research results coming from the research project entitled "Wielowymiarowa Analiza Zachowań Organizacyjnych [WAZO] - Metodyka i narzędzia pomiaru."² According to the assumptions in the project, empirical research was conducted in two stages. The aim of the first stage was the description of the organization, the second objective - description of organizational behaviour of employees in the organizations selected deliberately from the first stage. The research was carried out in 2015.

The results presented in the article are from the first stage, in which the study was aimed at for-profit companies operating on Polish territory, employing at least 50 employees. The tool used in the process of research was the original questionnaire

¹ The size and industry of the organization are the qualities that have been identified in this project. The size of the organizational structure were not analyzed, as it did not fall within the scope of this study.

² Description of the research methodology comes from K. Januszkievicz (ed.), Wielowymiarowa Analiza Zachowań Organizacyjnych [WAZO] w polskich przedsiębiorstwach. Wyniki badań empirycznych, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź 2016, p. 9-17 (In printing)

- developed by the team constituting the project. It consisted of two parts. The first part concerned the organizational solutions and allowed for their diagnosis for the organization as a whole and for individual dimensions studied (organization of work, superior-subordinate relations, employee-organization relations, organizational culture, personnel policy, communication). The second part referred, instead, to organizational behaviour, and in turn enabled the diagnosis in global terms for the employee as well as against the individual dimensions (mentioned above).

At the first stage, the questionnaire was addressed to those responsible for personnel policy in the company (director of HR or appropriate department for the management of human resources in the company; in the case of organizations without HR, the study involved the owner or director of the company).

In the first stage of the study, therefore, a contact was made with more than 12 000 companies that met the eligibility criteria for the study. Effectively, 289 interviews were completed with people responsible for HR policy from various organizations, receiving initial approval to join the second phase of the study.

To increase participation of respondents, it was agreed to conduct the survey questionnaire in the form of an interview. Participants were those responsible for personnel policy in the company. Two methods were used:

- Computer-assisted telephone interviews (CATI)
- self-completing online interviews (CAWI)

Contact method was adapted to the preferences of the respondent. The questionnaire was designed according to the mix mode method, allowing obtaining comparable results regardless of the method of contact. Both modes contained the adopted solution of thematic rotation in order to avoid the effect of freshness and the effect of fatigue.

In the sample 71.6% were companies employing 50 to 249 employees (defined in the study as medium), while 26.3% were companies employing over 250 employees (defined in the study as big). In the case of 2.1% of companies the data on the volume of employment have not been obtained. 42.8% of companies represented the service industry, 40.9% - the manufacturing industry, and 15.9% were companies belonging to the retail industry.

Industry structure of large enterprises differs distinctly from the medium ones. Among medium-sized enterprises prevail service firms (50%), while among large - the manufacturing ones (60.5%). However, the share of trading companies is similar in both groups (approx. 16%).

For the purposes of this article, the aim of the study was defined as an attempt to answer the question whether the role of the manager in an organization is dependent on features such as the industry in which the organization operates and its size. On this basis, we formulated the following hypothesis:

H: It can be assumed that the role of the manager in an organization is dependent on the industry in which the organization operates and its size.

In the course of the research process, the following research questions were posed:

- What form of employment characterizes a modern manager?
- What is the scope of the role in a managerial position?
- Who and to what extent shall decide on the method of performance and the pace of work of subordinates?

In designing the study it was assumed that the independent variables that adopted the status of the explanatory variables are the industry and the size of the organization. When determining the dependencies and checking the hypothesis the chi-square test was used with the Pearson correlation coefficient under the assumed level of $\alpha = 0.05$.

5. The results of empirical research

When analyzing the results on the characteristics of the modern manager it should be noted that in Polish organizations managers are employed primarily for an indefinite period. Such a response accounts for more than 2/3 of indications

(81.3%). However, 13.7% of respondents indicated that managers are hired on a temporary basis. Only 4.9% are employed on the basis of management contract.

Depending on the characteristics of the organization (industry and employment volume) it is noted that there is no relationship between these variables and the type of employment of managerial staff in the organization; respectively for industry $p = 0.691$ and the volume of employment $p = 0.302$. The results show that the characteristics of the organization do not affect the type of employment of managerial staff. This is shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Type of employment of executives against industry and employment volume

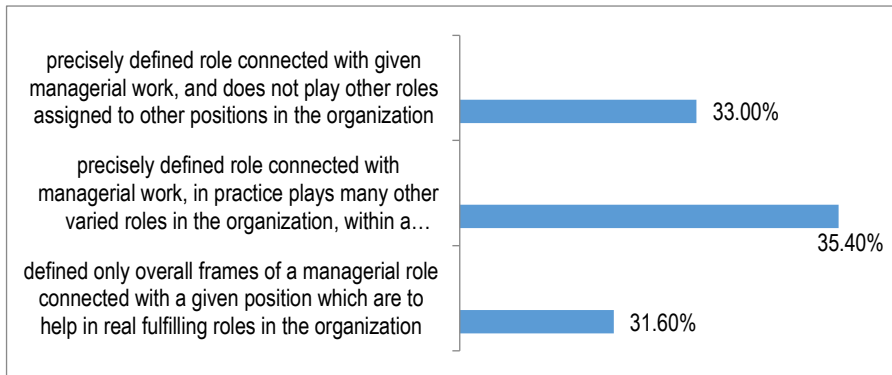
Type of employment of managerial staff	Industry ($p = 0.691$)			Employment volume ($p = 0.302$)	
	Commerce	Production, industry	Services	50-250 persons	Over 250 persons
Indefinite period	80.4%	78.4%	83.5%	83.0%	76.3%
Definite period	17.4%	15.5%	11.6%	13.1%	15.8%
Based on a managerial contract	2.2%	6.0%	5.0%	3.9%	7.9%

p - the probability of chi-square test of independence; - Dependence statistically significant ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Source: own calculations based on empirical data

On the other hand, when it comes to working in a managerial position it is noted that it cannot be clearly indicated what role the modern manager plays. The data allowing assessment of work in a managerial position are shown in the chart below.

Figure 1: The scope of role in a managerial position



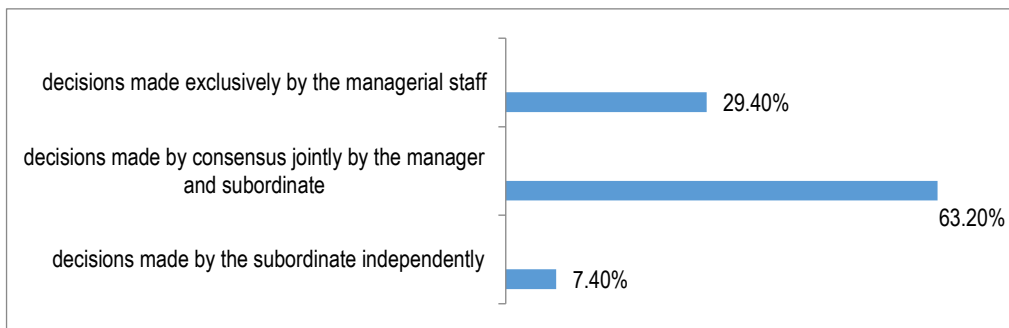
Source: own calculations based on empirical data

On the other hand, depending on the characteristics of the organization, it is noted that in the case of industry, work in a managerial position and its specific role have no significant statistical relationship between these variables ($p = 0.11$). Regardless of industry, the employee in a managerial position has a clearly defined role, associated with assigned job, however in practice has many other different roles in the organization, within the scope of others. This role is specific to the following: Production, Industry (42.2%) and commerce (41.3%).

On the other hand, when it comes to the volume of employment there is a statistical link between the volume of employment and defining the role of the modern manager in a managerial position ($p = 0.01$ with $\alpha = 0.05$). For medium-sized enterprises (50-250 persons), the most characteristic is work in a managerial position, which precisely defines the role related to a given managerial job and the manager does not fulfil any other roles assigned to other positions within the organization (35.2%). However, in the case of large enterprises, employing over 250 people, characteristic is a precisely defined role, associated with the managerial work; in practice, the manager fulfils many other varied roles in the organization within the scope of other organizational positions (49.3%).

Regarding decisions about the method and pace of work of a subordinate, the managers in the organization indicate that they are taken by consensus, jointly by the superior and subordinate. Such indication is declared by 63.2% of respondents. Detailed data appears in the chart below.

Figure 2 Taking decisions regarding the method and pace of work of subordinates by the managers



Source: own calculations based on empirical data

Also subjected to analysis was the relationship between the way of making decisions on the method and pace of work of subordinates by managers in the context of organizational features: the industry and the employment volume. This is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Type of decision-making regarding the method and pace of work of subordinates by managers against the industry and the employment volume

Type of decision-making regarding the method and pace of work of subordinates by managers	Industry ($p = 0.183$)			Employment volume ($p = 0.674$)	
	Commerce	Production, industry	Services	50-250 persons	Over 250 persons
Decisions made exclusively by the manager	23.9%	31.9%	31.4%	31.4%	26.0%
Decisions made by consensus jointly by the manager and subordinate	65.2%	57.8%	65.3%	61.4%	66.2%
Decisions made by the subordinate independently	10.9%	10.3%	3.3%	7.2%	7.8%

p - the probability of chi-square test of independence; - Dependence statistically significant ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Source: own calculations based on empirical data

The results indicate that there is no relationship between the type of decision-making regarding the method and pace of work of subordinates by managers and the industry and the employment size. Regardless of these qualities, across all industries and regardless of the volume of employment of the surveyed organizations, the managerial staff most often takes decisions by consensus, together with subordinates. Respectively for medium-sized enterprises it is 61.4%, while for large enterprises, employing more than 250 people, it was 66.2% of the responses obtained. A similar number of indications received also: commerce (65.2%), manufacturing and industry (57.8%) and services (65.3%).

6. Discussion of results and summary

Taking into account the obtained results of empirical research it can be noted that managers in Polish organizations are most often employed for an indefinite period. Probably the organization, opting for this form of employment in relation to managers, wants to give them a sense of long-term participation in the organization and a guarantee of security. Thus this form of employment increases the level of loyalty among managers and their organizational commitment.

On the other hand, it limits the flexibility of managers regarding the choice of place and time of work. This is illustrated by the small number of indications concerning the conclusion of employment contracts between the organization and managers under a managerial contract, which is more flexible than a contract of employment resulting from the Labour Code. It also allows greater independence and flexibility in decision-making and makes remuneration conditional on performance.

Whereas referring to the results concerning the absence of a link between the type of employment and industry, and the volume of employment, it is worth noting that they may suggest that today the organization, regardless of its attributes, wants to create the optimal work environment for the manager. One of these elements is the social and physical aspects of the work situation and as part of it - hiring managers for an indefinite period. It is also a remedy for the emigration of skilled managerial staff.

On the other hand, regarding the scope of the role in a managerial position, the role cannot be clearly indicated. Managers have a specific role - from strictly explicit and formalized to the generally defined, bearing the marks of the role which is flexible, dependent on the current situation prevailing in the organization and its environment. Probably it is due to the scope of responsibilities assigned to the given post and due to the conditions offered by the organization. This role depends also on the size of the organization. It is significant that in a medium-sized organization employing 250 people, prevails a role which is precisely defined and associated with a given work and the manager does not perform other roles assigned, for example, to other positions within the organization. This means that the manager focuses solely on his work and does not deal with matters that are not assigned to his position in the organization. This scope of the role is not favourable, because in a situation of adverse developments in the organization, such as fluctuation and absenteeism of staff, there may be a need to perform other roles and functions in the organization. When managers do not have the opportunity to perform other roles in the organization, it may turn that they simply will not be able to fulfil a different role beyond that assigned to a particular position.

In large organizations, however, the managers, although they have a clearly defined role associated with their work, in practice they have many other diverse roles within the scope of other organizational positions. From the perspective of the organization this phenomenon can be considered beneficial, because such a manager is able to fulfil the role assigned not only to his jobs but also other roles within the organizational structure. On the other hand, such a situation from the perspective of the individual may raise some conflicts of roles due to work overload, role ambiguity or contradiction between the expectations of different people. In addition, the realization of a lot of roles by the individual may affect their balance in the context of work-life-balance.

Regardless of the industry and the size of the organization, the decisions regarding the method and pace of work of the subordinate are taken by supervisors primarily by consensus. This means that in the organization it is symptomatic to make decisions jointly by superiors and subordinates. It can therefore be assumed that these relations are democratic, and such a way of decision-making favours above all the creation of such a work environment that provides subordinates with autonomy and freedom of action and promotes work-based knowledge. An employee in such an environment feels appreciated and needed. The manager must remember, however, that not all decisions should be discussed with subordinates. This applies mainly to strategic decisions.

In organizations, we also have to do with managers who are the so-called autocrats, because almost 1/3 of indications concern just such a situation. This means that decisions are taken only by managers. Probably such behaviour results from the assumption made by managers that subordinates cannot and are not able to make their own decisions about their own work and therefore decisions should be "arbitrarily" imposed on their work. Besides, it seems that the conduct of these managers is related to the belief that the supervisor should give orders to subordinates, because of his role and performed managerial functions.

To conclude, it should be said that the hypothesis is partially confirmed. The role of the manager, and in principle, only its scope, is dependent on the size of the organization. However, no connection between the described role and the industry in which the organization operates was observed. It is very surprising, because it would seem that the industry might affect the implementation of the role of manager. It appears that organizations that belong to the group of Commerce or Industry should be managed in a different way. Perhaps this is due to today's general standards determining how to manage a modern organization.

The conducted study is not without limitations. One limitation is that the study involved only two organizational features: the industry in which the organization operates and its size. Therefore, in-depth studies should be carried out, characterized by heterogeneity of the characteristics of the organization in terms of other attributes, e.g. dimensions that shape the organizational structure or type of organization. Non-profit organizations were not an object of study. It is also important to use more sophisticated statistical techniques.

The conducted research also took into account only certain aspects of the role of the modern manager, such as the type of employment, the scope of the role or the way of decision-making. However, it was not studied, for example, which partial roles are performed by modern manager or what the scope of managerial functions is. Besides it should be noted that the data collected and the conclusions derive from Poland and need not be confirmed in other countries.

These restrictions, however, can become an incentive to undertake further work to better understand the role of the modern manager, which in turn will allow for better adaptation to the specifics of the organization, thus contributing to the efficient and effective management.

References

- Akella D. (2006). *Changes in Managerial Work: Tech Managers Dotcom*, „Global Business Review”, Vol.7, Issue 2.
- Bąk-Grabowska D. (2016). *Wielkość zatrudnienia jako czynnik różnicujący stosowanie form zatrudnienia w grupach kapitałowych*, Studia Ekonomiczne. Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Katowicach, Katowice 2016.
- Bednarska-Wnuk I. (2016). *Relacje przełożony-podwładny*, in: *Wielowymiarowa Analiza Zachowań Organizacyjnych [WAZO] w polskich przedsiębiorstwach. Wyniki badań empirycznych*, K. Januszkiewicz (ed.), Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź (In printing).
- Bielski M. (2002). *Podstawy teorii organizacji i zarządzania*, Wydawnictwo C.H. Beck, Warszawa.
- Desmarais C., Abord de Chatillon E. (2010). *Le rôle de traduction du manager, Entre allégeance et résistance*, „Revue française de gestion” No 205.
- <http://www.hrpolska.pl/kadry/narzedzia/najemnicy-korporacji-kontrakt-na-zarzadzanie>, Access 20.08.2016
- Jabłoński M. (2012). *Klasyki organizacji a wybrane aspekty zarządzania kompetencjami* [in:] B. Mikula (ed.), *Historia i perspektywy nauk o zarządzaniu. Księga pamiątkowa dla uczczenia jubileuszu 40-lecia pracy naukowo-dydaktycznej prof. zw dra hab. Arkadiusza Potockiego*, Fundacja Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Krakowie, Kraków.
- Januszkiewicz K. (ed.) (2016). *Wielowymiarowa Analiza Zachowań Organizacyjnych [WAZO] w polskich przedsiębiorstwach. Wyniki badań empirycznych*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź. (In printing)
- Katz D., Kahn R. L. (1966), *The Social Psychology of Organizations*, John Wiley & Sons, New York.

-
- Lachiewicz S. (2008). *Menedżer jako promotor zmian w przedsiębiorstwie*, Zeszyty Naukowe Politechniki Łódzkiej, Organizacja i Zarządzanie Nr 49, Łódź.
- Mair, J., Thurner, J. (2008). *Going global: How middle managers approach the process in medium-sized firms*, Strategic Change, 17 (3-4), 83 – 99.
- Mintzberg H. (1980). *The nature of managerial work*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Nogalski B., Śniadecki J. (2001). *Umiejętności menedżerskie w zarządzaniu przedsiębiorstwem*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Ośrodka Postępu Organizacyjnego Sp. z o.o., Bydgoszcz.
- Ornarowicz U. (2008). *Menedżer XXI wieku: definicja, identyfikacja, edukacja*, Szkoła Główna Handlowa, Oficyna Wydawnicza, Warszawa.
- Rakowska A. (2007). *Kompetencje menedżerskie kadry kierowniczej we współczesnych organizacjach*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marie-Curie Skłodowskiej, Lublin.
- Rouleau, L., Balogun, J. (2011). *Middle managers, strategic sensemaking and discursive competence*, Journal of Management Studies, 48, 962-965.
- Stosik A. (2005). *Ewolucja ról menedżerskich w organizacjach entrepreneurskich* [in:] J. Skalik (ed.), *Zmiana warunkiem sukcesu. Przeobrażenia metod i praktyk zarządzania*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej we Wrocławiu, Wrocław.
- Willmott H. (1987). *Studying Managerial Work: a critique and a proposal*, Journal of Management Studies, Vol. 24, no 3, May.

Locus of Responsibility for Professional Development in the Perspective of Organizations and Individuals – the Results of Empirical Research in Poland

Dr Katarzyna Januszkiewicz

Assistant Professor, Faculty of Management, University of Łódź

Abstract

Modern companies operate under conditions of permanent change. A changing organization must be accompanied by changing - developing people. Therefore, if the development is imperative, the question is who has responsibility for it, is it the organization that makes human resources its strategic resource, or is it the employees who, in times of change, redefine the relation to the work. The answer to that question is not conclusive; therefore the article presents a dialectical approach to the responsibility for professional development, which may be located on the side of the organization, the employee or be the result of cooperation between these entities. Based on the results of own research conducted in Poland, a comparison was made of the locus of responsibility for development in the perspective of the organization and employees. The analysis was based on the results of own research conducted in Poland in 2015 on a representative sample of 289 companies and 2,274 employees (The project was funded from means of the National Science Centre conferred on the basis of the decision No DEC-2013/09 / B / HS4 / 02722). The results of the research allowed for a comparative analysis of the prospects of companies surveyed, and identification of discrepancies in this regard. This knowledge can provide guidance for the design of systems of human resources management in order to increase their effectiveness by matching organizational solutions to the expectations of employees.

Keywords: organizational behaviour, locus of responsibility, professional development

Introduction

Modern companies operate under conditions of permanent change. Technological advancement, competition, rising quality requirements, make it necessary for the organization to have the ability to continually absorb new ideas, technologies, to create their own solutions - in other words, to have the capacity for continuing growth.

These assumptions seem to be met by the model of a learning organization. M. Pearn, C. Roderick and F. Mulrooney list six factors involved in the creation of the necessary conditions for continuous learning and innovativeness of organizations (Wachowiak, 2002, p. 85). They are: organizational structure conducive to change, supportive management, support for learning, the vision of learning, culture conducive to growth and development, and focus on learning. An important element in this model is the focus on learning, understood as the striving of all members of the organization for the development of existing knowledge and skills. For organizations must adapt by changing to the conditions in which they operate; such a change, however, is possible only when the people change. As early as in 1974 A. Toffler noted (1974, p. 236) that "the technology of tomorrow requires not millions of poorly educated people, ready as always to agreeably perform the same operations, does not require people who without saying a word fill the orders and who for the price of bread succumb automatically to power, but those who can think critically and pave their way in a new environment, who can quickly establish contacts and see the sense in an ever changing world."

A developing organization must be accompanied by developing people. This aspect seems particularly relevant at the present time, when the acquired education, with the constantly changing conditions, quickly loses its topicality, and the employees, succumbing to "the tyranny of development", should permanently improve their skills (Januszkiewicz, 2012). Thus, if the development is imperative, the question arises who has responsibility for it - is it the organization that makes human resources its strategic resource, or the employees, who in times of change redefine their relation to work? The answer to that question is not conclusive. The perspective of the organization may vary, even very much, from the perspective of the individual - what appears to be beneficial for one entity may not always be the optimal choice for another (McElroy, Weng, 2016).

The aim of the article in its theoretical layer is to present a dialectical approach to responsibility for professional development, which may be located on the side of the organization (type I), of the employee (Type III.) or be the result of interaction between these entities (type II.). However, in its empirical layer, the aim of this article is to compare the perception of the locus of responsibility for the professional development of employees in the perspective of the organization (including the number of employees and industry) and the employees (by gender, age, seniority and the position occupied). Analyses were carried out on the basis of the results of own research carried out on a representative sample of 289 businesses and 2,274 workers in Poland in 2015.

Development of the organization and development of the employee

Employee development, one of the key elements of the policy of human resources management in the organization, is treated as a phenomenon clearly positive. When treating the organization in terms of the system, it should be considered that the components of the system are strongly linked - the behaviour of each of them influences the others and at the same time is dependent on them. Thus increasing the possibilities of individual elements of the organization (e.g. social subsystem - employees), contributes to the success of the organization as a whole. A direct rendition of the staff capabilities onto the capacity of the enterprise is of course a gross simplification, but the strategic aspect of this factor seems to be invaluable.

Employee development on the one hand contributes to attaining the objectives the company, as it helps it in getting employees able to meet the expectations placed in them and ready to take on the challenges of both current and future tasks. On the other hand - it is the essence of the process of self-realization, creates the possibility of achieving professional and personal goals, and "climbing" the ladder.

In a situation where the benefits are mutual, it seems reasonable to raise a question whether the employees' development can be seen as a process controlled exclusively by the company, especially in a situation where the dominant trend in management is to reduce costs? The answer is not clear. In terms of a learning organization, in addition to the orientation on learning, there are a number of factors, the fulfilment of which is certainly on the side of the company (organizational structure conducive to change, supportive management, support for learning, the vision of learning, culture conducive to the growth and development), management, support for learning, the vision of learning, culture conducive to the growth and development), putting at it the duty to create "favourable conditions" (Guskey, 2003). Widely discussed and implemented today organizational plans for the improvement of employees (including: training, building up "business" career paths) are, in their essence, rational activities within in the meaning of adapting the actions to the objectives set (Bielski, 2002, p. 181). Organizations in accordance with what was said before take care to secure for themselves the workforce that possess the desired qualifications. The company, when analyzing the current situation and where they would like to be in the future, can determine what employees it needs, and hence, which competences are in deficiency, and how these differences can be overcome. These actions are consistent with the perspective of the approach to the employees as the most valuable asset of the company.

However, there are indications that undermine the exclusivity of the role that the organization should play in the educational process. Top-down educational initiatives may not raise sufficient commitment and can be treated not as a concern of the organization about "their capital", but as yet another obligation imposed on workers. Participation in training on the principle of coercion is not effective. Little are we able to learn by osmosis. Ongoing learning cannot be realized if there is no incentive in the form of personal commitment. If there is lack of this key element, people will be willing to accept any training. However, the effects of such actions persist for a while, and the trainees, in the absence of acceptance of the actions taken, quickly cease to practice new skills. Losing them gradually, they often forget the principles and theories which used to convince them about the importance of training (Senge, 2002, p. 231). Moreover, today's models of professional career increasingly emphasize the need to self-manage own development and independence from the parent organizational environment on behalf of an organosphere- a space in which each organization becomes a potential employer, and managing own professional development means a skilful use of the emerging opportunities.

In modern Polish organizations, this aspect takes on a new meaning. The old social system did not develop in people a sense of responsibility for their own fate. In the mentality of employees still lingers a wrongful today assumption that the most important thing is to focus on the present. Difficult economic conditions cause that for the employees a key role plays an optimal implementation of current tasks. In this situation, plans for their own development are treated as somewhat

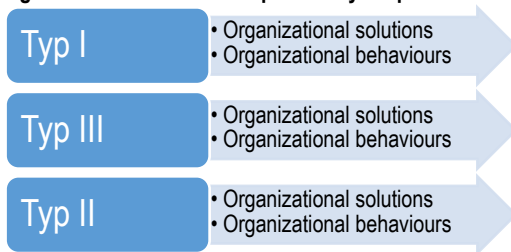
ancillary activities. Executives feel a responsibility for the fate of the organization, for the people working in it, they see the need for massive changes that await modern companies, they complain about the passivity and indolence of these actions, often forgetting, however, the most important, that the responsibility for professional development is a polymorphic phenomenon.

The model of locus of responsibility for professional development - dialectical approach

Professional development of workers is a process which naturally involves two entities: the organization - the realization of strategic objectives depends on the quality of human resources; and the individuals - their position not only in the organization but also in the labour market depends on the updating of the knowledge. However, the question should be asked, who is in this situation responsible for the course of this process? More specifically, where in the perception of the organization and employees is the responsibility for its course located?

Based on the Hegelian dialectic, it can be assumed that the responsibility for the professional development of employees lies with the organization (thesis - Type I), which is the one to plan, organize and settle accounts for effects of the actions undertaken by the employees. The antithesis will therefore be a claim that the employees are responsible for their development, subordinating its course to their own goals (Type III.). So clear a divergence in the perception of the locus of responsibility leads to the synthesis, where the employee's development is the result of a consensus which respects both the strategic objectives of the organization and the expectations of the employee (Type II.). Each of the distinguished types entails specific implications both for the functioning of the organization (applied organizational solutions) as well as the workers themselves (manifested organizational behaviour).

Fig. 1. Model of locus of responsibility for professional development - dialectical approach



Source: own study

The first type of locus of responsibility for the development can be called a traditional approach, in which the employee is treated instrumentally, like a "cog in the machine", whereas the subject of activities is the organization and its goals. Tools of personnel policy mainly concern the administration of human resources and ensure continuity in the work. The direction and pace of development are determined first of all by the current needs of the organization and its ability to act.

Organisational behaviours type I relate to situations where the employee transfers the responsibility for the development onto the organization and fulfils the tasks primarily in the manner and to the extent strictly defined by the organization. The employee does not feel a major participant in the work process, treating his duties fragmentarily. He performs daily tasks on the basis of principles and standards applicable to his workplace, not seeking a broader reference to the work in terms of the entire section, department, or organization. Development is not a priority of action here, but only the necessity arising from the need to adapt to the conditions imposed by the organization.

At the other extreme, there are organizations where employees of key importance to the continuity of the organization are of strategic importance, in other cases prevails the externalization of employment (type III). The subject of activities is the organization and its goals; cooperation with employees is established temporarily and adequately to them. Expenditure on development is incurred in relation to "key competencies", in the case of other employees the organization looks for "complete" people.

For organizational behaviours type III, Characteristic is temporary and task- oriented attitude of the employee towards the organization. Current employer is treated instrumentally, as a provider of resources necessary to perform assigned tasks.

For this type of behaviour, characteristic is also high awareness of the necessity of development, combined with the adoption of the responsibility for its course. The employee of future has a clearly marked out career path, in the environment (with subsequent employers) looks for opportunities to develop specific competencies.

An intermediate model is therefore a model in which human resources are of strategic importance, but that potential is optimized by building employee engagement (type II.). Thus the subject of action, as in type I, is the organization and its goals, but in this case the personnel policy is conducted with consideration for the needs of the worker. In this perspective, human resources are seen as an organization's assets and source of competitive advantage. The most important feature is postulating the integration of personal matters with business affairs. Investing in employee development is subordinated to the implementation of strategic objectives of the organization, that is why in the creation of career pathways are involved both the employees themselves, their supervisors, and employees of the personnel department. The organization offers the possibility of vertical and horizontal promotion, wherein preparation for taking on new tasks includes development of both implementing and social skills.

For organizational behaviour type II characteristic is the full involvement of the employees in an organizational reality. The tasks they perform are treated by the workers as important and in connection with other activities of the organization. Strong identification allows for build organizational identity, which is the basis of building a development path within the organization. Employees characterised by the behaviours of the modern type appreciate, on the one hand, the need for security and belonging - that is why they choose to be bound with one organization and are involved in the implementation of its objectives; on the other hand, they are professionally active people, who satisfy the need for change by intra-organizational transfer. This approach involves the transfer of part of responsibility for the development onto the organization, but on terms agreed with the employee.

Analysis of each type raises questions about the reason for the differences in the locus of responsibility for the development. On the one hand it is to be considered whether the characteristics of the organization affects its organizational solutions, on the other hand, is the employee's attitude to the development determined by biographical-professional variables?

METHODS

In order to identify differences in locus of responsibility for professional development, the article used the data derived in course of realization of a research project entitled „Multi-dimensional Analysis of Organizational Behaviors [WAZO] – methodology and the measurement tool” (The project was financed by National Centre of Science; award based on the number of decisions

DEC-2013/09 / B / HS4 / 02722). The research was conducted on a sample group of enterprises which have at least 50 employees. The sample was selected on a random basis within the scope of groups selected based on employment figure criterion (medium/high) and the type of business (trade, industry and services). Due to over-representation in the sample of commercial enterprises and under-representation in the sample of service enterprises and also due to varied responsiveness of particular groups of entities, the structure of the sample was leveled to the structure of medium and large enterprises populations in Poland, by adopting the values of analytical weights.

Table 1. Subjective and objective scope of research

	Research subject	Research object
Phase I	Organization	Organizational solutions (OS)
Phase II	Employee	Organizational behaviours (OB)

Source: own study

According to the adopted model, the implementation of empirical research has been divided into two phases. In the first phase of the study, the subject is an organization, and the object - organizational solutions used in various dimensions. In the second phase, the subject of the study is the employee, and the object - its organizational behaviour against the background of the individual dimensions (Table 1).

The study used a WAZO questionnaire designed to study the organizational and cognitive aspects of organizational behaviour both in general and broken down by dimension¹. The content presented in the article refers to one of the dimensions of organizational behaviour used in the questionnaire, described as HR policy, and allows for answering the question:

Where is the responsibility for professional development located in the perspective of the organization and employees?

Theoretical constructs highlighted in the model (Type I, II, III of the locus of responsibility for development) were operationalized in empirical study using indicators relating to organizational solutions (phase I of the study) and organizational behaviour (phase II of the study). The dependent variable is the type of responsibility, the independent variable for organizations is employment size and industry, and for the employees - gender, position, age, work experience.

Characteristics of the surveyed population

In the first phase of the study participated 289 companies, of which 71.6% were companies employing 50 to 249 employees (defined in the study as the average), while 26.3% were companies employing over 250 employees (defined in the study as big). In the case of 2.1% of companies, the data on the volume of employment was not provided. In the sample, 42.8% of the companies represented the service industry, 40.9% - the manufacturing industry, and 15.9% were companies belonging to the retail industry.

The results presented in the article are taken from the second phase of the research, in which 2274 employees from 40 organizations selected from the sample of these organizations, which took part in phase I of the research, also took part. The sex ratio in the group was 36% women and 64% men. The persons on managerial positions constituted 24% of the population and the persons on non-managerial positions constituted 76% of the population. The average age of the respondents was 38.2 years (STD = 10.7 years). Half of the employees are not more than 36 years of age. The youngest was 15 years old and the oldest - 83 years old. 25% of not more than 30 years old, on the other hand, 25% - not less than 45 years of age. The most numerous age groups are - 25 - 24 years (27.6%) and 35 - 44 years (24.4%), while the far less numerous were the youngest group (under 25 years - 4.1%) and over 55 years of age (8%). About every fourth person did not disclose their age.²

Findings. The results show that on the Polish market there are organizations representing each of the analyzed approaches to the professional development of employees, the most numerous are type I organizations (55.4%), and the least numerous are organizations type III (6.1%). Detailed results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Responsibility for professional development - organizational perspective

	Frequency (valid)	Percentage valid
Type I	156	55.4%
Type II	107	37.9%
Type III	17	6.1%
Total	282	100%

Source: own calculations, based on individual results from the study on organization [n =289].

Turning to the detailed analysis, it is worth noting that the traditional approach to a greater extent characterizes medium-sized organizations, employing 50 to 249 people (59%), while for large organizations most replies were given for type II (50.7%). The approach characteristic of the organization of the future (type III), was far less common, regardless of the size of employment (7.3% and 4.2% respectively). At the same time, although the differences between the two groups were not

¹ Detailed information on the methodology and a research tool WAZO will be included in the study „Kwestionariusz WAZO – metodyka i narzędzie badawcze” ed. K. Januszkiewicz, I. Bednarska-Wnuk, M. Czajkowska, M. Kołodziejczak, J. Michalak, I. Świątek-Barylska, M. Zalewska-Turzyńska (on the date of publication of the article it is in the process of publishing).

² The category of managerial positions includes employees from the „senior executive” and „medium executive” groups, the remaining groups were classified as non-managerial positions (specialist, technician, office worker, service worker, industrial worker, operator, others).

statistically significant ($p = 0.064$), one can observe a tendency towards the development of a model of co-responsibility in the case of large organizations. Detailed data is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Responsibility for professional development - organizational perspective by employment size

	employment size	
	50 – 249	> 250
Type I	59%	45.1%
Type II	33.2%	50.7%
Type III	7.3%	4.2%
Total	100%	100%

$p = 0.064$; p – probability in the independency test chi-square; * - statistically significant variable ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Source: own calculations, based on individual results from the study on organization [$n = 289$].

Likewise, the industry in which operations are conducted, turned out not to be the factor differentiating the approach of surveyed organizations to the development of their employees ($p = 0.235$). Both in Commerce, Production and Services the most common approach was Type I. (in each group, more than half of respondents declared such an approach), then Type II, and Type III was represented the most seldom. (See also table 4).

Table 4: Responsibility for professional development - organizational perspective by Industry

	Industry		
	Commerce	Production	Services
Type I	58.7%	60.4%	50.4%
Type II	32.6%	35.1%	41.9%
Type III	6.5%	4.5%	7.7%
Total	100%	100%	100%

$p = 0.235$; p – probability in the independency test chi-square; * - statistically significant variable ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Source: own calculations, based on individual results from the study on organization [$n = 289$].

However, in the perspective of workers, typically represented approach was the approach characteristic for Type II (65.8%). While little more than 20% of respondents indicated Type I, and the proceedings in accordance with Type II were declared by 13.4% of respondents (the details are presented in Table 5).

Table 5: Responsibility for professional development - the perspective of the individual

	Frequency	Percentage valid
Type I	469	20.8%
Type II	1481	65.8%
Type III	302	13.4%
Total	2252	100%

Source: own calculations, based on individual results from the study on employees [$n = 2274$].

Co-participation in the development process turned out to be just as important for women as for men, more than half of the indications in both groups falls on Type II. Regardless of the gender of the subjects in second place with just over 20% of

the responses came in Type I and developmental behavior of Type III was declared respectively by 11.6% women and 14.5% men. The differences in this case are not statistically significant ($p = 0.094$). Detailed data are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Responsibility for professional development - the perspective of the individual broken down by gender

	Gender	
	Women	Men
Type I	20.1%	21.4%
Type II	68.3%	64.1%
Type III	11.6%	14.5%
Total	100%	100%

$p = 0.094$; p – probability in the independency test chi-square; * - statistically significant variable ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Source: own calculations, based on individual results from the study on employees [$n = 2274$].

Similarly, a variable having no influence on the developmental behavior in the light of the data obtained, turned out to be the position. Both employees in managerial and non-managerial positions frequently declared behavior characteristic for Type II. In both groups, nearly one-fifth of employees delegated responsibility for the development to the organization (respectively type I - managers 18.1%, non-managers - 21.8%), while the fewest indications in the groups fall to Type III. (See also table 7).

Table 7: Responsibility for professional development - the perspective of the individual by his position

	Position	
	Managerial	Non-managerial
Type I	18.1%	21.8%
Type II	67.7%	65.4%
Type III	14.1%	12.8%
Total	100%	100%

$p = 0.193$; p – probability in the independency test chi-square; * - statistically significant variable ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Source: own calculations, based on individual results from the study on employees [$n = 2274$].

Approach to professional development, however, remains in a statistically significant relationship with the age of the subjects and with seniority.

Table 8: Responsibility for professional development – the perspective of the individual by age of the respondents

	Age (in years)					
	< 25	25 – 34	35 - 44	45 – 54	55 - 64	>64
Type I	18.6%	14.7%	21.0%	20.6%	24.3%	11.1%
Type II	68.1%	68.4%	64.6%	71.6%	69.8%	77.8%
Type III	13.4%	16.9%	14.5%	7.8%	5.9%	11.1%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

$p = 0.000^*$; p – probability in the independency test chi-square; * - statistically significant variable ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Source: own calculations, based on individual results from the study on employees [$n = 2274$].

At the beginning it is worth to point out that regardless of the age group most responses were obtained for Type II (in each group over 60%). In contrast, with the age of the respondents generally increases willingness to behavior characteristic for Type I (from 18.6% to 24.3%), and decreases the frequency of indications for Type III (from 13.4% to 5.9%). The exception is in that case the group over 64 years of age, for whom beside the dominant behavior of Type-II, behaviour Type I and III are characteristic in the same way (11.1%). A detailed overview is shown in Table 8.

Table 9: Responsibility for professional development - perspective of the individual by seniority

	Seniority (in years)				
	< 1	1 - 2	2 - 5	5 - 10	> 10
Type I	19.1%	16.3%	19.3%	20.3%	23.3%
Type II	63.4%	69.4%	64.6%	66.8%	66.9%
Type III	17.4%	14.4%	16.0%	12.9%	9.8%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

$p = 0.023^*$; p – probability in the independency test chi-square; * - statistically significant variable ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Source: own calculations, based on individual results from the study on employees [n = 2274].

A similar relationship can be observed by analyzing the approach to development, depending on the seniority of the respondents. Regardless of the group, type II behavior prevails (over 60%), however, generally the frequency of declaration for Type I slightly increases (from 19.1% to 23.3%) and drops for the Type III - in this case the change is slightly larger, from 17.4% to 9.8%. Slightly different from the above described trends are the results of workers employed in the organization for 1 to 2 years. Table 8 contains detailed data.

Discussion of results

Based on the obtained results it can be concluded that the Polish market is dominated by organizations of characteristic for Type I traditional approach to human resources, locating the responsibility for the development of employees in the organization. More than half of subjects surveyed (55.4%) feel the owners of this process, which on one hand can be an expression of maturity and responsibility, on the other, however, and this interpretation seems to be closer to the truth, it may be a manifestation of ignoring the interests of workers and subordinating all activities related to the development of human resources to the interests of the company. The results of the study indicate that the tendency to autocratic management of professional development of employees is characteristic for an organization, regardless of the size of employment ($p = 0.064$) and the sector of activity ($p = 0.235$).

It should be noted that in this case the perspective of the organization differs significantly from the perspective of workers, who in the vast majority (65.8%) perceive their development as a result of interaction with the organization (type II). Only close to one-fifth of the surveyed population transfer all the responsibility into the hands of the organization, while just over 13% see themselves as the only owners of the process. Variables not discriminating the studied population were in this respect: gender ($p = 0.094$) and the position held ($p = 0.193$). In contrast, variables that significantly affect the perception of responsibility for professional development are the age of the subjects and seniority. It is worth noting that the percentage of people co-participating in management of their own development increases with age and it is a correlation statistically significant at $p = 0.000^*$. It can be assumed that the commitment to the process is favored by the professional experience acquired during the career. Employees, increasingly aware of their capabilities, become partners in the process, during the life their self-awareness increases, and so does their knowledge about the extent to which they can take advantage of the offer of the organization. One exception here is a group of workers in mid-career (35 - 44 years old), the results of which were the lowest for Type II. However, this is the period during which a person performs a re-evaluation of past actions, and chooses the path for the next years of work, and that is where precisely this "deceleration" may result from.

A similar correlation can be observed in regard to seniority, which is dominated by Type II. However, with the number of working years a greater willingness appears to transfer the responsibility for career onto the organization. At the same time it is worth noting that most employees ready to share responsibility for managing the development are in the group of those employed from 1 to 2 years. It is difficult to clearly determine whether this is the result of increasing confidence in the

organization and entrusting it with own professional destiny, or some kind of surrender to its policies. Indirectly, the accuracy of the second solution may be indicated by a decline in responses for Type III, where the least-represented are the employees with more than ten years of work experience. It is hard to make in this case, a one-dimensional interpretation so it may be worthwhile to focus on the consequences of such a state. On the one hand, the result suggests in fact the limited impact of the organizational environment on the behavior of employees, which really means lack of modeling based on the patterns promoted by the organization. The second layer of interpretation, however, is to some extent a consequence of this conclusion. If we assume that organizational solutions used under the dimension of personnel policy do not shape the behavior, then the workers taking up employment in companies with inconsistent typology are forced to work in an organizational environment that does not support their actions. Lack of matching in time means that workers do not succumb to external pressure and they either independently look for opportunities to pursue their own goals and aspirations, or experience frustration and pay the price of reduced sense of quality of life at work. Consequences of matching behavior to organizational solutions were not studied, however, hence these proposals can be considered only as certain assumptions, requiring in-depth analysis in the future.

Findings and conclusions

Diagnosed discrepancies in locating the responsibility for professional development in the perspective of employees and the organization can be defined as the phenomenon of dual development, where subjects differently interpret their roles and responsibilities. The process of professional development implies that both organizations and employees are trying to achieve their goals, wherein the organization is growing by focusing the development of employees, and the workers - thanks to the possibilities posed by the organizations. In today's world, such a system has a chance of success, however, vital to the smooth operation of this symbiosis is consciousness, what the roles and responsibilities of each party are (Kuron, Schweitzer and all, 2016). The results confirm that employees to a greater extent than organizations are ready for a new cooperation model - based on partnership and, what is worth emphasizing, benefiting each party. This attitude is most often declared by employees regardless of gender or their position. Awareness of the importance of development is an important factor in the success of both managerial and non-managerial positions. Even if it is not *yet directing own learning*¹, but the resulting from cooperative orientation [See: Reykowski, 1986, pp. 135-137] form of calculative participation [Sikorski, 1998, p 149], each party has a lot to offer and organizations should take advantage of this opportunity, more appreciating the employees involvement.

A study conducted on a representative sample, was however limited to the organizations and employees in Poland. Therefore, it should be considered to undertake in the future research on the locus of responsibility for the development of employees in other countries, which would allow for the cross-cultural comparison and generalizations of conclusions. In addition, the results indicate that the locus of control may be also moderated by other factors not directly related to the characteristics of the organization or employees (e.g. the assessment of quality of life, trust in the organization, etc.), so further research projects should be extended also by those elements.

To recapitulate, it should be stated that the issue of the locus of responsibility for professional development of employees is nowadays particularly important. The pace of the changes is forcing organizations to permanent adaptation, and employees to increase awareness of career management. Organizations should take advantage of the opportunity afforded by the willingness of employees to share the responsibility. These activities must be increasingly taken into account in the organizational solutions and systems of shaping the behavior of people in the work environment. For only the awareness of mutual expectations of these two entities will increase the effectiveness of these actions.

References

- Armstrong M. (2002). *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*. Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków.
- Bielski M. (2002). *Podstawy teorii organizacji i zarządzania*. Wydawnictwo C.H. Beck, Warszawa.
- Guskey, T. R. (2003). *What makes professional development effective?*. *Phi delta kappan*, 84(10), 748.

¹ Understood as an acceptance of responsibility for the realization of their own development needs in order to achieve better results and meet their career aspirations and increase their chances on the labour market - both within the organization and outside [Armstrong, 2002, p. 440].

- Januszkiewicz K. and all. (2012). *Zachowania organizacyjne. Uwarunkowania i kierunki ewolucji*. Wydawnictwo UŁ, Łódź.
- Kuron, L. K., Schweitzer, L., Lyons, S., & Ng, E. S. (2016). *Career profiles in the "new career": evidence of their prevalence and correlates*. *Career Development International*, 21(4).
- McElroy, J. C., & Weng, Q. (2016). *The Connections Between Careers and Organizations in the New Career Era Questions Answered, Questions Raised*. *Journal of Career Development*, 43(1), 3-10.
- Reykowski J. (1986). *Prosocial Motivation. Prosocial Attitudes and Personality*, Warszawa: PWN.
- Senge P. (2002). *Piąta dyscyplina. Materiały dla praktyka*. Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków.
- Sikorski C. (1998). *Ludzie nowej organizacji*. Wydawnictwo UŁ, Łódź.
- Toffler A. (1974). *Szok przyszłości*. PTW, Warszawa.
- Wachowiak J. (2002). *Wiedza i kreatywność w organizacji uczącej się*. In: *Współczesne organizacje – wyzwania i zagrożenia. Perspektywa psychologiczna*. Ed. M. Strykowska, Wydawnictwo Fundacji Humaniora, Poznań.

Tables:

- Table 1. Subjective and objective scope of research
- Table 2: Responsibility for professional development - organizational perspective
- Table 3: Responsibility for professional development - organizational perspective by employment size
- Table 4: Responsibility for professional development - organizational perspective by Industry
- Table 5: Responsibility for professional development - the perspective of the individual
- Table 6: Responsibility for professional development - the perspective of the individual broken down by gender
- Table 7: Responsibility for professional development - the perspective of the individual by his position
- Table 8: Responsibility for professional development – the perspective of the individual by age of the respondents
- Table 9: Responsibility for professional development - perspective of the individual by seniority

Figures:

- Fig. 1. Model of locus of responsibility for professional development - dialectical approach

Chitosan Based Forms for Wound and Burn Dressings

Rodica Sirbu

"Ovidius" University of Constanța, Faculty of Pharmacy, Campus Corp B, University Alley, Nr. 1, Constanța, Romania

Alef Mustafa

Coressponding author e-mail

UMF "Carol Davila" Bucharest, Faculty of Pharmacy, Traian Vuia Str. Nr. 6, Sector 2, Bucharest, Romania

Abstract

In the last decade, medical doctors and pharmacists faced with a growing number of patients suffering from wounds and burns difficult to treat and heal. It was observed that if a particularly large percentage total body surface area is affected, burn injuries increase the rate of mortality and morbidity. It is very important to treat properly the injury by using dressings impregnated with different combinations of polymers that help protect the injury and contribute to the regeneration and repairing of dermal and epidermal tissues. The materials used for wound dressings protect the wound against microorganisms acting as physical barriers permeable for moisture and oxygen. Many natural polymers such as polysaccharides (alginates, chitin, chitosan, chondroitin), proteoglycans and proteins (collagen, gelatin, fibrin, keratin, silk fibroin, eggshell membrane) are used in wounds and burns management very often, due to their biocompatibility, biodegradability and similarity to macromolecules recognized by the human body. They make cell proliferation, migration and differentiation possible and ables the process to take place, due to their sturcture and mechanical properties.

Keywords: burn injuries, wound healing, wound dressing, chitin, chitosan.

INTRODUCTION

Because of their remarkable properties (biocompatibility, biodegradability) natural polymers are widely used in the regenerative medicine field, for wounds and burns management. These natural polymers are involved in the repair of damaged tissues and also in skin regeneration [1]. They present a three dimensional crosslinked polymeric network and can be combined with different materials and agents that have regenerating properties as well to obtain new pharmaceutical forms to use in wound management and treatment.

If we focus on polysaccharides, they are extensively used for the management of wounds and burns: neutral (glucans, dextrans, cellulose), acidic (alginic acid, hyaluronic acid), basic (chitin, chitosan) or sulfated polysaccharides (heparin, chondroitin, dermatan sulfate, keratan sulfate) [2].

The study of the rheology parameters of the semisolid pharmaceutical systems that are used for topic applications presents a great importance because the rheological characterization can offer fundamental information about some final properties of the pharmaceutical form, such as quality and stability.

MATERIAL AND RESEARCH METHODS

The study refers to the measurement of viscosity using the rotation method. The devices used tot determine the value of viscosity are called rotational viscosimeters. In general, a rotational viscosimeter is formed from two coaxial parts that contain the researched gel between. (Fig.1). In order to determine the viscosity or other rheological properties of the fluid (shear stress, hysteresis) the mechanism must have a constant angular velocity (ω).

Using this method of cylindrical system with a known geometry and by knowing the rotational velocity we can determine the viscosity of the studied samples. Some series of determinations will be made at different turation and their

corresponding shear rate values (D). The value of viscosity that corresponds to a given value of the shear speed is called apparent viscosity and gives the curve of viscosity. It can be found using the formula

$$\eta = f(D) \quad (1)$$

Knowing the values of the shear stress (τ) and shear rate (D) we can obtain a rheogram of the studied samples, using de formula [3]:

$$D = f(\tau) \quad (2)$$

The viscosity values were determined on different cream compositions starting from two different cream bases and successively adding other two components that present wound healing properties (chitosan and hyaluronic acid) in the same proportions in each sample. The aim of the research is to determine the influence of these added components on the samples viscosity. The instrument used to determine the samples viscosity is the ViscoStar R Viscosimeter shown in Fig.2. The selected spindles for these sample studies were R6 and R7, depending on the range of viscosity to be determined and for each spindle corresponds a constant value which was used to calculate the shear speed (D) in correlation with the selected speed (ω) in rpm:

$$D = \omega * R \quad (3)$$

The viscosity (η) is measured in cP and its values depend on the turation values (ω).

The shear stress (τ) is measured in Pa and in order to calculate the shear stress the values of the shear speed and viscosity must be known. It can be calculated using the formula:

$$\tau = \eta * D \quad (4)$$

The viscosity values from each sample were read in time laps of 10 sec apart at the selected speed, at a series of turations from 4-200 and backwards, from 200-4. All the viscosity values that were under 15% of full scale were eliminated.

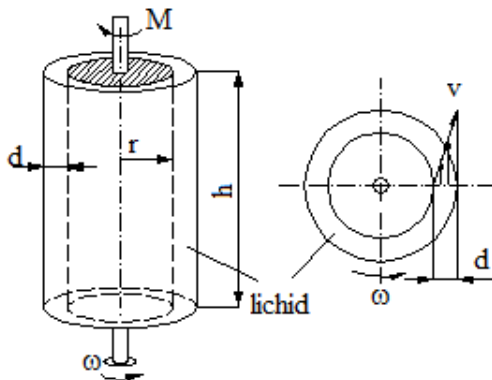


Fig. 1. Rotational Viscosimeter



Fig.2 ViscoStar R Viscosimeter

For the viscosity study two basic creams were selected and each one was mixed, primarily with chitosan and then with hyaluronic acid. The determinations were made for each one of the combined samples in order to determine the influence of an additional component to the viscosity of the pharmaceutical form. Therefore, 6 cream sample were obtained and studied.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The sample composition:

C1 sample is based on a 70% lanolin composition.

At every turation scale, at a time lap of 10 sec a viscosity value was noted and according to these values the shear speed (D) and shear stress (τ) was determined. The values are shown in Table.1.

Table.1 Viscosity, shear speed and shear stress values at different turation values for C1 sample

Viscosity η (cP)	Shear speed D (sec ⁻¹)	Shear stress (τ) Pa
the interval between	the interval between	the interval between
13200 cP and 352800 cP,	1.12 (sec ⁻¹) and 56 (sec ⁻¹)	266,28 Pa and 739,2 Pa.

C2 sample is a mixture of lanolin base 97,5% and Chitosan 2,5%.

At every turation scale, at a time lap of 10 sec a viscosity value was noted and according to these values the shear speed (D) and shear stress (τ) was determined. The values are shown in Table.2.

Table.2 Viscosity, shear speed and shear stress values at different turation values for C2 sample

Viscosity η (cP)	Shear speed D (sec ⁻¹)	Shear stress (τ) Pa
the interval between	The interval between	the interval between
25752 cP and 157800 cP,	1. 68 (sec ⁻¹) and 56 (sec ⁻¹)	151,788 Pa and 843,3 Pa.

C3 sample is a mixture of lanolin base 95% , Chitosan 2,5% and HA 2,5%

At every turation scale, at a time lap of 10 sec a viscosity value was noted and according to these values the shear speed (D) and shear stress (τ) was determined. The values are shown in Table.3.

Table.3 Viscosity, shear speed and shear stress values at different turation values for C3 sample

Viscosity η (cP)	Shear speed D (sec ⁻¹)	Shear stress (τ) Pa
the interval between	the interval between	the interval between
7600 cP and 122600 cP,	1.4 (sec ⁻¹) and 56 (sec ⁻¹)	171,64 Pa and 425,6 Pa.

C4 sample is a mixture of lanolin base 99% and silver sulfadiazine 1%

At every turation scale, at a time lap of 10 sec a viscosity value was noted and according to these values the shear speed (D) and shear stress (τ) was determined. The values are shown in Table.4.

Table.4 Viscosity, shear speed and shear stress values at different turation values for C4 sample

Viscosity η (cP)	Shear speed D (sec ⁻¹)	Shear stress (τ) Pa
the interval between 2100 cP and 33500 cP,	the interval between 1.7 (sec ⁻¹) and 68 (sec ⁻¹)	the interval between 59,16 Pa and 142,8 Pa.

C5 sample is a mixture of lanolin base 96,5%, silver sulfadiazine1%, Chitosan 2,5%

At every turation scale, at a time lap of 10 sec a viscosity value was noted and according to these values the shear speed (D) and shear stress (τ) was determined. The values are shown in Table.5.

Table.5 Viscosity, shear speed and shear stress values at different turation values for C5 sample

Viscosity η (cP)	Shear speed D (sec ⁻¹)	Shear stress (τ) Pa
the interval between 2100 cP and 38600 cP,	the interval between 1.36 (sec ⁻¹) and 68 (sec ⁻¹)	the interval between 52,496 Pa and 142,8 Pa.

C6 sample is a mixture of lanolin base 94%, silver sulfadiazine1%, Chitosan 2,5%, HA 2,5%

At every turation scale, at a time lap of 10 sec a viscosity value was noted and according to these values the shear speed (D) and shear stress (τ) was determined. The values are shown in Table.6.

Analising the results of the shear speed (D), viscosity (η) and shear stress (τ) obtained in the Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 we can display the rheograms and the curves of viscosity for every sample. Because the rheogram of a material with pseudoplastic flow does not present any linear segments, its viscosity cannot have only one value: every point on the rheogram corresponds to a certain value of viscosity, also known as apparent viscosity (η), and it is significant only if the corresponding shear rate or shear stress is specified.

The „ τ ” versus „D” rheogram for these samples shows that the apparent viscosity decreases when the share rate increases. This kind of flow is also known as flow with the thinning shear and it can be determined using the Ostwald de Waele ecuation:

$$D = \eta \cdot \tau^n \quad (4)$$

where: n = index of plasticity (pseudoplasticity), with values ranging between (0 ÷ 1)

Table.6 Viscosity, shear speed and shear stress values at different turation values for C6 sample

Viscosity η (cP)	Shear speed D (sec ⁻¹)	Shear stress (τ) Pa
the interval between 1273 cP and 40500 cP,	the interval between 1.12 (sec ⁻¹) and 56 (sec ⁻¹)	the interval between 49,1 Pa and 86,5Pa.

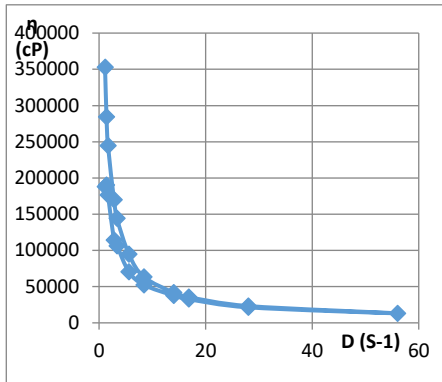


Fig.3. The „η” versus „D” rheogram - pseudoplastic flow C1 sample

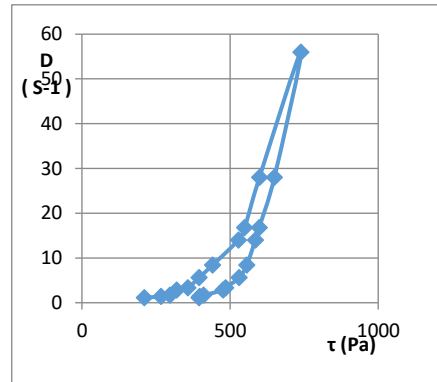


Fig.4. The „D” versus „τ” curve of viscosity - C1 sample

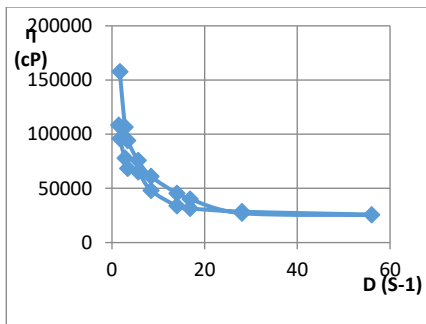


Fig.5. The „η” versus „D” rheogram - pseudoplastic flow C2 sample

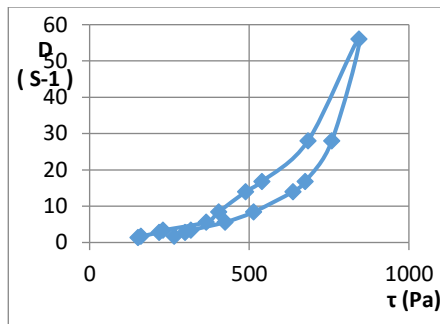


Fig.6. The „D” versus „τ” curve of viscosity - C2 sample

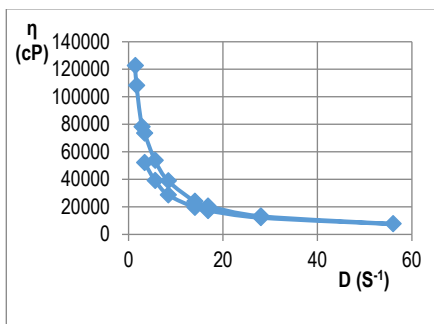


Fig.7. The „η” versus „D” rheogram - pseudoplastic flow C3 sample

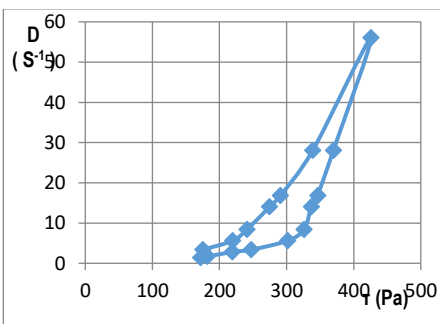


Fig.8. The „D” versus „τ” curve of viscosity - C3 sample

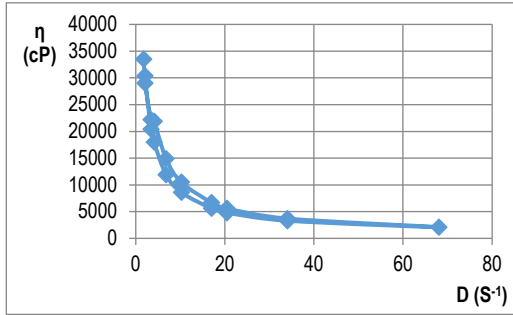


Fig.9. The „η” versus „D” rheogram - pseudoplastic flow C4 sample

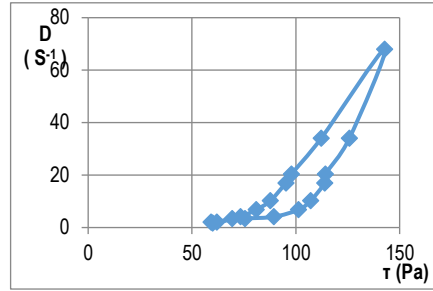


Fig.10. The „D” versus „τ” curve of viscosity – C4 sample

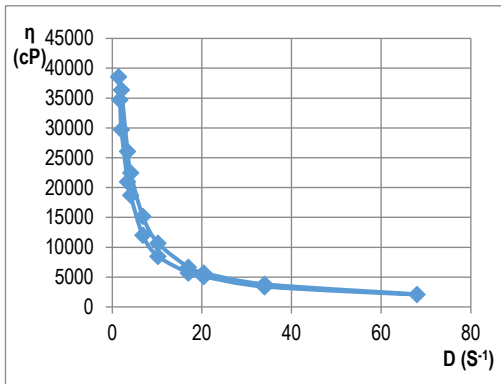


Fig.11. The „η” versus „D” rheogram - pseudoplastic flow C5 sample

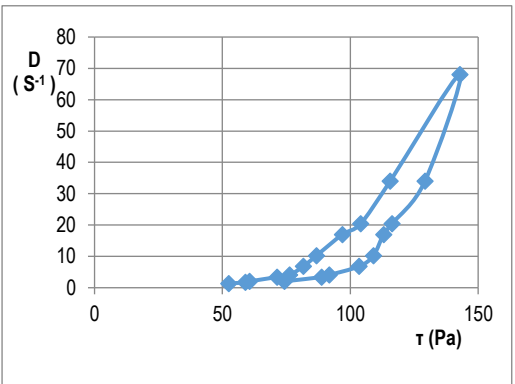


Fig.12. The „D” versus „τ” curve of viscosity – C5 sample

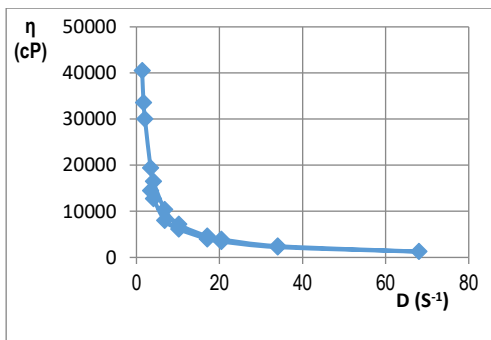


Fig.13. The „η” versus „D” rheogram - pseudoplastic flow – C6 sample

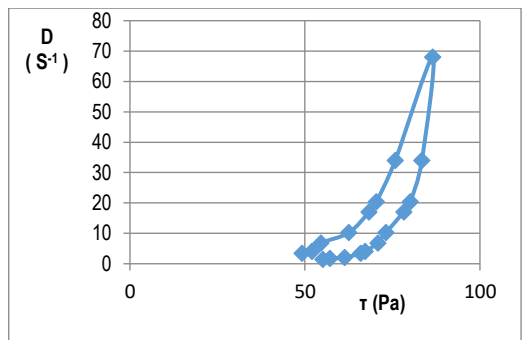


Fig.14. The „D” versus „τ” curve of viscosity – C6 sample

At it was shown in charts above, the presented rheograms from Fig.3, Fig.5, Fig.7, Fig 9, Fig.11 and Fig.13 show a pseudoplastic behaviour. Viscosity decreases as rotation speed increases.

The curves of viscosity from Fig.4, Fig.6, Fig.8, Fig.10, Fig.12 and Fig.14 for each sample demonstrate a linearization of curves can be observed at increases of shear rates of over 20 sec⁻¹. This means they exhibit a tendency for ideal plastic behaviour at high shear rates, over 20 sec⁻¹, which practically means that the gel no longer changes its structure at shearing rates over the mentioned value.

For a comparative study of the new pharmaceutical formulations and an appraisal of the interaction between all the compounds from the rheological data, the following were taken into account:

Shear rate domains on which viscosity can be measured;

Rheogram shape;

Viscosity values at reduced shear rates.

CONCLUSION

The results of the research lead to the observation of the newtonian, pseudoplastic and thixotropic behaviour of these tested samples.

Formulations with lanolin base (C1 and C4), lanolin and chitosan (C2 and C5) and mixture of lanolin, chitosan and hyaluronic acid (C3 and C6) have a pseudoplastic rheological behaviour, with a decrease in apparent viscosity as shear rates increase.

Formulations are stable and have an opalescent aspect.

After the linearization of flow curves over a certain shear rate, formulations are stable and no longer modify structure.

The pharmaceutical formulations with lanolin base (C1 and C4) present the highest viscosity and a coarse aspect.

The pharmaceutical formulations with chitosan addition (C2 and C5) present an increase in viscosity at the same shear speed and a modification of colour from light yellow to grey.

The pharmaceutical formulations with chitosan and hyaluronic acid addition (C3 and C6) present a decrease in viscosity at the same shear speed.

From the rheological analysis of the samples with and without hyaluronic acid addition we can observe a linearization of flow curves at low shear stress values at the same shear speed. This demonstrates the highest stability and a very good fluidisation of the new obtained pharmaceutical forms.

REFERENCES

- [1] Huang, S., Fu, X., Naturally derived materials-based cell and drug delivery systems in skin regeneration. J. Control. Rel. 142, 149–159, 2010.
- [2] Kennedy, J.F., Knill, C.J., Thorley, M., Natural polymers for healing wounds. In: Kennedy, J.F., Philips, G.O., Williams, P.A., Hatakeyama, H. (Eds.), Recent Advances in Environmentally Compatible Polymers. Woodhead Publishing, Cambridge, England, pp. 97–104 (Chapter 12) 2011.
- [3] R.Z.Tudose, T. Volintiru- " Reologia compușilor macromoleculari" Ed. Tehnică, București, , pag 65-70, 1982.

New Formulation with Marine Algae from Black Sea

Emin CADAR

UMF "Carol Davila" Bucharest, Faculty of Pharmacy, Traian Vuia Str. Nr. 6, Sector 2, Bucharest, Romania

Emilia Cadar

The School No.30 "Gheorghe Titeica", Flemish str. no. 13, Constanta, Romania

Cristina-Luiza Erimia

Corresponding authors:

"Ovidius" University of Constanta, Faculty of Pharmacy, Campus Corp B, University Alley No. 1, Constanta, Romania

Aneta Tomescu

"Ovidius" University of Constanta, Faculty of Medicine, Campus Corp B, University Alley No. 1, Constanta, Romania

Abstract

Seaweed is a natural treasure that can be intensely evaluated for therapeutic purposes. During the past years, it became obvious that the ecosystem presents a **marine algae excedent**, which should be utilized in one way or another. Marine algae have been intensely studied. The superior exploitation of the marine biomass represents a highly important resource for the pharmaceutical industry, supplying raw material for the extraction of bioactive substances (vitamins, sterols, and aminoacids) and various other substances, the purity of which is strongly connected to the state of the marine ecosystem. In present work the extracts from marine algae are incorporated in type I non-denatured fibrillar collagen matrixes for obtain new pharmaceutical product. In order to obtain therapeutic effects at nanostructure level, it is important to know the rheological characteristics of the relevant mixtures of collagen gels and extracts from marine algae selected for use. In this survey we have studied mixtures made of non-denatured fibrillar collagen hydro-gels where different concentrations of marine algae have been incorporated.

Keywords: *marine biomass, fibrillar collagen, marine algae, seaweed, bioactive substances.*

INTRODUCTION

The first data regarding the use of algae dates back to the year 2500 B.C, while in China they are recorded in literature as early as the 8-6th centuries B.C. In Japan, the product Kombu, which is prepared from *Laminaria (angusta, japonica, religiosa)* and *Alaria* species, is consumed. However, only beginning with the 1670s have they been grown a large-scale. Antique Greeks used algae as a remedy against intestinal worms [1]. In Western countries, algae are not yet accepted as normal daily nutrient, maybe due to their less than appealing aspect and insufficient digestion ability. Nonetheless, in various parts of Europe, algae were used as a food product.

Alongside the Romanian coast, from a qualitative point of view, in the year 1935, the number of macrophytes was 77. Between 1970 and 1980, only 68 species were recorded. According to other estimates, at the end of the 1990s, only 38 species of *Clorophytes* were recorded. These observations outline the significant qualitative decline of the Romanian shore macrophytobenthos. During the last seven decades, the progressive diminishing of the macroalgae flora has intensified, with severe consequences on the entire coastal ecosystem. In 199, only the southern part of the Romanian shore exhibited a more specific diversity. Vegetation impoverishment, especially after 1970, is due to natural and anthropologic causes

which have deteriorated the marine system (severe frosting, argyle sedimentation on bottom rocks, a decrease in light penetration in the water column due to suspensions, increase in eutrophication) [1][2].

Along with the increase in eutrophication, significant qualitative changes were noted in the structure and function of the macrophytobenthos, starting with the oldest records up to the end of the year 2000.

Due to important amounts of suspended particles and plankton, the transparency of the sea water registered significant changes, with a considerable decrease. The position of the compensation point changed in such a way that bottom plants that were growing at depths over 7-8 metres became shadowed. This has contributed to the decline of macrophytes, despite large quantities of nutrients. Consequently, due to a large variability of ecologic factors, these changes of the ecosystem and community structure has lead to certain phytocenoses being replaced by others. The consequence has been a change in seasonal and multiannual dynamics of the algae communities.

The interaction between various anthropologic factors on vegetation has lead to various results, from a structural simplification to complete disappearance. Following hydrotechnics construction work, the algae bed was covered with mud and/or sand. Under these circumstances, *Cystoseira Ag.* species were replaced by *Cladophora* and *Ceramium*, these macrophytes being usually seen in shore areas, at depths lower than 3 metres, were eutrophication tolerant species have emerged such as *Enteromorpha intestinalis* and *Cladophora vagabunda* [1][3].

The most frequent species belong to the *Enteromorpha* and *Ceramium* genus, but also *Cladophora*, *Porphyra Ag.* and *Callithamnion Lyngb.* Usually, *Enteromorpha* species are mixed in this green algae belt with *Cladophora* species, and, in particular, *Cl. sericea (Huds)*, *Kutz* and, sometimes, *Cl. albida (Huds) Kutz.* and *Cl. laetevirens (Dillw.) Kutz* [4]. Although in a reduced number (qualitatively), the remaining species have developed considerable productivities on the available rocky substrates; the common algae populations, represented primarily by *Enteromorpha* and *Ceramium* species cover 80% of this substrate.

During the past years, it became obvious that the ecosystem presents a **marine algae excedent**. The phytochemical studies on the algae (inferior marine plants belonging to the Thallophyta systemic category) presents the possibility of their usage as raw material, due to the high context in poli-sugars, such as [5], [6]:

alginates (the alginic acid and its metallic salts, organic bases or their derivates), characteristic for the brown algae,

the agar-agar (co-polymer of D-galactose with 3,6-anhydro-L-galactose, partially esterified with sulphuric acid characteristic for the red algae,

various L-type monozes-galactose, 3,6-anhydro-D-galactose, L-frucoze, D-maluronic and L-guluronic acids, cellulose, chracacteristic for the green algae.

In addition, aminoacids (especially in green alage, such as *Ulva lactuca*) – among which the 8 that are essential for the human organism, and that impossible to be synthesized: izoleucine, leucine, lizine, metionine, fenil-alanine, treonine, triptofan, valine – are present in the algae.

Furthermore, the extraction of agar-agar from red algae *Phyllophora nervosa*, *Ceramium rubrum*, *C. elegans*, *Callithamnion corymbosum*, *Polysiphonia violaceea*) can provide vegetal geloze [3]. For the Romanian littoral area, the marine materials are easily accessible [4].

In literature on the matter, attempts of obtaining pharmaceutical products from the Romanian shore marine algae as alcoholic extracts incorporated in collagen hydrogels have been recorded [2]. The active principles identified in the Black Sea algae have drawn researchers' attention for their use in obtaining new pharmaceutical products [5][7][8].

The present study outlines the obtaining of new pharmaceutical formulations using marine algae, collagen, and hyaluronic acid. Each of these components has their own individual properties. The main goal is obtaining time-stable products with beneficial effects on various skin disorders.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The materials used are represented by green marine algae from the *Enteromorpha intestinalis* and *Cladophora vagabunda* species. *Enteromorpha* (*Enteromorpha intestinalis*), one of the most common green seaweeds to be found in shallow rockpools which copes with high temperatures and changes in salinity [3], [4].

From macroscopic and microscopic observations, the following descriptions can be made [3]:

Table 1. The macroscopic examination of the analysed marine algae [3], [5]

<p><i>Cladophora Vagabunda</i></p> <p>Multiannual alga, 10–15 cm tall; Strong discoidal rhizoid; Filamental tale with ramifications, Bushy aspect; Filaments formed of long continuous cells; Terminal ramifications in groups of 4–6, bent as a sickle.</p>	<p><i>Enteromorpha intestinalis</i></p> <p>green multimulticellular alga, with a single-cell layer tale height – from a few cm to 1m, width – from 1 mm to 10 cm; disk-like rhizoid; short, cylindric cauloid; intestine-like filoide.</p>
--	--

Table 2. The microscopic examination of the analyzed algae [3]

<p><i>Cladophora Vagabunda</i></p> <p>Multiannual alga, 10–15 cm tall; Strong discoidal rhizoid; Filamental tale with ramifications, Bushy aspect; Filaments formed of long continuous cells; Terminal ramifications in groups of 4–6, bent as a sickle.</p>	<p><i>Enteromorpha intestinalis</i></p> <p>green multimulticellular alga, with a single-cell layer tale height – from a few cm to 1m, width – from 1 mm to 10 cm; disk-like rhizoid; short, cylindric cauloid; intestine-like filoide.</p>
--	--

The algae used were in powder form.



Fig. 1 *Cladophora Vagabunda*

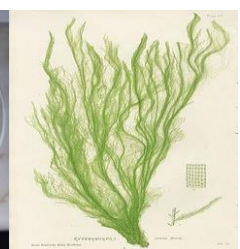


Fig. 2 *Enteromorpha intestinalis*

Type I fibrillar collagen

Collagen hydrolysate is obtained from bovine skin. Collagen, under all its characteristic forms, presents as a polymer with triple helix structure, which individualizes through intense hydrophilia, variable ionic characters and diverse functionality (Fig. 3). It can be involved in a wide number of interaction systems with other micro- or macromolecular components. Currently, in vertebrates, at least 27 different types of collagen are known, which exhibit a remarkable diversity in what regards molecular and supramolecular organisation, tissue distribution and function.

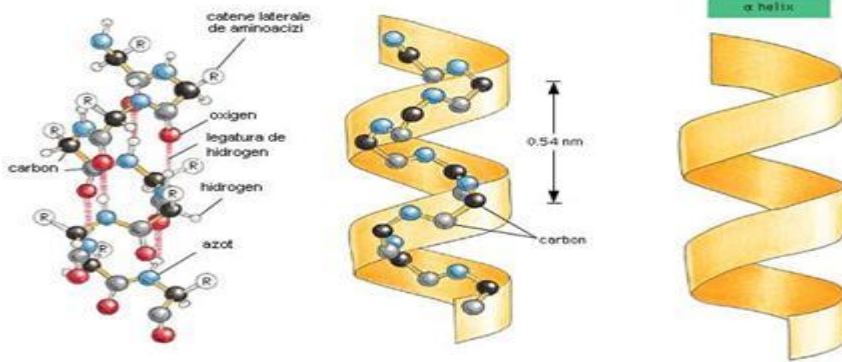


Fig 3 Collagen triple helix function

From this material, mixtures with varying collagen and Black Sea green algae composition were made (Fig. 4).



Fig 4 Products obtained from a collagen and different percentages of green algae

In order to select the product with the best stability, rheological studies were performed. In stability tests, the rotational viscometer Reovscostar R was used. Viscosity was measured at various rotation speed for the collagen products containing different percentages of green algae. Reading times were identical every 10 seconds, for 10 minutes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The formulations were obtained from collagen gels and green algae. Rheological studies were performed through viscosity measurements at varying rotation speeds. Thus, we established the D (s^{-1}) shear rate gradient, for which the η (cPoise) viscosity was obtained. From experimental data analyses, rheological parameters were obtained for each formulation:

For the P1 formulation with 4.76% green algae in collagen hydrolysate, the values from Table 1 were obtained.

Table 1. Rheological parameters for P1

Viscosity η (cP)	Shear rate D (sec^{-1})	Shear stress τ (Pa)
Interval between	Interval between	Interval between
19700 cP and 3800 cP,	4,8 (sec^{-1}) and 68 (sec^{-1})	80,37 Pa and 258,4 Pa.

For the P2 formulation with 7% green algae in collagen hydrolysate, the values from Table 2 were obtained.

Tabelul 2 parametrii reologici pentru P2

Viscosity η (cP)	Shear rate D (sec^{-1})	Shear stress τ (Pa)
Interval between	Interval between	Interval between
21323 cP and 8000 cP,	6,8 (sec^{-1}) and 34 (sec^{-1})	145 Pa and 268,6 Pa.

Measurements were made both at rotation speed increase and decrease. Rotation speed was between 12 rpm and 200 rpm for formulation P1 and between 12 rpm and 100 rpm for formulation P2.

For rheological analyses, graphics were used so as to follow rheograms (Fig. 5 and Fig. 6), variation of shear stress with speed gradient (Fig. 7 and Fig. 9) and flow curves (Fig. 8 and Fig. 10).

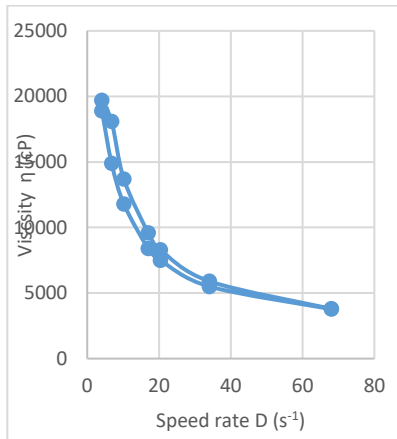


Fig. 5 Rheogram for formulation P1 (collagen and 4.76% green algae)

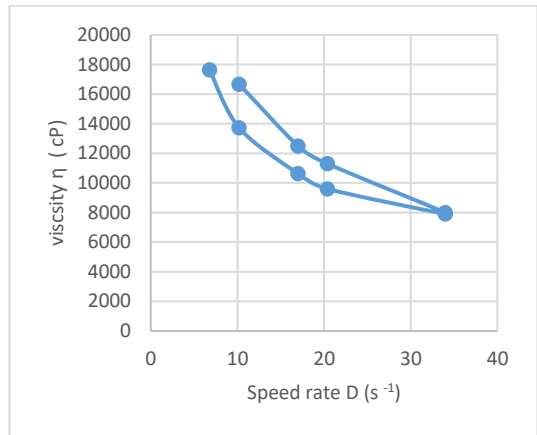


Fig. 6 Rheogram for formulation P2 (collagen + 7% green algae)

As it can be seen in figures 5 and 6, viscosity variation with speed gradient, the formulations have a pseudoplastic behaviour. Viscosity decreases as rotation speed increases. It can be noted that, at percentage of algae increases, the viscosity of the product increases.

In figures 7 and 9, a more rapid increase of shear stress is noted at the same shear rates, with an increase in algae percentage. Hysterzis loops are wider for formulation P2, which has a higher percentage of green algae.

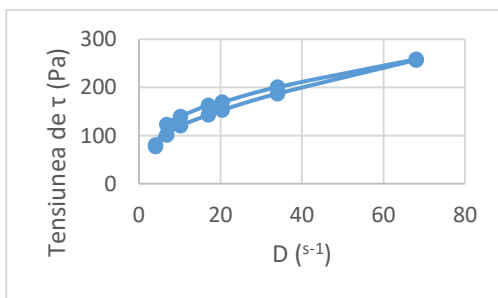


Fig. 7 Shear stress variation with speed gradient for P1 – collagen + 4.76% green algae

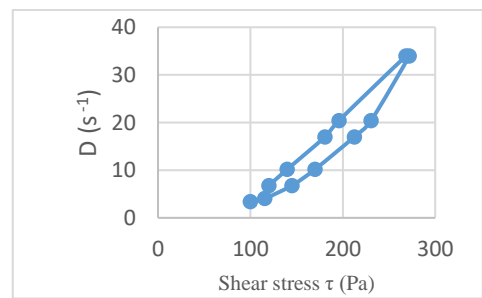


Fig. 8 Flow curve P1 collagen+ green algae 4.76%

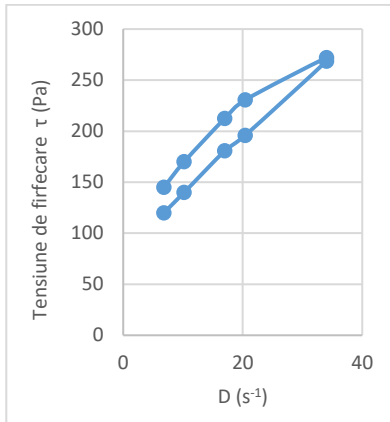


Fig.9 Variation in shear stress τ (Pa) with speed gradient for P2 collagen + 7% green algae

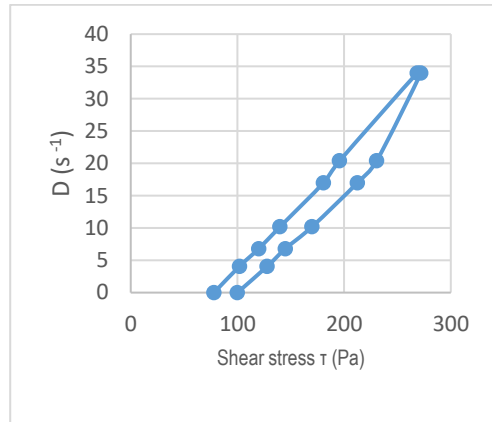


Fig.10 Flow curve for P2 collagen + 7% green algae

From analysing flow curves (figures 8 and 10), a linearization of curves for both formulations can be observed at increases of shear rates of over 20 sec⁻¹. This means they exhibit a tendency for ideal plastic behaviour at high shear rates, over 20 sec⁻¹, which practically means that the gel no longer changes its structure at shearing rates over the mentioned value.

For a comparative study of the new pharmaceutical formulations and an appraisal of the interaction between algae and collagen components, which are represented by collagen gels containing marine algae powders from the *Enteromorpha intestinalis* and *Cladophora vagabunda* species, from the rheological data, the following were taken into account:

Shear rate domains on which viscosity can be measured;

Rheogram shape;

Viscosity values at reduced shear rates;

Destructuration resistance (value of shear rate at which sudden destructuration is produced).

To the points mentioned above, the aspect of the gel - opalescent - was added - which can represent a proof of the compatibility of the components.

CONCLUSIONS

Formulations with different green algae content in collagen hydrolysate were obtained.

From the present study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

Formulations with marine algae in the same type of collagen hydrolysate have a pseudoplastic rheological behaviour, with a decrease in apparent viscosity as shear rates increase.

Formulations are stable and have an opalescent aspect.

After the linearization of flow curves over a certain shear rate, formulations are stable and no longer modify structure.

Based on the values of rheological parameters, it can be noted that formulation P2, with a higher percentage of algae in the same collagen hydrolysate, has a superior stability.

REFERENCES

Sîrbu R., Zaharia T., Negreanu-Pîrjol B.S, Nicolaev S., Bologa A.,Psegalinschi I, *The Black Sea ecosystem – important potential source for pharmaceutical industry*, Journal of Environmental Protection and Ecology, 11 (4): 1336-1348, ISSN 1311-5065, 2010,

R. Sîrbu, T. Zaharia, V. Maximov, A.M. Bechir, M. Mariş, B. Negreanu-Pîrjol, D.Mariş, T. Negreanu-Pîrjol, M. Leca, E. M. Cadar, R. M. Stoicescu, L. Mocanu, S. Jurja, *Clean bio-technologies for obtaining new pharmaceutical formulations based on collagen gels and marine algae extracts for medical applications*, **Journal of Environmental Protection and Ecology**, **11 (2)**, 654-665, 2010;

R. Sîrbu, T. Zaharia, A. M. Bechir, G. Lilius, S. Nicolaev, F. N. Roncea, Important Characteristics of the Marine Environment of the Romanian Littoral Coast –Favourable for Pharmaceutical Utilisations, *Journal of Environmental Protection and Ecology*, 13, No 3A, 1842–1855, 2012;

R. Sîrbu, T. Zaharia, A. Bechir, G. Lilius, S. Nicolaev, Characterisation of Marine Habitats Ecosystem and the Macro-algae Biodiversity along the Romanian Black Sea Shore *Journal of Environmental Protection and Ecology*, 13, No 1, 190–197, 2012;

Rodica Sîrbu, Ticuta Negreanu-Pîrjol, Emin Cadar, Bogdan-Stefan Negreanu-Pîrjol, *Active Principles which are Important to Human Health Obtained from Ceramium Rubrum - Seaweed in the Black Sea*, *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, MCSER Publishing, Rome-Italy, Vol 4 No 1 S2, p. 253-258, April 2015;

Ticuța Negreanu-Pîrjol, B. Negreanu-Pîrjol, R. Sîrbu, G. Paraschiv, A. Meghea, “Comparative studies regarding the antioxidative activity of some therapeutic marine algae species along Romanian Black Sea Coast”, *Journal of Environmental Protection and Ecology* (ISSN 1311-5065), vol.13, No. 3A, p. 1744-1750, 2012;

Emin Cadar, Cristina-Luiza Erimia, Aneta Tomescu, Paris Stelian, Rodica Sîrbu, Marine Algae from Black Sea - Important Resources in the Pharmaceutical and Medical Research, *European Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies (EJIS)*, Vol.4 , Nr. 1, p 24-30, 2016;

Constanța SAVA, Rodica SIRBU, “Analytical study of flavonoids determination in algae from the Black Sea, Ovidius University Annals of Chemistry, Volume 21, Number 1, pp29-34, 2010.

Aspect and Verbal Action in Albanian - Activity Verbs

Prof. Gjilda Alimhilli Prendushi
University of Bari "Aldo Moro" (Italy)

Abstract

In this article we introduce and analyze the morfo-syntactic behaviour of activity verbs in standard Albanian. The grouping of verbs by their lexical-semantic meaning deals with the study of the way of presentation of the action development. To the verbal action we refer when we are looking to analyze and classify the lexical meanings of different verbs, which are grouped or separated by the means of word formation. Even in the cases when for the expression of verbal action are used special syntactic constructions, these are, still, as a function of their respective lexical meaning. However, they don't deal with the grammatical meanings but with the lexical meanings of these constructions. In the case of aspect there are grammatical oppositions, expressed with grammatical means, therefore with different forms of the same verb. The aspect in the Albanian language is realized, above all, by the change of tenses, as amongst the imperfective and the perfective (aorist), instead of the verbal action that, generally, it is not indicated by the means of conjugation. Finally, we will study the meanings related not from individual lexical meaning, but from the general lexical meaning. It is this feature that makes the verbal action in Albanian an objective category, different and distinguishable from the subjective category of aspect¹.

Keywords: Aspect and Verbal Action in Albanian - Activity Verbs

Verbs of continuative action

1.1. The verbs *eci* 'walk', *luaj* 'play', *dua* 'want', *këndo* 'sing', *punoj* 'work', *bre*dh 'divagate', *gjurmtoj* 'track', *këshilloj* 'counsel', *flas* 'speak', *lexoj* 'read', *shkruaj* 'write', etc., which present the verbal action in ongoing are activity verbs. It is not given any indication with respect to the beginning and to the conclusion of the action, but only on its continuation. However, in these verbs, in fact, in addition to the time of beginning of the action we have also that of the conclusion, presented in the form of a possibility that the process will be completed, because there cannot be an indefinitely continuing of it. Furthermore, the aforementioned processes can be interrupted a few times by the subject within the same event or the same episode. In the examples:

[1] Ka javë që ajo është duke studiuar.

Are weeks that she is studying.

[2] Ai punon në këtë uzinë që prej një viti.

He works at this plant from one year

we do not want to suggest that the subject of the action in (1) has never rested, or distracted even for a second or that the person in (2) was never gone outside the walls of the plant, because it is known that all activities comply with basic standards of living as well as certain social relations. Similar moments are acceptable for activity verbs, and the continuation of the process does not necessarily involve a change in the subject's state, not having as aim the attainment of a goal or a particular result.

¹ Alimhilli Prendushi (2009), in her comprehensive monograph has treated the semantic-syntactical analyses of the verbal classes according to the verbal action of the Albanian language.

1.2. The extension of the verbal action is expressed, in some cases, by the use of the present tense, imperfect (in two variants – indeterminate imperfective and determinate perfective) and just in a few cases with the simple past.

• It is used the present tense for:

Actions with general, timeless or continuous value. Such actions are expressed by activity verbs that nominate prolonged actions, processes that continue without interruption and, as such, include the time of speech:

[3] Kush *gënjen*, *gënjen* veten.

Who lies, lies himself/herself.

[4] Armiku të *shikon* ndër këmbë, miku të *vështron* ndër sy.

The enemy looks at your feet, the friend looks at your eyes.

[5] Hëna *rrotullohet* rreth Tokës.

The moon rotates around the Earth.

So, this form is used with this value firstly in proverbs, in axioms and in general truths.

Actions that began before the time of utterance, are also continuing at present time and will continue after (this kind of action is influenced by the semantics of the verb):

[6] *Kam* shumë kohë që *punoj*.

I have a lot of time that I work.

[7] *Kemi* shumë kohë që *po mendojmë* për këtë projekt.

We have a lot of time that we are thinking about this project

Constructions that indicate the progressive development of the action:

[8] Vajza sa vjen e *po bëhet* më kokëforte.

The girl is becoming more and more stubborn.

[9] Ti *po qesh*, por unë *po them* të vërtetën.

You're laughing, but I'm telling the truth.

[10] Ai *është duke shkruar* diçka për jetën studentore.

He is writing something for students life.

• It is used the imperfect for:

An action that is developing at a given moment in the past, with no indication about the beginning or the end:

[11] Plaku *gërhiste*.

The old man snored.

[12] Uji *ziente* dhe *nxirrte* avull.

The water boiled and steamed

Actions that continue throughout all the past period of time, or permanent characteristics of people or objects of which are given related actions:

[13] Djali *ëndërronte* si një fëmijë.

The boy dreamed as a child.

[14] Ajo *shquhej* nga të gjithë.

She distinguished from all the people.

[15] Lumi *gjarpëronte* në fushë.

The river meanders in the field

Constructions that indicate the progression of the action:

[16] *Po afrohej* dalëngadalë vjeshta.

Slowly the autumn was coming.

[17] Entuziazmi sa vinte *po shtohet*.

Enthusiasm was increasing more and more.

[18] Ditët *ishin duke shkuar*.

The days were running.

The action expressed in this form, sometimes gets a timeless value:

[19] Ujkun *po e qethnin* që t'i vinin mendtë.

They were shearing the wolf to recover his reason.

• It is used the simple past for:

Actions which, extending for a certain time, have become a characteristic of people or objects for that period:

[20] Ai *përjetoi* një histori të dhimshme.

He experienced a painful story.

Actions in progressive extension:

[21] Miqësia e tyre *u rrit* çdo ditë e më shumë.

Their friendship grew every day more and more.

2. Verbal groups of continuative action

During the analysis that we did to aspect, the examination of uses of the present tense, the imperfect and the simple past in some cases, there were evidenced cases that express verbal action extension for a certain time. In addition to these cases, the extension of the verbal action is expressed by:

2.1. Repeating of the same verb¹

¹ For more see, Alimhilli Prendushi (2001: 372-378), (2009: 58-64, 159-167); Dhrimo (1996: 157-170).

• verb + verb (+ verb), here the verb can be repeated two or three times at the same tense and mood.

Constructions with repeated present tense and the imperfect in indicative mood, in general, express actions that last for a long period of time, while the actions expressed with repeated simple past usually express actions that have a finite extension:

[22] *Lexon... lexon por më kot* (present tense) 'Reads ... reads but in vain' / *Ecte... ecte rrugë pa rrugë* (imperfect) 'Walked ... walked streets without streets' / *Durova, durova dhe pastaj fola* (simple past) 'Waited, waited and then I spoke'.

The verb can also be on the imperative desemantised. We say desemantised, because through this form is not given any order but it is just prolonged the action. Depending on the context it can refer to any person:

[23] *Zbrit-zbrit dhe arritën më në fund*.

Step down - step down and finally they arrived.

• verb + conjunction *e (dhe)* 'and' + verb (+ verb), in this case there are repeated verbal forms at the same tense and in the same mood.

The verb can be in present tense, imperfect or simple past of indicative mood:

[24] *Dhe unë pres e pres...* (present tense) 'And I wait and wait ...' / *Shikonte e shikonte pa thënë asnjë fjalë* (imperfect) 'Looked and looked without saying a word' / *Profesori foli e foli gjithë pasion* (simple past) 'Professor spoke and spoke passionately'.

In addition to the constructions with simple tenses¹, already mentioned, can also be used the constructions with repetition of the compound tenses, as for example: *Ai ka pritur e ka pritur dhe pastaj ka ikur* (perfect) 'He has waited and has waited and then he is gone' / *Ai kishte sharë e kishte sharë, pastaj i kishte rënë inati* (plusperfect) 'He had insulted and had insulted, then his anger fell', or *Do të qajë e do të qajë dhe do të pushojë* (simple future) 'Will cry and will cry and will cease'.

Action extensions are expressed as well by constructions with the use of the imperative form, where we have different subjects:

[25] *Shko natë e shko ditë, u bë vajza grua* (second person singular).

Pass night and pass day, the girl became a woman

To express this verbal action are also used groups of different verbs in imperative such as: *ec e truaj* 'walk and shout', *ec e shaj* 'walk and curse', *ec e mallko* 'walk and execrate'; *qaj e ik* 'cry and flees', *qaj e rend* 'cry and run', *qaj e klith* 'cry and yowl', *shaj e mallko* 'insults and execrate', etc.

Repeated conjunctive is mainly used with intensity and extension value:

[26] *Jam e detyruar të pres e të pres* (present tense) 'I'm obligated to wait and to wait' / *Ishte mësuar të punonte e të punonte ...* (imperfect) 'Was accustomed to work and to work ...'.

The mode of extending the action is very often intertwined with the intensive mode of action. In such constructions, depending on the discourse circumstances, can be express simultaneously the two modes, further emphasizing one of them.

• In the structure - verb + conjunction *sa* 'as' + verb - participate just verbs repeated at different tenses of indicative and conjunctive:

Indicative

¹ Lafe (1966: 123-124).

[27] *Ai lexon sa lexon dhe e mbyll...* (present tense) 'He reads as reads and close ...' / *Fëmijët bënin sa bënin dhe na vështronin në sy* (imperfect) 'Children did as did and look us in the eyes' / *Mallkoi sa mallkoi e pastaj u lodh* (simple past) 'Cursed as cursed and then get tired' / *Ka qarë sa ka qarë dhe e paska zënë gjumi* (perfective) 'Cried as cried and fall asleep' / *Do të ketë pritur sa do të ketë pritur dhe ka ikur* (future perfect) 'He will have waited as will have waited and he is gone'.

As can be seen from the examples, regardless of the tense of the verb, this construction express the extension as well as the idea that the action was prolonged for a period of time and ends, but another action starts immediately after.

Repeating of the conjunctive in these constructions it is less frequent, mainly to show that in the present case it is not so important the duration of action than its evidence:

[28] *Ai ka ardhur dhe të punonte sa të punonte* (imperfect) 'He has come and he worked as worked'.

• Construction - verb + indefinite pronoun *ç* 'that' + verb¹ - in the semantic plan is parallel to the conjunctive constructions with the repetition of the simple past (*foli e foli* 'talked and talked', *eci e eci* 'walked and walked', etc.)

The value of this construction lies in the non qualification of the object of the action, the object expressed by the indefinite pronoun *ç* 'that'. This non qualification of the object, the inattention to the object, has caused that in this construction also the pronoun *ç* is addressed towards its further desemantizing, so, acquiring the value of a particle. In addition, in two groups of this construction, with verbs *bej* 'do' / *shoh* 'see', not only the indefinite pronoun *ç* gradually is desemantised, but the whole group of words has been moved towards a phraseology value. That is, by this construction, it is expressed essentially the idea of the extension of the efforts to achieve something and not the denomination of the concrete measures implemented.

[29] *Bëri ç'bëri ajo, është puna e saj* 'She did that she did, it is her business' / *Tha ç'tha*, *neve nuk na duhet* 'She said that she said, it is not our business'.

In these constructions can be used only the simple past of the indicative. If, in fact, we use the present tense or the imperfect, the construction would end in highlighting the repetition of the consecutive action, and not to express the idea of the intensive extension of the specific action.

2.2. The verb *rri* 'stay' in the constructions - *rri* 'stay' + conjunction *e* (*dhe*) 'and' + verb that express an action which is prolonged - can be in the present tense or imperfect of indicative mood, (perfective) determinate or (imperfective) indeterminate. As well as its coordinated verb which express the prolonged action, it is at the same tense and mood with it:

[30] *Rri e mendoj* *se si iken koha* 'Stay and think how time escapes'; *Rri e pres* *me durim* (present tense determinate o indeterminate) 'Stay and wait patiently' / ... *rrinte e lozte me kukulla* '... stayed and played with dolls'; *Ato rrinin e dëgjonin me vëmendje* 'They stayed and listened attentively' (imperfect determinate o indeterminate).

The verb *rri* 'stay' may also be in the imperative mood, but in these cases its meaning autonomy is greater than in constructions with its present tense:

[31] *Ti rri dhe prit këtu!*

Stay and wait here!

¹ As Floqi notes (1968: 23), the value of this construction lies in the non qualification of the object of the action, object expressed by the indefinite pronoun *ç* 'that'. This non qualification of the object, not giving importance to the kind of object, has made that in this construction the pronoun *ç* goes to his further desemantizing, towards the value of a particle. Also, in two clusters of this construction, with the verb *bëj* 'do' and *shoh* 'see', not only the indefinite pronoun *ç* it is been progressively desemantized, but the entire phrase has gone towards the value of an idiom. So, through this essential construction it is expressed the idea of extending the effort to do something and not the nominating of the performed operations.

Cluster with the verb *rri* 'stay' in the imperative mood followed by the same verb in the conjunctive mode, in addition to the idea of extending the action, includes the idea of its intensive development, such as *Rri të rrimë* 'Stay to stay'.

2.3. In terms of meaning the construction - *rri* 'stay' + the verb that express the action that continues, in the gerund - is completely parallel to the above construction. There is only a structural difference: the verb that expresses the action that continues is in the gerund:

[32] *Rri duke ndjekur lajmet tërë ditën* (present tense) 'Stay following the news all day' / *Rrinte duke mësuar me orë* (imperfect) 'Stayed studying for hours'.

In cases with participle between the verb *rri* 'stay' and the meaningful verb expressing the prolonged action can also be inserted other members of the sentence, without prejudice the idea of the extension of the given action, as in: *Rrija me të duke biseduar ...* 'I stayed with her talking...'

2.4. The idea of extending the action is given also by constructions with the verb *jam* 'be', followed by an abstract name, which indicates a process or a state, headed by the preposition *në* 'in' - *jam* 'be' + preposition *në* 'in' + an action name - for example: *Studentët janë në studim* 'Students are in the study'.

The verb *jam* 'be' can be found at different tenses from those of indicative, not infrequently after the abstract name is added the expression *e sipër* 'under'.

[33] *Qyteti është në ndërtim e sipër* (present tense) 'The city is under construction' / *Rruga ishte në ndërtim e sipër* (imperfect) 'Street was under construction'.

2.5. In the constructions - *kam zakon* 'I used' + the verb that express the action that continue - the verb *kam* 'have' can occur at different tenses of the indicative mood, while the second verb, the one that express the action that continue, appears in the present tense and in the imperfect of conjunctive. The specified action can be prolonged or repeated, here it is emphasized the unlimited continuity:

[34] *Ajo e ka zakon të flasë me zë të lartë* 'She has used to talk loudly' / *E kish zakon të lahej përditë* 'He/she used to bathe daily' / *Ata e kanë pasë zakon të shkonin atje për festa* 'They had used to go there for holidays'.

It is similar to above construction also the following, with the only distinction that, as the first term, we have the verb *bej* 'do', which is also used in the passive form:

[35] *Atij iu bë zakon të pyeste për çdo gjë.*

It became a custom to ask for everything

2.6. Constructions - perfect of indicative + conjunction *dhe* (*e*) 'and' + present tense of indicative – as conjunctive subordinative give the idea of an uninterrupted continuity of action, which started in the past, continues in the present and will continue in the future:

[36] *Ai ka jetuar dhe jeton në këtë qytet.*

He has lived and lives in this city.

With the same value is the construction – present tense (simple past or perfect) of indicative + conjunction *dhe* (*e*) 'and' + future of indicative:

[37] *Ne punojmë e do të punojmë përherë kështu* 'We work and will work always so' / *Jetuam e do të jetojmë me ndershëmëri* 'We lived and will live honestly' / *I kam respektuar dhe do t'i respektoj mësuesit e mi* 'I have respected and will respect my teachers'.

Similar constructions to the above are those where there not is repeated the same verb:

[38] *Ka qenë dhe mbetet më i miri.*

It has been and remains the best.

3. CONCLUSION

As conclusion in Albanian¹ there are no characteristic formations of words to express this verbal action, but rather special syntactic constructions:

- verb + verb (+ verb)
- verb + conjunction *e (dhe)* 'and' + verb (+ verb)
- verb + conjunction *sa* 'as' + verb
- verb + indefinite pronoun *ç* 'that' + verb
- *rr* 'stay' + conjunction *e (dhe)* 'and' + verb that express an action which is prolonged
- *rr* 'stay' + the verb that express the action that continues, in the gerund
- *jam* 'be' + preposition *në* 'in' + an action name
- *kam zakon* 'I used' + the verb that express the action that continue
- perfect of indicative + conjunction *dhe (e)* 'and' + present tense of indicative
- present tense (simple past or perfect) of indicative + conjunction *dhe (e)* 'and' + future of indicative

Bibliography

Alimhilli, Gj. (2001), L'Aktionsart nella lingua albanese - L'azione verbale continuativa e stativa, *Studi Italiani di Linguistica Teorica ed Applicata* XXX/2, PACINI editore, 371-395.

Alimhilli Prendushi, Gj. (2009), *L'Aktionsart nella lingua albanese* Klasifikimi foljor sipas mënyrave të veprimit në gjuhën shqipe, Falco Editore, 58-68, 159-172.

ASHRSH. (1995), *Gramatika e gjuhës shqipe I*, Instituti i Gjuhësisë dhe i Letërsisë, Tiranë, 264-265.

Çeliku, M. (1963), Disa togje foljore në shqipen e sotme, *BUSHT SSHSH* 1, 159-183.

Dhrimo, A. (1996), Aspekti dhe mënyrat e veprimit foljor në gjuhën shqipe, Tiranë, Shtëpia Botuese "Libri Universitar", 156-176.

Floqi, S. (1958), Skicë e së folmes së Dangëllisë, *BUSHT SSHSH*, 113-116.

Floqi, S. (1968), Konstrukte tautologjike, *Studime Filologjike* 3, 3-51.

Lafe, E. (1966), Përsëritja si mjet gramatikor i shprehjes së aspektit dhe shkallës sipërore në gjuhën shqipe, e parë edhe në krahasim me rumanishten, *Studime Filologjike* 4, 119-129.

¹ Demiraj, Sh. mentions it in the brief treatment that makes to the modes of action in "Gramatika e gjuhës shqipe I" (1995: 264-265); some means for the expression of this mode, but without looking to them as mode of action, are mentioned by Floqi (1958: 114), Çeliku (1963: 161, 172), Lafe (1966: 122-123).

Diagnoses of (Con)temporality: J.-F. Lyotard, J.-L. Nancy, M. Krieger, and P. Gilroy**Dr Ewa Bobrowska**

Academy of Fine Arts, Warsaw, Poland

Research paper financed by the Ministry of Science and High Education's

"National Program for Development of Humanistic Studies 2014-2019". Grant No 0114/NPRH3/H12/82/2014.

Abstract

This paper focuses on the comparison of various theories of contemporality that emphasize the categories of time, movement, and contingency. The argument concerns the contemporary philosophy of Jean-François Lyotard, Jean-Luc Nancy, Murray Krieger, and Paul Gilroy. In his paper *Time Today* Lyotard perceives contemporary consciousness in terms of, extended by modern technology, capacity of implementing the past narratives within the structures of temporality. Meaning proceeds from the emotional attitude toward those past events. In this view, present immigration problems are linked to the issue of space related dimensions of traditional culture and its tendency towards inertia. On the other hand, Lyotard points to a new emerging model of the contemporary technology-based culture, which manages to surpass the obstacles of locality. However, as Lyotard claims, this process, based on the merging of technology, science and culture, does not lead to the increase of educational, economic, and moral standards of society, but instead gives rise to "barbarism, illiteracy, impoverishment of language, new poverty." In reference to Leibniz's concept of a complex monad, Lyotard juxtaposes memory to event claiming that the modern era is characterized by the domination of oppositional forces of rationalizing and contingency. This opposition is analyzed in the light of a comparable concept introduced by Derrida based on the confrontation of the terms: event and machine. Moreover, a postcolonial critic Paul Gilroy in his *Postcolonial Melancholia* describes contemporary social phenomena with the use of terms conviviality, multiculturalism, immigration, race, globalism, and planetarity, which also encompass contingency and movement.

The present moment, as a movement towards transgression of time, the opening, the breach in time, becomes the object of analysis in *Adoration* by another contemporary thinker, Jean-Luc Nancy. According to him, the enclosure in scientific forms of rationality and reason today produces the counter drive towards the contact with the open.

Temporality and temporal distance is also an issue discussed by Murray Krieger in reference to Paul de Man's "Rhetoric of Temporality" that focuses on the discontinuity between language and existence, or the void that separates them.

The proposed analysis concerns the discussion of those divergent diagnoses of contemporary society in relation to the issue of time.

In some sense this analysis concerns the phenomenon of the flow or movement (of time, desire, language, blood, refugees, immigration, etc.) as the essence of contemporality. The argument focuses on those elements of postmodern ethics that involve change, instability, and the temporal as the most vital, constituting, and thus constant elements. In other words, it is about new reflection on the ancient problem of the constancy of change, a "recurrent alterity" (Lyotard 2006, 267), according to J. -F. Lyotard. Notably, in his writings, one finds a revealing analysis of the temporal state of postmodern condition. In *Time Today*, he concentrates on the topic of temporarily and time related aspects of the current condition of modern societies and modern consciousness.

The perception and experience of time have been recognized as one of the most perennial, yet problematic tasks of philosophy since its very beginnings and the ontology of change and becoming proclaimed in Heraclitus's thought. One cannot enter the same river twice, says Heraclitus, attributing the imagery of the principle of constant transformation to fire and its opposite: the flow of a river.

In reference to a never-ending flow that takes place in every perceptible or indefinitely small segment of time, Lyotard proposes the above mentioned term: „recurrent alterity,” in the face of which one remains a passive observer. This notion points to two opposite aspects of the phenomenon of time: its repeatability (based on some element of sameness) and absolute change (every moment is different). Moreover, each act of perceiving the present is experienced as unique, yet imperceptible: „ (...) present cannot be grasped as such, it is absolute. It cannot be synthesized *directly* with other presents. The other presents with which it can be placed in relation are necessarily and immediately changed into presented presents, i.e. past”, claims Lyotard. (Lyotard 2006, 266).

These analyses establish the ground for further speculations about the future and present problems the humanity will have to face. The main aim of civilization which Lyotard treats with suspicion is also time-related. The accumulation of information has one goal; it should lead to the subordination of the future to present expectations. Predictability is the key to control, effectiveness, and power in an economic sense. On the other hand, in a philosophical sense, it guarantees and confirms the truth preserved in the techno-scientific discourse, which is a new form of coping with collective memory that was previously invested in the medium of myth. Expanding the capacity of computer stored databased memory and mastering data analyses is a challenge which humanity will have to face in order to „adapt to the growing complexity” of the system and, self-reflectively, to respond to „the growing complexifying relations between human beings.” A perfect monad, according to Lyotard, in reference to Leibniz’s theory will finally master and stop the flow of time and information. The state of divine all-knowing will constitute a perfect final stability and an eventual partial overcoming of Heraclitus’s paradox of constant change. This will mark the final victory of the machine over the event in Derrida’s vocabulary, but this vision possesses also serious drawbacks. Lyotard points to Heidegger’s figure concerning technology *Gestell* and considers it threatening. „Mind and even soul are studied as though they were interfaces in physical processes,” he worries (Lyotard, 274). The all-encompassing domination of *technē* leaves no place for what may be termed purposeless (with no purpose outside itself to use Kant’s terms) humanistic imagination. In this situation, the uniqueness of the mind and its only rescue is an access to the event celebrated in such mediums of free creation as: the visual arts, everyday language, poetry, music, and literature.

However, as Murray Krieger notes, no work of art or a literary or critical text is innocent and free of institutional constraints or materialistic ideologies. Neither can it be free from ethics. „Everywhere the ‚political unconscious’ writes texts that are responsive to its (criticism’s - EB) will to power,”¹ (Krieger 1983, 134) as Krieger notes. A text unfolds in time during the reading process, it unfolds its sense in relation to other texts, using the rhetorical figures to create an illusion of change and repetition. The flow of criticism and theoretical thought that should be more self-conscious forms of language use, is based on awaiting for the truly innovative critical event to arrive unexpectedly as Godot upon the stage of writing in order to radically illuminate present and past readings. Could it come from the outside, that is from the techno-scientific discourse, as Lyotard seems to suspect and break „a Dantean circle of language in which all are damned and none innocent” (Krieger 1983, 134)?

The other of any critical discourse and (philosophy) is a matter of the future to come, which could complete the growing complexity of the monad. Krieger notes: „There remain, outside, those desires that would shape language to themselves as they seek to shape history in their direction. These subjugate the text to themselves, the subliminal masters that make us distrust all that is said” (Krieger 1983, 134), states Krieger.

These are forms of awaiting the un-predictable, in a sense which Lyotard introduces through his famous notion of the unrepresentable in „Answering the Question: What is Postmodernism.” He also confirms that with the expansion of logic and mathematics to other domains of thought, the problem and paradox of time have shifted to the main position.

Lyotard perceives the contemporary consciousness in terms of, extended by modern technology, capacity to store the past and present narratives or information within the structures of temporality. Meaning proceeds from the emotional attitude towards those events. Collective, emotionally charged memory of any community forms its culture that is always geographically and historically limited, therefore, static. The present immigration problems are linked to the issue of space related dimensions of traditional cultures and their tendency towards inertia. On the other hand, Lyotard points to the new emerging model of contemporary technology-based culture, which manages to surpass the obstacles of locality. This new global mode of media culture encourages immigration, as it facilitates the circulation of information. However, as Lyotard

¹For the discussion of politics as *technē* see: Langdon Winner’ *Technē s and Politeia: The Technical Constitution of Society*.

claims, this process, based on the merging of technology, science and culture, does not lead to an increase of the educational, economic, and moral standards of society, but instead gives rise to "barbarism, illiteracy, impoverishment of language, new poverty." (Lyotard 2006, 270) The new global consciousness and memory are often based on intolerance and stereotypical thinking, leaving no place for any deeper reflection. The movement of complexification and the augmentation of social collective memory based on the digital synthesis of past narratives or times result in losing touch with a singular ego or body. The human race is „pulled forward by this process without possessing the slightest capacity for mastering it," laments Lyotard. (Lyotard 2006, 270).

In reference to, the already mentioned above, Leibniz's concept of a complex monad, Lyotard opposes memory to event, claiming that more complex collective memory offers more control over any (present or future) event /unexpected occurrence. The growing complexity of the system, (of which the event remains the best producer) consists in the progressing in time complexity of social, economic and cultural relations. This forms a model which Lyotard relates to the complexity of time syntheses that, according to contemporary physics, happen only locally. Humanity might be one of those local gatherings of time, which as every result of physical processes is: „temporary and highly improbable." It is more exciting says Lyotard to think about humanity in this astronomic perspective, „to think that what is called research and development in the contemporary societies (...) are much more the result of such process of ‚cosmolocal' complexification" (Lyotard 2006, 268) than the result of a progress towards more happiness and social justice. The modern era is characterized by the domination of oppositional forces of rationalizing and contingency. It gives preference to new language uses based on rationalization, logic, pragmatism and communicational efficiency at the expense of the poetic, notes Lyotard.

In his essay „Typewriter Ribbon", Derrida proposes a pair of opposites: the patterns of the machine as opposed to the logic of event, comparable to the already discussed antinomies of memory and event. It refers to what was once the future time and its accordance with the previous desire or prediction. The event is structured according to the logic of deconstruction with reference to de Man's notion of the material event. The happening of the event is always external to the present, it is the outside of desire, according to Derrida, rapture, some unpredictable course of events, the dissolution and the bankruptcy of our expectations and strategies. It is the other of time, which constitutes its forever tragic yet intriguing dimension. Tragic in a sense of the alienation of the subject of desire, its estrangement towards itself, which as Derrida and Ihab Hassan note, cannot escape the tragic tone since it always precludes the possibility of what is the most and the least possible that is the event of death. Hassan's analysis of cultural innovation focuses on the paradox of death, an „even of events" (Hassan 1983, 15) as a driving force of change and desire. In „Ideas of Cultural Change" Hassan comments:

In short, more than an existential metaphor, more than an ontology of the new or a politics of innovation, death enters every language by which we try to understand change; and it acts, as Heidegger saw, as the basis of ‚authentic history,' which finds its weight not in the past, not in the „today," but in the *Geschehen*, the very process of existence, originating from the future, the „Being-toward-death." (Hassan 1983, 17).

Also Murray Krieger demonstrates how the purely theoretical reflection on language necessarily carries within itself an existential message about the temporality of human condition always ending in death. In his analysis of Paul de Man's criticism, he claims:

For de Man's, what is celebrated in a word is its "pure anteriority," which renounces "the desire to coincide" with "another sign that precedes it," instead accepting its "temporal difference," "its authentically temporal predicament" (pp. 190-91). But the last word, "predicament," opens language outward to the human condition: the fate of being only temporal starts by belonging to a sequence of words but shifts to the consecutive, unrepeatable moments of our lives. And with the prohibition against the spatiality of a return, against any simple repetition, the moments can only run out, following one another to death. (...) The semiotician in de Man cannot abandon the existentialist in him: treating the verbal sign as that which keeps us from touching our existential fate, he is simultaneously showing that language can contain that existential fate, though as a negative vision. (Krieger 1983,128-9)

However, the tragic materiality of desire should not be treated as an unsubstantial metaphor or a signifier without a signified as during the course of history, it can assume an appalling form of massive war crimes. In Klaus Theweleit's theory of suppressed desire, the inferior position of women in the society and the subsequent deepening of the gap between the sexes, their social, cultural, and emotional separation manifested itself in a murderous but irresistible man's death drive, the call of blood, the desire to penetrate the body of the other by turning into a bloody mass. As if in response to such

traumatic disasters, Derrida claims: „every event as such is *traumatic*. Even an event experienced as a ‚happy‘ one. (...) Understood in this sense, *trauma* is that which makes precarious any distinction between the point of view of the subject and what is produced independently of desire”. (Derrida 2001, 358) The secrecy and mystery of time involves constant change and the creation of the impossible transformations of desire. A more optimistic diagnosis of postmodern transformation of desire is to be found in the writings of another contemporary French philosopher Jean-Luc Nancy.

All the above mentioned figures and forces may be expressed in terms of movement, change, transition, flow, the flow of a stream (of desire or information in a contemporary society). The present moment is always in movement towards the transgression of time, the opening, the breach in time and a conceptual bridge over the past and future, according to Jean-Luc Nancy. He focuses on the individual rather than on the general as Lyotard, and, interestingly enough, draws attention to the „pathological dependency” (Nancy 2013, 8) emotional or sensual (but not intellectual) insufficiency of contemporary men and women. This desire for experience results in addictions, a phenomenon characteristic to our society, according to Nancy. The enclosure in scientific forms of rationality and reason today, produces a counter drive towards openness, „for the contact with the open” (Nancy 2013, 8), the Absolute of the desire according to Nancy, that is God.

Analyzing the psychological and intentional dimension of the development of civilization, Nancy notes another interesting and usually underestimated transformation of desire that is the drive to sense. It is the only motivation that can overcome and „displace the regime of power and money as we know it.” (Nancy 2013, 60) In this way, Nancy proclaims the triumph of thinking over pragmatism, materialism and politics, as according to his account the domain of sense should not be limited only to knowledge, reason, and technical solutions, but it should encompass the development of the sphere of mutual communication and trust based on Christian faith and „the common experience of language as ‚we.’” The drive towards sense is the most vital force shaping societies and individual human beings. It is an irrational, mystic flow of desire and energy, it is „the tension and thrust coming from the force that separates the world from elsewhere (...) a drive of being, being as a drive in whose charge we find ourselves” (Nancy 2013, 61).

The sense of being, or more generally understanding being as sense, does not necessarily contribute to the one-directional progress of humanity, as it may take a form of the collapse of a civilization. Instead, sense relies on establishing relation by observing the law of the universal love of others: this is „the possibility, the power, and the dynamics of relation” (Nancy 2013, 60). This universal sense of being forms the foundation of any true globalist thought and society. It thrusts our imagination towards the vision of the world in its totality, and forces thinking in ethical and existential terms of relation and common language, instead of criteria of power and possession. It is such a powerful force that the introduction of the drive towards sense, which Nancy associates with the beginning of Christianity, at first brought about the breakdown of the old civilization. The collapse of the Roman Empire was according to Nancy, the consequence of the current social, political, cultural, and economic system, which marginalized or excluded the need for forming „relation of people to each other and to the world”. Therefore: „the order of Rome, however imposing its success might have been, ended up no longer recognizing itself as a possibility of sense”, claims Nancy (Nancy 2013, 54). A similar crisis, surfacing with the advent of the politics of exclusion, isolation and indifference to the suffering other, may be faced by the contemporary seemingly potent Western societies. The truth that we cannot escape is that the refusal to accept and respond to the need of the other, often an immigrant in this case, opening and sharing our language with the language of the other, will diminish our own chances of „recognizing ourselves as a possibility of sense,” reminds Nancy. The drive towards sense should pervade the present and guarantee the future of every true existence of a genuinely human society.

Not surprisingly, Nancy depicts the drive to sense in terms of a mystical movement of change that transgresses the individual subject. We are experiencing it while being immersed and carried by the stream of this drive. The only requirement is to remain open, submissive, and responsive to its flow. Nancy describes the drive with reference to the imagery of light and stream:

Drive, a thrust coming from elsewhere, from outside, from nowhere, which opens up in us; which comes from there but which, at the same time, opens up this unlocalizable place; which comes from mystery and produces it, which triggers its flash and goes back into its night: to the absence of solution, to the dis-solution where truth resides. But in this truth is kept and saluted the existence of everyone; the impulsion of relation and the pulsation of sense: it comes and goes from one to the other, from some to others, without establishing any continuity of being but rhyming our common presence- our co-appearance and our exposure [exposition] (Nancy 2013, 61)

Klaus Theweleit refers to the red flood of ideology (that according to Nazi threatened German national, political and cultural identity) which had to be counterbalanced and drawn in a red flood of blood. In contemporary societies the flow of desire is parallel to the flow of information in the multiple and tiny subcutaneous veins of the Internet. The medium of flowing water, a stream is a well-established symbol of time, dating back to the already mentioned, Heraclitus's famous paradigm of a flowing stream which can never be entered twice in the same state and moment. In his analysis of Heidegger's topography, J. Hillis Miller confirms: „the stream is, of course, also a way of expressing temporality, for example, in Heraclitus's fragments" (Miller 1995, 149).

Water, in its timeless quality, constitutes an archaic source of life immersed in the depth of time. Its surface reflects the current passing image, temporary and unstable, bound to fall into oblivion as it disappears in the next moment. It is devoid of the solid, lasting form and quality of earth. According to the Biblical imagery, in the beginning „the Spirit of God was hovering over the surface of the waters." (*New American Standard Bible* 1995, 5). In Heidegger's view, the depth of time - archaic, pre-Socratic thinking formed the original authentic inside to the truth of existence as the depth of oceans formed the origin of life. Interestingly enough, Heraclitus's authority and his reference to water are invoked by Heidegger in his *Building Dwelling Thinking*. Heidegger's symbol of the bridge, may refer to an attempt of imposing some spatial organization upon the disorder and unpredictability of the stream. In Derrida's imagery this opposition could be parallel to the antinomy of the machine and event. The machine as symbolizing the effect of the technē principle at work (for example in the construction of the bridge), as well as in the repetitive, mechanical actions of crossing the bridge. Therefore the mechanical will always happen within the measureable time dimensions as opposed to the timelessness of the event of flowing.

Derrida proposes a similar metaphor in another paper entitled "Some Statements and Truisms about Neologisms, Newisms, Postisms, Parasitisms, and Other Small Seismisms." In this text, the bridge is only one-sided and called jetty. It is a seawall that protects the hitherto acquired theoretical constructions of philosophical and critical thinking against the unknown and yet unthinkable future. Derrida stresses that different jetties, as various ways of theoretical and political ordering of the present, are competitive. Therefore, the present moment is always determined by the domination of one mechanistic jetty or bridge that directs the current journey through time. As an interesting example of a sociological application of the philosophical concept of jetty, one may point to Derrida's lecture on geopsychoanalysis. It concerns the problem of racism in South Africa based on the absurd declaration quoted in his „Racism's Last Word" promoting „the separate development of each race in the geographic zone assigned to it" (Derrida 2007, 378). In relation to the discussion of the territory of dwelling, there emerges a question of the possession of land, borders, boundaries, and barriers. In this context, the figure of the bridge or jetty signifies the opening of isolated physical and mental zones in order to facilitate the free, unrestricted movement of bodies and ideas. In a sociological sense, the indeterminable flow of water and its tendency towards mixing in order to form equilibrium refer to the flow of human masses that is migration movements. Time serves in this case as a very effective model and factor contributing to the transformation, deconstruction, or dissolution of once established strict spatial, political, and cultural partitions, or meanings as Derrida has it. It especially concerns those words that institute discrimination and cruelty. In „Racism's Last Word" Derrida reconsiders the meaning and the abstract scope of mental territory occupied by the word: „apartheid." He notes:

(...) by itself the word occupies the terrain like a concentration camp. System of partitions, barbed wire, crowds of (...) solitudes. Within the limits of this untranslatable idiom, a violent arrest of the mark, the glaring harshness of abstract essence (heid) seems to speculate on another regime of abstraction, that of confined separation. (...) By isolating being - apart in some sort of essence or hypostasis, the word corrupts it into a quasi-ontological segregation. In any case, like all racisms, it tends to pass segregation off as natural- and as the very law of origin. Monstrosity of this political idiom. (Derrida 2007, 334)

Derrida's argumentation concerns the stabilizing and creationist power of language, which in this case, he recognizes as a dangerous pervasion.

The mechanistic effect of inertia of the unjust system could be overcome by processes that have to do with Gilroy's term conviviality: interexchange, progress, event, innovation, and democratization. The same applies to the process of overcoming the communist totalitarian regime in the 80s in Poland and the subsequent wave of liberation reaching other currently post-communist countries. Notably, the power and the stagnancy of this regime were based on the spatial and cultural isolation of the country. Hermetically closed borders, totalitarian control over the information circulating in the media, no access to the outside world form the basis of any potentially dangerous geopolitical closure.

Therefore, the rebirth of antiglobalistic tendencies towards nationalistic separatism in Europe and the US should raise our critical awareness. It is evident in the recent event of the United Kingdom withdrawing from the European Union and the absurd idea of building a wall at the Mexican border to protect California, which resembles Nazi idea of erecting the ghetto wall isolating Jews in Warsaw. Notably, in both cases the costs of isolation are paid by the victims.

In his book published in 2005, Paul Gilroy talks about the political and social situation of the Great Britain and other countries. His diagnoses have recently been confirmed by Brexit, anti-immigration policies, and violent acts against immigrants. The postcolonial melancholia, referred to in the title, designates a new context for the notion of the mental state of melancholia described by Freudian psychoanalysis. It concerns to the general state of nation rather than the state of an individual psychic, affected and dominated by contemporary neoimperialistic tendencies. As an alternative for the state's state of melancholia, Gilroy proposes the values of conviviality and planetarity. Conviviality does not take place in a mature cosmopolitan society. Rather, it designates a community, which evolves towards this ideal. It has to do with cohabitation and the possibility of establishing relation. It is a term that implies a passage of time: time equal to man's life time, simultaneous, open and harmonious times happening within one community. As Gilroy notes: „it does not describe the absence of racism or the triumph of tolerance. Instead it suggests a different setting for their empty, impersonal rituals, which (...) have started to mean different things in the absence of any strong belief in absolute or integral races. (Gilroy 2005, XV). Planetarity which Gilroy proposed in the place of globality has more dynamic and time-related dimensions implying contingency and movement. The author diagnoses Britain as especially prone to imperialist thinking due to its colonial past. His analysis, however, is not limited to only one symptom of community's neurosis. Freud's analysis, treated perhaps too uncritically in Gilroy's text, acknowledges that the place for unavoidable conflicts, the discharge of distractive energy in happening that racism creates, are necessary. Moreover, the impossibility of the principle of love of neighbour is affirmed. To propose a possible solution to this ethical impasse, Freud points to a need for developing a special approach to analyse and understand the mechanism of forming „the pathology of cultural communities” (Gilroy 2004, 65).

However, as Gilroy notes, we should bear in mind that the problems of violence, discrimination, racism, and master-slave division cannot be diagnosed solely in reference to contemporality, because they have accompanied humanity since its very beginning. For example, some early feminist undertones can be traced in Montesquieu's novel *Persian Letters* that describes a revolt of wives in a Persian harem. In the writings of Montesquieu (notably a devoted traveller), DuBois and Gandhi, Gilroy locates the first attempts to conceptualize and create a universal planetary consciousness or cosmopolitanism based on solidarity. Therefore, to form a new humanism, humanity is obliged to look back and analyse the incessant flow of blood and violence caused by its numerous mistakes, such as: fascism, colonial imperialism, slavery, war crimes and murders, racial and sexual discrimination, etc. As Gilroy notes: „this is a planetary consciousness of the tragedy, fragility, and brevity of indivisible human existence that is all the more valuable as a result of its openness to the damage done by racism.” (Gilroy 2004, 75). „The detour through modern histories of suffering must be mandatory” (Gilroy 2004, 151), he adds elsewhere. Yet, the world conflicts caused by imperialistic claims such as Russian-Ukraine, or, analysed by Gilroy, Israeli-Palestinian conflicts, give also rise to new theories supporting them and paving the way for a rebirth of an imperial catastrophe, worries Gilroy. A seemingly modern problem of migration, he notes, has always been a part of Europe's history and, therefore, we need a serious search for a new language and new phraseology that do not discriminate between a citizen and the other, European and non-European. To deconstruct the binary, simplified oppositions that prepared the ground for ethnic conflicts is to realise that, as Heraclitus taught, every pair of oppositions is only temporary.

Finally, let me note that the term „mobile multiplicity,” proposed by Derrida in reference to his own writings, may offer a solution also in political or sociological dimensions of its meaning: It is a „movement that engenders by giving form or the figure that gathers up a mobile multiplicity: configuration in displacement. A formation must move forward but also advance in a group” states Derrida. (Derrida 2007, XII) This is an adequate figure of a new, ideal, mobile society based on cosmopolitanism and conviviality that remains open to the call of time, change, and event.

References:

de Man, Paul (1971), „Rhetoric of Temporality”, in *Blindness and Insight: Essays in the Rhetoric of Contemporary Criticism*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Derrida, Jacques (2007), *Psyche. Invention of the Other*, Vol. 1, Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Derrida, Jacques (1989), "Some Statements and Truisms about Neologisms, Newisms, Postisms, Parasitisms, and Other Small Seismisms", in *The States of Theory*, New York: Columbia University Press.

Derrida, Jacques (2001), „The Typewriter Ribbon", in *Material Events. Paul de Man and the Afterlife of Theory*, Minneapolis, London: University of Minnesota Press.

Gilroy, Paul (2004), *Postcolonial Melancholia*, New York: Columbia University Press.

Hassan, Ihab (1983), „Ideas of Cultural Change", in *Innovation/Renovation. New Perspectives in the Humanities*, Madison: The University of Wisconsin Press.

Heidegger, Martin (1996), *Being and Time*, Albany: State University of New York Press.

Heidegger, Martin (1971), „Building Dwelling Thinking", in *Poetry, Language, Thought*, New York: Harper Colophon Books.

Heidegger, Martin (1977), *The Question Concerning Technology and Other Essays*, New York: Harper.

Kant, Immanuel (2000), *Critique of the Power of Judgment*, Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.

Krieger, Murray (1983), „In the Wake of Morality: The Thematic Underside of Recent Theory",

New Literary History, Vol. 15, No. 1, *Literature and/as Moral Philosophy*, pp. 119-136.

Liotard, Jean-François (2006), „Answering the Question: What is Postmodernism?", in *The Lyotard Reader&Guide*, New York: Columbia University Press.

Liotard, Jean-François (2006), „Time Today", in *The Lyotard Reader&Guide*, New York: Columbia University Press.

Miller, J. Hillis (1995), *Topographies*, Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Nancy, Jean-Luc (2013), *Adoration. The Deconstruction of Christianity II*, New York: Fordham University Press.

New American Standard Bible (1995), La Habra: The Lockman Foundation Press.

Winner, Langdon (1983), „Technē and Politeia: The Technical Constitution of Society", in *Philosophy and Technology, Boston Studies in Philosophy of Science*, New York: Springer.

Theweleit, Klaus (1987), *Male Fantasies*, Minneapolis: Minnesota University Press.

Violence Against Women and Femicides in Turkey

Dr. Selda Tasdemir Afsar

Hacettepe University, Department of Sociology, Beytepe/Ankara/Turkey

Abstract

Women are exposed to many types of violence such as physical, economic and psychological violence all over the world. The women in Turkey also take their shares from this exposure and this problem is extremely painful, threatening and unpreventable. The topic of violence against women is included in literature as the research subject of many disciplines recent years however it is considered as violation of fundamental human rights that maintains its importance but cannot be prevented easily. It is tried to focus on, explain and evaluate the violence against women and femicides, unequal power relations between men and women, status of women in society and the interaction with patriarchal structure in Turkey in this study. This explanation and evaluation is made according to the statistics of gender mainstreaming, violence against women and femicides in Turkey and the reasons of violence against women and femicides. According to this evaluation, the women in Turkey generally exposed to violence by familiar people, especially by their partners and/or other men in the parent. In addition to physical violence, sexual violence is the most common type of violence and the impact of the general perspective of society and public organizations on women and the hierarchical relationship between men and women on violence should be considered in the evaluation of violence fact. The case of femicide is also underwhelming. There is a significant increase in femicides since 2008 until today in Turkey. 'Taking decision by woman for her own life' and 'claiming divorcement' are the most common reasons given by offenders to kill women and these reasons prove that the patriarchal system in Turkey does not consider woman as an individual and subordinates women. The idea of taking decision by woman for her their own lives and claiming for divorcement is perceived as a rebellion to power of men, a disengagement from dominance field of men and a failure of power of men. Men are strong and brave who bring home the bacon, save the honor of family, establish dominance on partner and children and commit violence when required to ensure this dominance and femicide is also included in this violence.

Keywords: *Violence, Woman, Violence Against Women, Femicide, Patriarchal.*

Introduction

"Nothing can be achieved without questioning the darkness making a baby a killer..."(Farewell speech of Rakel Dink to Hrant Dink, 24. 01. 2007).

The word 'violence' brings to mind the 'domestic violence against violence' in public opinion especially in feminist literature. The stems of violence against women goes back to the ancient times. This type of violence continues its existence as a social problem that is associated with patriarchy and private property and historically seen in many societies. Of course, this is a basic violence type and feminists had been able to bring this problem into view after a long term struggle (Yarar, 2015a:1). Violence against women is a complex and universal problem and violation of human rights since its resource and extensity cause to risk factor for many mental and physical health problems and exclude women from social life. Whem compared to other human rights violations, men are the actors of violence against women covering a large sphere and these actors expose women to all types of violence especially physical, emotinal, sexual and economic violence.

United Nations (1993) defines the violence against women as 'all behaviors which are based on gender, hurt and damage women, resulted or possibly resulted in physical, sexual and mental damage and cause to oppress on women in social or private life and arbitrary restrict the freedom of women' and describes the violence against women as *violence based on*

*gender*¹. This definition made by United Nations is the commonly accepted definition in the literature of violence against women. The violence against women is defined as "... whether in public sphere or private life ... all types of violence actions based on sex causing or possibly causing to physical, sexual or psychological damage or giving pain including threatening, oppression or arbitrary restriction of freedom ..." in 1993 Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women. The physical, sexual or psychological violence types are detailed in three levels as violence committed by family, society and public organizations and actors in the Article 2 (Ertürk, 2015:74-75).

The researches conducted since 1970s until today has been fed by "*domestic violence (under individualist point of view)*" and "*feminist approach*" based on analysis of violence of men. The approach of domestic violence was put into practice with the researches on domestic violence conducted 1970s and it revealed that the family is an organization committing violence. According to domestic violence approach, violence is not a problem caused from patriarchal structure based on gender but it is a phenomenon associated with tensions in family and structure of family. Violence is also monopolized by a specific group defined due to the structural positions of individuals (akt. Yarar, 2015:24). However; this approach is criticized especially by feminist researchers because of arguments such as 'it does not consider the background, that is to say context of domestic violence', 'it does not evaluate the results of violence' and 'it does not consider the sexual and economic types of violence'. From the feminist point of view, the researches based on domestic violence pay no attention in the power relations between men and women, that is to say 'patriarchy' and this is a very important fault. According to feminist approach, it is not possible to determine the characteristics, reasons and results of domestic violence if the power relations between men and women are not considered. The researchers, who had used the domestic violence approach in 1980s, had developed the research methods by taking into account these critics of feminist approach and the context of researches on violence against women had expanded in the frame of domestic violence approach and the background of violence, results of violence, reactions of women to violence, violence outside home, sexual violence and levels of control had been the basic subjects in 1990s (Altınay and Arat, 2007:51-54).

Feminist researchers assert that the violence is an instrument used by men to continue the social pressure on women (Dobash and Dobash, 1979; Anderson, 1997), men commit violence both in family and outside the family in order to practice their dominance and control on women, it is possible to understand violence by considering such power relations between men and women, the social position and priorities of men and the belief in that the domestic violence is the private problem of family should be questioned in order to understand the problem of violence against women and this problem requires intervention and action at socio-politic level since all problems of women including violence are caused from social, cultural and politic power (Yarar, 2015b:20; Altınay and Arat, 2007:52). That is to say, while the hegemonic feminist model defines the problem due to the structural characteristics and system, ... and the 'tendency' of men in violence is direct associated with the 'nature' and 'origin' of patriarchy, the domestic violence approach considers it as a phenomenological problem and focuses on causality relationships of different phenomena like in classical sociology and positivist thought. According to the feminist approach, the historical and actual power differentiation, that puts women in secondary position, causes to violence of men within close relationship. Men establish power on women by means of physical, sexual and economical control and psychological abuse including tactics such as insulting and isolation and thus they put women in secondary position and subject them by this way. Consequently, men are the real origin of violence within close relationship or men are assumed to be the real users of violence. Women are the victim or sufferer of violence (Yarar, 2015b:21-25). Patriarchal structure and the power of men on women that form the origin of domestic violence against women can be better understood in the scope of feminist approach.

Femicides are the most serious result of violence against women and femicides are common in Turkey. The increase in violence against women and femicide can be understood by considering the explanationk of Walby (1990) "if violence of men is accepted as the primary way to dominate over women, then it can be estimated that the violence of men, that decreases in certain fields, may cause to a more increased violence of men to recover and restore the previous patriarch control balance. It is tried to reintegrate women in patriarchal relationships by means of sex as a reaction to patriarchy that

¹ "It is a common tendency to use the term 'violence based on gender' instead of the term 'violence against women' in the literature (Ertürk, 2015:39)". However, as emphasized by Ertürk, it is more proper to use the term 'violence against women' when 'women' are considered since above mentioned term hides the distinguishing characteristics of various types of violence instead of revealing them since all types of violence, except causal violence, are basically 'gendered'. Because of this reason, the term 'violence against women' is used in this study.

is decreasing in any field". Also, it is very important consider the sizes, reasons and points of view of violence against women, who are the significant victims of violence, especially in Turkey that has a negative report on gender mainstreaming and femicides.

In this study, the problems of violence against women and femicides are examined through the researches conducted to determine the violence against women at national level in Turkey according to the demands of men to dominate over women and continue this domination on women from the feminist point of view. This study asserts to question the violence against women and femicides in Turkey –in spite of legal measures- and the understanding of 'masculinity' that aims to dominate over women and practice all types of violence including killing when men cannot dominate over women. Because, the violence against women and femicides, that are the common social problems in Turkey, are usually committed by existing partner or ex-partners or the men members of family such as father and elder brothers who are in close relationships.

Rates and Numbers of Violence Against Women and Femicides in Turkey

Violence Against Women

The position of women is significant when the violence against women in Turkey is examined. The level of gender mainstreaming or social gender inequality may be the best data for this purpose. According to the Global Gender gap Report of World Economic Forum 2015, that analyses the gender mainstreaming in participation in economy and equality of opportunity, education, health and political strengthening topics in 142 countries, Turkey is the 130th country among 145 countries. Turkey was also ranked as the 125th country among 142 countries in 2014, 120th country among 136 countries in 2013 and 124th country among 135 countries in 2012 (World Economic Forum 2014; World Economic Forum, 2015). The ranking of Turkey in 2014 and 2015 under various headings are presented in the following Table 1:

Table 1: Gender Mainstreaming in Turkey

Gender Mainstreaming Report of Turkey	Year 2014 Ranking among 142 countries	Year 2015 Ranking among 145 countries
Women in Cabinet (at Ministry level) ¹	133	139
Women in Cabinet (at Member of Parliament level) ²	98	86
Participation in economic activity and equality of opportunity	132	131
Participation in labor force	128	131
Member of parliament, senior official and director	111	109
Education opportunities	105	105
Literacy	102	105
Professional and expertise	102	103
Equal pay for equal work	87	82

Why is this ranking important for us? The gender mainstreaming report of Turkey presents an important clue to understand the reasons and results of violence against women in Turkey. Particularly, the economic dependency of women to men strengthens the thought that women are under the control and protection of men and this is more significant when the status of women in Turkey is considered.

The status of women caused from patriarchal culture create problems for women and these problems bring other inequality forms with them like an unbreakable chain. Violence of men emerges as an instrument of power of men on women and also the result of patriarchal control on women in other fields. How? As explained by Connel (1998:169-170), the family

¹ There is only one woman Minister in the Cabinet of 65th government by 27 August 2016, Fatma Betül Sayan Kaya, the Minister of Family and Social Policies.

² There are only 82 women deputies in the parliament that consists of 550 deputies according to the results of election made in 1 November 2015.

work-sharing, in which women take place as unpaid family workers (child care has an important role in work share based on gender) and men are coded as the wageworker participants of labor force in public sphere within gender regime, forms the expectations of men from women related to the social femininity roles. This inequal work-sharing also reflects the opinions of men about the status of women. The status of women is determined due to the power of men that determines the functioning form of family. "Housewife" and "husband" are the combination of emotional relationships, power and work-sharing. The gender regime of a certain family reflects the continuous synthesis of relationships managed by these three structures.

The roles of women such as giving birth, growing up children, care of disabled and/or old people at home, if any, doing houseworks cause to consider women as worthless and weak second sex in society. While 'masculinity' is being defined and built according to the dominant masculinity roles both in economic class (earning Money/providing for family) and class based on sex (control of sexuality of women and reproduction and protection of 'honour') (Akt. Ertürk, 2015:33), femininity is defined in parallel with masculinity and included in the status 'other' (Akt. Ertürk, 2015:33)". This status of weak and worthless women causes to weaken women and reinforce the secondary position of women in cooperation with the other inequation forms (girls are prevented from education, women are considered as unqualified labor force and not they cannot participate in labor force market or women cannot work under the same conditions with them although they are employed, etc). Women, weakening by these ways, are the first victims of many types of violence especially domestic violence and violence committed by the partners in close relationship with them.

Violence is first considered as the physical violence regardless the groups/structures (among individuals, between society and state or interstates) in which it is seen because physical violence is the most remarkable, visible and substantial form of violence... When the types of violence against women are analyzed, the physical violence is ranked in the first order since it is a painful and hard action that is externally directed to the bodily integration of 'individuals'. The actions such as "smacking, beating, kicking, pulling hair, pushing, punching, locking in home/room, breaking any bone of body, injuring by using gun, sharp objects or chemical substance such as nitric acid, burning or killing" are included in the types of physical violence (KAMER, 2015; Altınay ve Arat, 2007).

The recent studies reveal that the violence is not just the physical violence but it also includes various types such as sexual, psychological, economic and symbolic especially against women. As explained by Bora and Üstün (2005:25), "physical violence and threatening with violence are only a few of the instruments of violence but they are not only the one". And sexual violence is one of these other types of violence that has been included in research subjects later on when compared to physical violence and sometimes considered under the same heading with the physical violence in the statistics. Sexual violence is defined as to force someone for undesired, risky and shaming sexual intercourse (KSGM, 2008:14). The actions such as raping, that is to say forcing for sexual intercourse in undesired place and time even if by husband, sexual intercourse in undesired way, forcing for sexual intercourse with other people, incest relationship, forcing into marriage, insulting manhood or womanhood, killing or forcing to kill for honour are considered in the sexual violence (KSGM, 2009; KAMER, 2015). Another type of violence is the *Psychological/Emotional violence* that is defined as to apply systematic psychological pressure, playing on someone's heartstrings, insulting, controlling someone or all actions to exclude someone from society for punishment (KSGM, 2008). The actions such as shouting, insulting, swearing, threatening, discouraging, humiliating, mocking, not allowing to decide for something, comparing with other men or women, not allowing to meet with neighbors or friends, not allowing to go out of home, etc are the behaviors included in this type of violence (KSGM, 2009; KAMER, 2015). Secluding women, preventing women from seeing their families and friends, following up women and not allowing them to go out of home are the strategies to dominate over women, weaken women and make women dependent on men (Herman, 2007: 104-108).

Economic violence is another type of violence against women. This type of violence includes the actions such as forcing women to work or not to work, seizing money or bank card of women, not allowing them to go for work, not giving money to women, seizing the private objects or jewels of women, not asking the opinions of women about the money or savings of family and creating troubles for women to be dismissed from employment, etc. (KAMER, 2015; KSGM, 2008). In fact, violence against women, defined in various types, is interrelated. For example, the women, who are exposed to physical violence, are usually exposed to sexual violence at the same time and the verbal violence such as swearing, threatening, insulting is added to this violence. The violence against women is analyzed by considering the various types of violence in the studies conducted in Turkey.

The research called Reasons and Results of Domestic Violence, that was conducted by T.R. Prime Ministry Institution of Family Research between 1993 and 1994 and of which report was published in 1995, is the most comprehensive study on violence against women in Turkey. The Project that is titled "Toplumsal Cinsiyete Dayalı Şiddet: Sorun Tespiti ve Mücadele Yöntemlerinin Analizi" (Violence Based on Gender Mainstreaming: Problem Assessment and Analysis of Struggle Methods) supported by TÜBİTAK and conducted by Ayşe Gül Altınay and Yeşim Arat between 2006 and 2007 follows this research. According to the results of research conducted by Altınay and Arat on samples representing Turkey population in 2007, %34 of women participated in the research had been exposed to physical violence by their husbands minimum for one time. The women, who participated in the interviews, were selected among married women or women who were previously married, since the scope of research was limited with the violence committed to women by their spouses. Accordingly, the rate women, who were not exposed to violence by their existing husbands but were exposed to violence by their previous husbands, was founded as nine per thousand. The rate of women, who were exposed to violence by their husbands at least for one time, increases to %35,1. %14 of women stated that they were at least for one time forced for sexual intercourse when they did not to do. %67 of women, who stated that they were exposed to sexual violence, also stated that they were exposed to physical violence at the same time. %29 of women were exposed to economic violence (Altınay and Arat, 2007: 78 vd.).

The research titled "Türkiye'de Kadına Yönelik Aile içi Şiddet Araştırmaları" (Research on Domestic Violence against Women in Turkey) conducted by Hacettepe Population Studies Center between 2008 and 2014 followed the above mentioned study conducted in 2007 and both studies are the most comprehensive studies conducted in this subject in Turkey. The study conducted in 2014 is very important since it reflects the change in violence against women during the period since the research conducted in 2008 until today. Both studies present the information related to the prevalence and reasons of violence, the experiences and struggle of women during this process, the recent legal regulations on violence against women and the actual information required for struggle with violence against women. It was revealed in both studies that the women in different education and socio-economic levels in Turkey general and different regions of the country were exposed to physical, sexual, emotional and economic violence and almost 4 of every married 10 women were exposed to physical violence by their husbands or partners and the percentage of exposure to physical and/or sexual violence was decreased as a result of increase in education level of women in the studies conducted both in 2008 and 2014.

Table 2: Types of violence according to the studies conducted in 2008 and 2014

Type of Violence	Year 2008	Year 2014
Physical violence	%39	%36
Sexual violence	%15	%12
Sexual and physical violence	%30	%27
Emotional violence	%44	%44
Economic violence	%23	%30

When the results of studies conducted in 2008 and 2014 are compared, it is seen that the rate of physical violence was decreased from %39 to %36, the rate of sexual violence was decreased from %15 to %12, the rate of exposure to both physical and sexual violence at the same time was decreased from %30 to %27 that is to say there was %3 change in the rate of exposure to these types of violence. The rate of emotional violence/abuse, that was the most common type of violence stated by women, was founded as %44 in both studies (KSGM, 2009; KSGM 2015). When the results of both studies are compared, it is determined that women continued to be exposed to violence in country general. Women are exposed to violence by the men in close relationship with them whether their marriage continues or not; these men can be the husband, fiance/boy friend, father, elder brother and relatives of women. It is determined that the violence continues in the home of father and then in the home of husband and women are commonly exposed to domestic violence by the men in close relationships with them and these are the common findings of both studies (KSGM, 2009; KSGM 2015).

These results are not specific to Turkey. Violence against women is a global problem and all women in the world are exposed to risk of violence based on gender regardless the country, ethnicity, class, religion, economic and/or social status. Because of this reason, the struggle with violence against women is not limited within the borders of nation but also continue at international level. According to the results of 35 studies conducted in many countries, the rate of physical violence

committed against women by their existing husbands or ex-husbands/ex-spouses varies between %10 and %52. The results of research conducted by World Health Organization in 15 research regions show that the rate prevalence of physical violence varies between %13 and %61 and the rate of physical and/or sexual violence varies between %15 and %71 to which women are exposed by their husbands/partners during their lives (Akt. KSGM, 2015:34). If so, here the evaluation of Pateman (2001: 130-131) is important “the types of domination based on consent or violence are applied to make women accept the dominance of men within marriage that is considered as a way of controlling of men over women”. Men, who commit violence to their spouses aim to dominate over labor and social life of women based on social power granted to men through marriage. The strengthening and economic independency of women are prevented through dominance over paid work in business life and unpaid houseworks at home and it is tried to make women vulnerable to violence (Öztürk, 2014b:72).

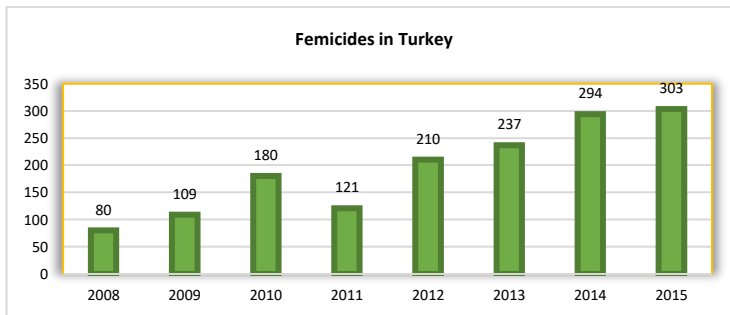
These statistics both in Turkey and the world present that the violence against women is seen every place where women live. The violence against women in Turkey is used as an instrument to oppress women, continue the dominance of men over women and ensure the sustainability of gender roles in the society.

Point of No Return: Femicide

The term femicide was publicly introduced by Diana Russell while testifying about murders of women at the International Tribunal on Crimes Against Women in Brussels in 1976, but not explicitly defined by her at that time (Widyono, 2008:7). The concept femicide means the killing of women because of reasons associated with social roles of women. In addition to the sex of murderer and the hostile feelings of murderer against victim, it is important in the related discussions that the content of definition should be extended and it should be defended that the term ‘killing’, that is not considered as murder in judicial context, should be accepted as femicide. According to the mentioned defence, the women, who die as a result of violence actions which do not aim to kill but include violence because of its definition (economic, social or psychological), should also be evaluated in this scope (Gazioğlu, 2013: 93). According to Caputi ve Russell (1990:425), femicide best describes the murders of women by men motivated by hatred, contempt, pleasure, or a sense of ownership of women.

The national studies conducted in Turkey report that the violence against women is not decreasing, on the contrary it is increasing day by day. Femicide is the most painful and sorrowful final and the point of ne return of violence against women in Turkey. Femicide is also increasing every year in Turkey. According to the report published by the Ministry of Justice in August 2010, the rate of femicide has increased %1400 during the last seven years. Again, according to the declaration of the Platform of We Will Stop Femicide (founded by a group of activist women in Turkey in 2009), 169 women were killed between 1 January and 31 July 2016 and 303 women were killed in 2015 as a result of murder in Turkey (<http://kadincinayetlerinidururacagiz.net/kategori/veriler>).¹

Graphic 1: Femicide in Turkey by Years

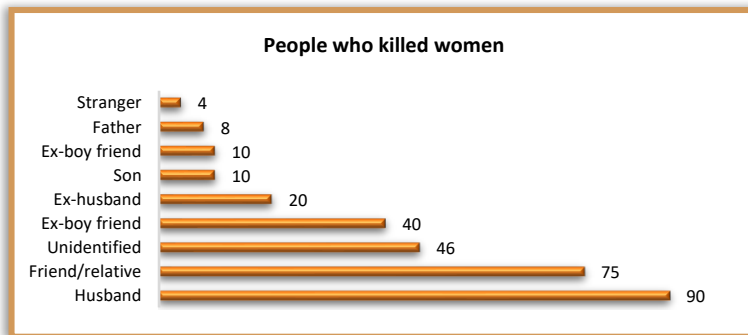


¹ The graphic was drawn up by using the data of the Platform of We Will Stop Femicide (<https://kadincinayetlerinidururacagiz.net/kategori/veriler>) and the presentation of Gülsüm Önal Kav, the general representative of the Platform (www.phd.org.tr/19kongresunum/gulsu_m_onalkav.pdf).

When the femicide by years is analyzed, it is observed that there has been a serious increase in femicide since 2012. Well then, why are women killed? What are the justifications of murderer for killing women? The answers given to these questions seem to prove that the patriarchal dominant system does not accept women as individuals and they are put in secondary position in society. The hegemonic masculinity in the gender structure of Turkey points out a masculinity that puts men in a position in which they have a job, earn money for family, strong and brave characteristics, protect the honor of family, dominate over wives and children and use violence when required to sustain this regime. The dominance of men over women in marriage is possible with the use of hegemonic masculinity ideal produced within society based on gender that causes to male domination. Power, that is the foundation of hegemonic masculinity, may be ensured either by consent or violence. If men cannot dominate over women, contrary with hegemonic masculinity, this is considered as weakness and this weakness expresses itself by committing violence (Öztürk, 2014a:64). Such violence can be mostly resulted in femicide.

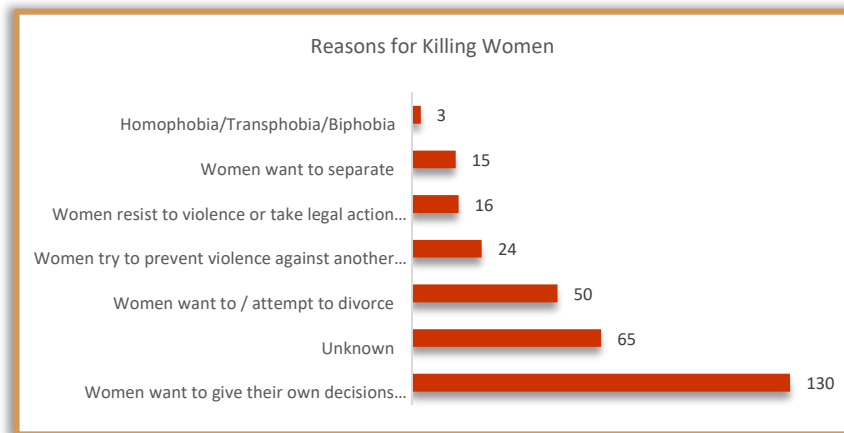
The same information, that is obtained from statistics on violence against women, is also found in femicides. Women are mostly killed by the men in close relationships with them, especially by their husbands or ex-husbands. It is seen in the following graphic that 110 women were killed by their husbands or ex-husbands, 50 women were killed by their boy friends or ex-boy friends among 303 women who were killed in 2015.

Graphic 2: People who killed women in 2015



Men and the men, who are the family members and whose dominance is accepted by women, have the right to love, protect and commit violence against the women who are subjected to them and committing violence is one of the characteristics of hegemonic masculinity (Selek, 2008: 125). Violence against women and consequently femicide help men to dominate over women, strengthen hegemonic masculinity and sustain the power of men over women and also reproduce the social gender inequality based on opposition and hierarchy between men and women and contribute to the normalization of this hierarchy (Anderson and Umberson, 2001: 375)". This hegemonic masculinity also includes the masculinity that protects the 'honor' of women in Turkey. Because of this reason, the men who are to separate or divorce from their partners of the men who are separated from their darlings cannot tolerate the marriage of women with another men in Turkey. And again because of this reason, the feminists in Turkey developed the slogan 'love of men kills 3 women everyday". Men, who are the 'guards of honor' in Turkey, have a motto: "If I can't have you, no one can," has a Turkish counterpart, "Either you are mine or the ground's".

4 thousands and 190 women were killed by men in Turkey between 2005 and 2011 because of reasons such as protecting honor, poverty, unemployment, cheat, abandoning home and divorce (Gazioğlu, 2013:95). The reasons for killing women in 2015 are presented in the following graphic.

Graphic 3: Reasons for Killing Women in 2015¹

Giving decision on their own lives, among other reasons explained above, is the most important reason for men to kill women. The studies demonstrate that men commit violence when their masculinity is disregarded and questioned or when men think that their masculinity, authority or status are threatened (Yarar, 2015b: 44). When women do not continue to marriage that is to say the divorcement is the second important reason for men to kill women. As explained by Türk (2015: 97-98), the idea of divorcement seems to be a rebellion to the power of men, disengagement from dominance of men and weakness of authority of men. However, in fact, the masculine oppression or hegemonic masculinity practices are realized through another instrumentalism. As a masculine value, violence is the end point of 'protect women'. Violence is the end point when the culture imposing this masculine hegemony, the masculine values and codes referred to this idea and even the point of view of murderer who approves and legalizes this idea and dignifies this idea as an indicator of masculinity are taken into account. That is to say, there is not aggression in the logic of power, on the contrary, the logic of power requires it and there is not a weakness in the power of men and this power does not allow for weakness and violence is committed because of this reason. Violence is not committed since hegemonic masculinity power is weakened or eliminated but violence is committed since hegemonic power requires it. (Taşdemir Afşar, 2015:747). These evaluations can be summarized in four items determined by Dobash and Dobash (1992:4) as the reasons of violence committed by men to women: a) "men do not want to share women with another people and the feeling of jealousy directed by this desire", b) "expectation of men from women related to the roles of women especially in home and family", c) "men think that they have the right to punish women because of 'misbehaviors' of women" and d) "importance of position and dominance of men over women".

Discussion and Conclusion

Violence against women is a social problem that prevents women from participation in social life and especially threatening the lives of women. This problems can be seen in many countries regardless the level of development and also continues to be actual in Turkey. This study aims to analyze the association of violence against women and femicides, dominance of men over women and continuity of this dominance of men over women with violence in Turkey.

One of the most important common point of various types of violence against women defined in the text is that the women who are exposed to violence are forced to do something although they do not want to do. Whether between individuals, in society or interstates, the certain groups or individuals try to dominate over and form the lives of people by direct use of physical violence or indirect committing different types of violence and evänn making people felt the possibility of violence.

¹ The data was collected from the presentation of Gülsüm Önal Kav, the representative of the Platform of We Will Stop Femicide (www.phd.org.tr/19kongresunum/gulsum_onalkav.pdf) and 2013 data of the Platform (<http://kadincinayetlerini durduracagiz.net/veriler/906/2013-yilinda-237-kadin-kardesimiz-olduruldu>) as stated by Türk.

And this is one of the points – probably one of the most important point – which should be taken into account in understanding and explaining the violence against women: “Violence is the most important instrument used to dominate over women”. And this is not a domination independent from gender, on the contrary, it is domination that is formed and continued within unequal gender relationships.

The increase in violence against women in Turkey may be associated with reasons such as the the role of media to make such actions visible, the role of various nongovernmental organizations to keep the subject of violence against women on the agenda as far as possible and recording data in a more efficient and different channels compared top ast. However, it should not be disregarded that the position of women began to change as a result of change in social relationships because of the level which capitalism reached at. The relationships based on gender mainstreaming begin to change both in Turkey and the world because women have begun to benefit from education opportunities, the service sector has begun to expand in the post-industrial period, the flexible and uninsured employment has increased because of neo-liberal policies, urbanization has continued to develop rapidly, women have taken advantages of education opportunities and the equality and freedom struggles have been increased because of women’s movement since 1970s. Violence committed by men is increasing because women do not want to be protected by men and they want to protect their honors by themselves, they want to rescues from marriage, that is to say they want to divorce, they want to take care of their children by themselves, they want to have the right to take share from inheritance in the same amount with men and they persist in these demands. This persistence of women threaten men to loose their power dignified in inequality network based on gender and causes to loss of power of men (Taşdemir Afşar, 2015: 739-740). This also points out a new situation called ‘masculinity crisis’: the role of men as ‘head of family’ at home and consequently the power position of men are changing. The male-dominant ideology can use violence to restore its dominance at home, strengthen the broken power and/or continue the masculinity under threat and control women when women object to men and/or ‘try to do a man’s job’, abandon men, want to give their own decisions that break down the power of men (Millett 1973; Anderson and Umberson, 2001; Sancar, 2009),

Well the, what to do for these violence and femicides? Turkey signed the *Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women*, adopted by the United Nations in 1979, in 1985 and also signed *the Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence of European Council* in 2011, has developed national action plans to eliminate the social gender inequality and adopted the *Law on the Protection of Family and Elimination of Violence against Women no 6284* in order to reflect the signed international conventions to national laws. However, although Turkey had signed international conventions and adopted laws to take measures to prevent violence against women, women are stil exposed to violence and killed by their partners in front of their children when they want to divorce and this shows that the above mentioned regulations are not sufficient to eliminate violence against women. According to the statistical data given in the text, the femicide has continued and increased since 2012. Many women are killed by their husbands or darlings because of honor when they want to divorce, they express that they want to divorce and when they want to separate from their partners. Then, it may be useful to accept the existency of structural problems and accordingly develop practices to eliminate these problems.

The public organizations should take effective measures, the judicial authorities should avoid from good conduct time and impose penalty to set an example, the practices which eliminate the male-dominant culture and social gender inequality should be developed and executed, the privacy of family life should be destroyed and instead the understanding that ‘privacy is politic’ should be adopted by all parties interested in violence against women and femicide. Women should be promoted to strengthen and it should be emphasized that women are exposed to violence because of values attributed to be men and women while struggling with violence against women instead of considering women from a point of view that sympathises with them and understanding them in a passive position. Strengthening of women is not the change of point of view that considers women as ‘poor’ people but it is the practice of changing point of view of women that is to say the increase in qualifications of women by using advanced educational instruments, informing women about laws and regulations, access to and use of production instruments by women, being aware of strength of women, increase of self-confident and self-respect of women and development of capacity of women (Taşdemir Afşar, 2015:750). The feminist argument, that is to say the reasons behind the violence, general context of violence, forms and results of actions namely the structural conditions should be emphasized when such changes are implemented.

References

- Altınay, A. G. & Arat, Y. (2007). Türkiye'de kadına yönelik şiddet (Sabancı Üniversitesi Araştırma Raporu No. 7029). <http://research.sabanciuniv.edu/7029/1/TurkiyedeKadinaYonelikSiddet.pdf> (Ocotober 25, 2015)
- Anderson, K. L. (1997), "Gender, Status, and Domestic Violence: An Integration of Feminist and Family Violence Approaches", *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, Vol. 59 (3), 655-669.
- Anderson, K. L. ve Umberson, D. (2001). "Gendering violence: Masculinity and power in men's accounts of domestic violence", *Gender and Society*, 15 (3), 358- 380.
- Bora A. ve Üstün İ., (2005), Sıcak Aile Ortamı-Demokratikleşme sürecinde kadın ve erkekler/Algılar ve zihniyet yapıları: Cinsiyet rejim eksenli, TESEV Yayınları.
- Coltrane, S. (1998), *Gender and families*, New York: Rowman- Littlefield.
- Caputi, J. and Russell, D.E.H. (1990), "Femicide: Speaking the Unspeakable", Ms., Vol. 1 (2), s. 424-431. <http://www.unc.edu/~kleinman/handouts/Femicide.pdf> (August 30, 2016).
- Connell, R. W. (1998). *Toplumsal cinsiyet ve iktidar*. İstanbul: Ayrıntı.
- Dink, R. (2007). Hrant Dink'e veda konuşması, <https://dink.wordpress.com/2007/01/24/rakel-dinkin-esi-hrant-dinke-veda-konusmasi-ulkenden-ayrilmadin-sevgilim/> (August 27, 2016)
- Dobash R. P. & Dobash R. E. (1979), *Violence against wives: A case against the patriarchy*. NewYork: Free Press.
- Dobash, R. E. and Dobash, P. R (1992), *Women, Violence and Social Change*, London and New York, Routledge.
- Ertürk, Y. (2015), *Sınır Tanımayan Şiddet*, İstanbul, Metis Yayınları
- Gazioğlu, E. (2013), "Kadın Cinayetleri: Kavramsallaştırma ve Sorunlu Yaklaşımlar" T.C. Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı Hakemli Araştırma Dergisi, 7 (30), 89-100.
- Herman, J. (2007). *Travma ve iyileşme: Şiddetin sonuçları, ev içi istismardan siyasi teröre*, İstanbul: Literatür.
- Kadın Cinayetlerini Durduracağız Platformu (The Platform of We Will Stop Femicide) <https://www.kadincinayetleriniurduracagiz.net/> (August 24, 2016)
- Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü (KSGM). (2009), *Türkiye'de Kadına Yönelik Aile İçi Şiddet Araştırması (Çevrimiçi)*, <http://www.hips.hacettepe.edu.tr/TKAA2008-AnaRapor.pdf> (August 28, 2016).
- Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü (KSGM). (2015), *Türkiye'de Kadına Yönelik Aile İçi Şiddet Araştırması (Çevrimiçi)*, <http://www.hips.hacettepe.edu.tr/KKSA-TRAnaRaporKitap26Mart.pdf> (August 28, 2016).
- KAMER (2015), "Kadın Hakları İnsan Haklarıdır Projesi, Proje Final Raporu", (Çevrimiçi), <http://www.aciktoplumvakfi.org.tr/medya/01062015kadinhaklari.pdf>, (October 27, 2015).
- Millet, Kate (1973), *Cinsel Politika, Çev.: Seçkin Selvi*, İstanbul, Payel Yayınları.
- Öztürk, A. B. (2014a), "Erkeklik ve Kadına Yönelik Aile İçi Şiddet: Eşine Şiddet Uygulayan Erkekler, Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, <http://www.openaccess.hacettepe.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/11655/2534/17e1df7c-bfce-440b-9ec6-4d73e662f62d.pdf?sequence=1> (August 22, 2016).
- Öztürk, A. B. (2014b), "Eşine Şiddet Uygulayan Erkeklerin Evlilik Yaşantıları ve Şiddet", *Toplum ve Sosyal Hizmet*, 25, s.62-74.

Pateman, C. (2001). The fraternal social contract. R. Adams ve D. Savran (Ed.), The masculinity studies reader. US, UK: Blackwell.

Sancar, S. (2009), Erkeklik: İmkansız iktidar: Ailede, piyasada ve sokakta, İstanbul: Metis.

Selek, P. (2008). Sürüne sürüne erkek olmak. İstanbul: İletişim.

Sümer, Neslihan (1997), "Kültür, Yasa ve Aile İçi Şiddet". 20.Yüzyılın Sonunda Kadınlar ve Gelecek Konferansı, Ankara, Türkiye ve Orta Doğu Amme İdaresi Enstitüsü Yayınları. Yayın No: 285.

Taşdemir Afşar, S. (2015), "Türkiye'de Şiddetin Kadın Yüzü", Sosyoloji Konferansları, 52: 715-753.

Türk, H. Bahadır (2015), "Şiddete Meyyalım Vallahi Dertten: Hegemonik Erkeklik ve Şiddet", Şiddetin Cinsiyetli Yüzleri, Der. Betül Yazar, İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Yayınları, s. 85-111.

United Nations (1993), Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r104.htm> (August 25, 2016).

Walby, S. (1990), Theorizing Patriarchy, Blackwell.

Widyono, M. (2008), "Conceptualizing Femicide", Strengthening Understanding of Femicide: Using Research to Galvanize Action and Accountability – Conference Papers on Femicide, April 14-16, Washington DC, s. 7-25. https://www.path.org/publications/files/GVR_femicide_rpt.pdf (August 30, 2016)

World Economic Forum (2014), The Global Gender Gap Report, http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR14/GGGR_CompleteReport_2014.pdf

World Economic Forum (2015), The Global Gender Gap Report, <http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR2015/cover.pdf>

Yazar, B. (2015a), "Önsöz", Şiddetin Cinsiyetli Yüzleri, Der. Betül Yazar, İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Yayınları, s. 1-12.

Yazar, B. (2015b), "Yakın İlişki İçinde Şiddeti Feminist Bakışla Yeniden Düşünmek", Şiddetin Cinsiyetli Yüzleri, Der. Betül Yazar, İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Yayınları, s. 13-51.

Infrastructure –Transportation and Networks: Thoughts on the City of Tomorrow

Dr. Efthimios Bakogiannis,

Transportation Engineer & Urban Planner,
Sustainable Mobility Unit- Department of Geography & Regional Planning,
National Technical University of Athens

Maria Siti

PhD Candidate, Surveying & Transportation Engineer & Urban Planner,
Sustainable Mobility Unit- Department of Geography & Regional Planning,
National Technical University of Athens

Charalampos Kyriakidis

PhD Candidate, Urban & Regional Planner, Transportation Engineer,
Sustainable Mobility Unit- Department of Geography & Regional Planning,
National Technical University of Athens

Abstract

Cities, both large and small, assemble increasingly large numbers of population and activities. Acting as dynamic places of economic growth and culture production, cities thrive and their potential robustness can determine the character of each urban society and the developed social bonds. Increased population concentrations promote a big opportunity in terms of economic and societal evolution. Indeed this opportunity has still been little implemented due to segregation among different ethnicities and intense homogenization of modern activities. The terms of cultural osmosis in contemporary multicultural societies remain yet major issues. Economic development and culture present highly interrelated contexts when the economy thrives in terms of equality and solidarity as well as guarantee the alleviation of conflicts, justice and democracy. This new globalized conurbations could be less tight and more accessible, while bringing closer different traditions and experiences.

Keywords: Infrastructure –Transportation and Networks: Thoughts on the City of Tomorrow

Introduction

The current poor transportation infrastructure in several cities – in reference to the European standards- constitute a critical element on the ongoing traffic suffocation. The rapid increase of private car ownership in combination to the deficient management of the transportation system add ominous evidence to the evolution of transportation planning. The completed and ongoing transportation projects can only temporary relieve overburdened networks if not combined with supplementary interventions in terms of urban policy and planning. Planning should always be driven by Cervero's rationale (1994), what matters most about cities is people and places, not travelling. The impacts of transportation engineering in the urban and spatial planning environment have not yet been thoroughly researched, however the opposite regarding the impact of the city form in mobility choices has received much attention in the urban discourse. The key arguments on this unequal interest can be summarized as being the following:

Designing transportation policies and infrastructure planning do not always require thorough examination on the potential land use impacts,

It is a common scientific belief that land use impacts deriving from transportation project implementations can be resolved in retrospect with traditional methods,

Predicting land use impacts deriving from changes in transport system is believed to be highly demanding and complicated,

Traditionally qualified engineers are not sufficiently familiar with contemporary prediction methods of such impacts.

Nowadays, cities are facing major complicated issues like accidents, air and noise pollution, urban space degradation et cetera, demanding essential transformations in terms of policies, management and technical interventions. The economy of a city can attract visitors, assets and capital, elements inextricably linked to the quality of urban space, the protection of architecture and urbanism heritage, the quantity and quality of public space assigned to pedestrians and cyclists and lastly the restrictions imposed to cars in order to tackle climate emissions and environmental capacity. The above constitute the key parameters of a sustainable city particularly from a transportation perspective, heading to sustainable urban mobility. This prospect evidently means that urban planning and transportation engineering can well be regarded as equal partners in city planning and if coordinated can overrule traditional and long established planning methodologies. Combined urban planning and transportation engineering methods in modern urbanism implies that new projects and future interventions are directed according to the city's priorities and necessities which are highly integrated in its values and social as well as economical environment. Promoting combined planning prerequisites mutual understanding of current qualities, problematics and the interrelation among space and movement. Critical problems concern the environment, social cohesion, safety and economic development.

Understanding the issues

It is currently well known that the more dense and compact a city is, especially when activities are located close to public transportation stops (transit oriented development), the more opportunities will be given to its residents and visitors to travel by public transport. Mixed land use development (i.e. housing, commercial etc.) can also contribute to the use of public transport and hence decrease the travel times and costs. Planning cities for fewer cars, allows the actual social and financial needs of an urban environment to be revealed and strengthens its natural and social aspects. Productivity and development is shrinking in the contemporary Greek city for a number of reasons, including external and internal factors of the Greek economic crisis and uncertainty. Among others, arbitrary structures, poor design standards, unauthorized land uses, downgraded public and road space, consist the scenery of a typical struggle in a daily basis. Profoundly all the above discourage future visitors, investors and other stakeholders to approach such places and degradation continues. The key infrastructure of the city, namely its public places, transportation networks and systems, along with its streets, being already downgraded are further devalued and sustain the poor image of the Greek city.

Modern urban planning science –after ages of structural misconceptions- suggests higher densities, mixed used development for city centers and urban centralities, ceasing of urban sprawl and the reduction of energy consumption. Moreover, urbanists try to introduce the 'sharing economy' in the city rationale in order to enhance social and economic cohesion and restore disrupted city bonds. This article presents briefly all those major issues that could help the Greek city recover from its disadvantages, compared to the other European cities.

Environment: the environmental footprint from urban development is currently well researched and proven to be a serious threat. The European Union and its member states are committed to decrease notably the levels of CO₂ emissions from the transportation sector until 2050 compared to those of 2000. Air pollution can be decreased locally, however research shows the long lasting impacts of microparticles. Moreover, the detection of new contaminants is always possible and concerning. Regarding the noise pollution, it is well known that the exposure to noises higher than 60dB for long periods can affect both physical and mental health. Policies against noise pollution are recognized as equally important to those from air pollution. The degradation of our visual landscapes (visual pollution) has lately been identified as a common issue in order to preserve and protect the urban heritage, as well as to reassess the consumption of public spaces. In terms of energy, numerous researchers and studies consider transport to be among the three most energy consuming activities, with the other two being the sectors of housing and food (Bakogiannis, 2016).

Social Cohesion: Traffic fatalities' indicators are showing a mild downturn in Europe, although the countries of the south present increased numbers related to vulnerable road users. Being on the road triples the probability of death, compared to any other daily activity. Policies and measures should aim at decreasing dramatically the number of all types of traffic

accidents. Despite the remarkable increase on car ownership, one in six households living in cities worldwide does not own a car. Indeed transportation policies seek to ensure their accessibility through public transportation. Heart related diseases and obesity remain serious problems and fortunately nowadays there is social consensus to mobility policies supporting a healthier lifestyle. The transport sector plays a major role in the social fabric of Europe (Extra Project, 2001), related to daily life, employment, accessibility to services, leisure and many more. Injustices in transportation sector reduce social equity and lead to long term impacts in quality of life, health, safety and land use distribution. Promoting non-motorized transport and developing fair transportation system can particularly contribute to social cohesion in planning terms. Moreover, urban planning can assist on the integration of any excluded zones or deprived areas by providing spaces that according to Schreiber and Carius (2016) increase the chances of interaction and the forming of social relations among people from differing ethnic backgrounds.

Economic development : In most European cities, after long-established policies, urban sprawl has altered the economic operation of activities and changed the roles of centralities and their appeal as well as their investment potential. Stakeholders, politicians and entrepreneurs have been convinced that problems cannot be solved with the construction of new traditional networks such as roads, and rather lately can identify that car restriction policies do not lead to deterioration of profits but instead can boost the economy. The economic sector has realized the benefits of environmental protection and saturation is encountered as priority to be tackled.

Safety: safety is a parameter that encloses accidents, fatalities, criminality as well as quality of life, comfort, accessibility et cetera. Infrastructure and transportation systems should manage to ensure safety and accessibility for all.

Overall Aims and Particular Strategies

Setting generalized aims in transportation terms has led to several inconsistencies and misinterpretations as each centrality demands customised solutions and specialized timetables. The key aims arise from the formulation of a generalized strategy which should carry the special aims. Developing a strategy and setting the aims can better be applied through a bottom-up approach that has engaged the public and local stakeholders from the very initial steps of 'understanding the issues'. The progress should be recorded systematically and new objectives can be set to allow for further upgrade of the social inclusion regarding new developments.

Strategy design: The acknowledgement of good practices in urban planning and transportation engineering is proven to be a successful first step in developing a strategy. Each city should follow and comply with European, national and regional objectives, however must be allowed to develop a special framework meeting the local needs and comprehending with the general city objectives. Assessment of such strategies in terms of integrated urban and transportation planning, shall allow the use of both traditional and new models, testing of policy tools and adjustable techniques. Although a number of such models have become very complex, there is an adequate number of meta-models that can be useful for public debate and decision making.

Strategy Evaluation : The methods used for strategy evaluation have been modified lately in order to meet the wide range of objectives in integrated urban and transportation planning. Thus, instead of conventional cost- benefit analysis, emphasis should be given on multi- criteria analysis. The assessment should include weighted variables for each objective and evaluators (public, stakeholders, visitors etc.) should check the sensitivity of the overall strategy in relation to the aims. Moreover, case studies' exploration can be a useful supplementary element in all stages of research and evaluation, due to the ability to transfer real world issues and outcomes in relevant schemes. According to Bakogiannis et al. (2014), presenting a supporting case study in a similar environment, could increase the understanding of a needed transformation or inform about potential inadequacies in implementation.

Financing : While the European Committee continues financing an important part of city strategies, lot of attention is being given on the income by the pricing of transportation services. Cities can distribute financing freely, depending on their strategies. The European Committee does not anymore finance individual infrastructure projects but those integrated in an overall strategy which should be compatible with the European objectives. Cities are allowed to involve private sector in developing infrastructure however without yielding public control and allowing divergence of lawful processes.

Public participation: Citizens and all interested stakeholders should be encouraged to participate in all planning stages, namely the identification of problems and objectives, prioritization of issues, formulation of possible solutions, and lastly the

planning- implementation and evaluation of the strategy. New public engagement tools should be implemented to facilitate participation processes, while special technology-related tools (i.e. social media, e- consultation, webinars) should be used to engage all commonly excluded groups of citizens. It is wellknown that public participation techniques increase the average time of planning completion and costs time and money to decision making which can lead to public conflict, political cost, implementation delays and many more. However, public commitment guarantee smooth transition to development, public acceptance and efficient implementation. Cities are lately encouraged to try innovative public procedures that involve assessment by the public, which demands deep knowledge of planning and a high level of managerial techniques in new paths of local government.

Urban policy measures: Legislative regulations shall be implemented -after the needed public engagement- in order to ensure that new urban plans and masterplans will target neglected urban zones (i.e. abandoned industrial areas) introducing new medium to high density mix-use development. The provided parking spaces should be limited and environmental friendly means must be promoted. An urban moratorium could ensure the ceasing of urban sprawl and regeneration of existing downgraded urban areas. New projects of regeneration have to design within the concept of 'cities for people', putting pedestrians, cyclists and all vulnerable road users on the core of public space. Complementary tax reductions for city center residents will also decrease the need for long distance travelling and urban sprawl.

New transport infrastructure: New transportation infrastructures have always high financial and environmental cost, and may lead to longer travel times. New design requirements should emphasize the ease of use, safety and convenience rather than speed. Environmental degradation should be kept to the minimum possible and urban cohesion should be preserved.

Management of infrastructure and public transport services: One of the key objectives regarding infrastructure management is the fair redistribution of road and public space to all users, including pedestrians, cyclists public transport users and permanently or temporarily disabled. Car circulation should be managed effectively and traffic safety should be the priority. Low cost interventions can assure improved public spaces and maintenance works are much needed especially in the countries of the South. Accessibility shall be prioritized over the traditional request on decreasing travel time and public transport systems must ensure that car users will consider it as an efficient alternative. Management of services could follow the service reform rationale from Cervero (1994) for adaptive transit.

Demand management: Encouraging the use of private car alternatives and decreasing car travel times are the key objectives on demand management. Parking management should aim at discouraging car usage in city centers and new tools, such as car pooling and car sharing, can take over the increased demand of mobility.

Information policies: Real time information systems play a leading role in convenient and effective modern transport systems, while telecommunications can become a substitute for some travels. Information services should include real time knowledge of mobility choices for users, when at home, on the way and while being at transportation stations and stops. Variable message signs (VMS) can inform car users to avoid a certain overburdened area and choose alternatives.

Urban toll systems and parking pricing: Road pricing complies with the European directive 'the polluter pays', when applied according to travel length and environmental sensitivity of the used networks. The extra travel cost is used as an equivalent to the marginal social cost the commuter charges the city by his/her choice. On the contrary public transportation cost reflects the minimum cost of travel and encourages integrated movement in the city. Parking pricing systems must reflect accordingly the cost for supply and use of an urban space and can change periodically to control incoming vehicles.

Walking and cycling enhancement measures: Walking and cycling can be considered as key alternatives to private car use due to their numerous benefits in human health and environmental pollution. The redistribution of road space in favour of these users will encourage safe, convenient and pleasant travels while public transport can complementary assist cyclists to accommodate their vehicles both in car and in stations/ stops, which will ensure coherent long distance travels

Freight service measures: Freight services deal with the key issues of traffic circulation dependency and environmental repercussions. Managing to reduce travels within the city limits and through traffic within neighborhoods can lightly avoid the afore-mentioned impacts, however contemporary solutions promote the overall substitution of heavy vehicles within cities. Coordination and cooperation between different logistics companies can decrease needless travels while transshipment of goods from trucks to minivans can also minimize traffic saturation. Each city should have trucks' and

lorries' parking storage areas in their territory, whereas freight villages can be located in selected cities to manage logistics and efficient transportation of goods.

Vehicle improvement measures: The European Commission has consistently supported research on improving vehicle technology as local contamination and noise pollution should be limited. Vehicles must become more secure and environmental friendly. Emphasis should be given to reducing emissions that contribute to global warming. Tax policies should discourage buying polluting vehicles and research on new fuels and fuel cells must be continued intensively.

Integrated Strategies: Combining the afore-mentioned policies can nearly form a complete strategy that would gain social consensus. However questions remain as to the ability of civil societies to tackle the traffic saturation in cities with greener cars and to achieve the ambitious targets for reducing carbon dioxide emissions.

Specialized suggestions for an upgraded transportation system*

** resume of specific suggestions as developed for Implementation in the Greek Transportation Sector*

According to the Green Paper on Public Transportation of the Capital City of Athens (Transport for Athens, 1998), the current policies must be reviewed in order to address the upcoming issues such as the economy, modern business activity, international experience, current and future urbanism trends. Immediate enhancement should be launched regarding an integrated transportation plan, supported by major investments and based on explicit political decision for the development and promotion of new public transport services instead of extending the current road network. Since then -1998- progress has occurred regarding the development of a thriving metro- underground train as well as the modernization of specific services, however not in an integrated way.

A comprehensive strategy combining several factors is required regarding the overall enhancement of transportation infrastructure and services as well as the economic viability of the new system. According to the Hellenic Institute of Transportation Engineers (2002), the current state of Athens' transport system seems to be the beginning of a continued deterioration in terms of traffic suffocation. The rapid growth of car ownership rate combined with the deficient infrastructure and management of the current transport system are ominous signs for the evolution of the current situation, if serious and consistent action is not considered. The currently scheduled transportation projects -if not combined with a series of complementary interventions - will only relieve traffic suffocation in a temporary basis. Adding to this, Vlastos et al. (2004) argue that any reversal in the Greek transportation sector will only be managed if substantial changes in infrastructure are complemented with courage and persistence in decision making as well as the introduction of information and awareness policies for the general public.

Suggested Interventions include:

Unified management and planning of the transport systems that can ensure an effective control of all involved institutions and stakeholders (Ministries, Municipalities, Road Police Authorities, Public Transport Bodies etc.). The foundation of a robust coordinating body – from the merging of current complex or not authorities- will assist on a new integrated start with specific responsibilities and duties.

These may include:

Configuration of Policy and Planning

Planning of investments and priority setting

Configuration of pricing policy for the use of transport systems (public transport, parking, road pricing etc.)

General supervision and control of implementation planning (project implementation and operation of systems) based on specific requirements and timetables

Establishment of substantial and sufficiently financed participation of citizens in all phases of planning, design, implementation, operation and management of transportation projects and measures to create communication offices in all the services of transport operators

Institutional regulations for controlling illegal parking by independent authorities, collection of fines, rationalization of fines (frequent checks and lower fines)

Establishing a street hierarchy which will correspond to the street operation and its role in urban fabric. Ensuring high operational characteristics to primary roads (suitable signaling, parking restrictions and land use control) and appropriate assembly of different types of roads.

Completion of current construction works and promotion of progressive ring roads (internal, intermediary, exterior). Emphasis should be given on their integration to the overall road network.

Promotion of specific traffic regulations in the local road network in areas with exclusive residential use for ensuring road safety and the quality of life. Developing pedestrian and cycling networks in central areas will ease the movement residents and will upgrade the visual and environmental image of the city.

Appraisal and effective implementation of appropriate smart telematics systems for car restriction in peak hours with separate parking priorities for residents, employees, visitors etc.

Development of an integrated bus network with proper intervention in bus lanes and optimization of passenger information systems.

Drastic re-adjustment of public transportation pricing to address all groups of travelers and implementation of a single ticket system.

Development of park and ride areas in Transport stations located close to the outskirts of cities for the upgrade of multimodal transportation.

Traffic management policies and monitoring solutions for special supply and emergency vehicles. A special institutional framework should include apart from specific regulations, special interventions (i.e. speed bumps, boom barriers, vehicle access points etc.).

Development of an integrated both static and dynamic information system for public transport users, including public and customized announcement of timetables, operational signaling of urban highways, important nodes etc.

The improvement of environmental conditions, as needed for urban sustainability, requires a radical revision of the overall urban practices and processes of developing urban forms. It is common knowledge that a well-planned city can enhance socialization, multiculturalism, happiness, health and safety conditions as well as realize the needs of its residents for free time and urban spaces. Reducing energy consumption remains yet a determinant factor in modern wellbeing and urban structure can contribute highly in these terms. Haugton and Hunter (1994) argue that changing the shape, size, housing density, design and siting of activities in cities, can differentiate energy demand for around 150%.

Conclusions

Cities, being ultimately dynamic organizations, can accept a certain amount of motor vehicles without consequences (capacity), managing to enrich somehow their urban environment. Beyond this specific amount, vehicles should be replaced with other forms of sustainable modes in order to keep their vitality and spatial distribution. Removing this excess amount of vehicles (travelling and especially parked ones), is the great 21st century's challenge, as recognized by several authorities and organizations. If achieved, the city would alter its form, its air and visual environment. Sustainable mobility, as a scientific term, addresses this contemporary challenge: managing to achieve the sustainable compact city with fewer private cars, preserving its history and identity through a healthy lifestyle. Streets are not traffic pipelines, but instead the foundations of social life. Sustainable city is the compact city that ensures its capacity within viability terms, covers its housing and commercial needs and provides street life in a human scale.

Bibliography and References

Bakogiannis, E., Siti, M., Vassi, A., Christodouloupoulou, G. and Kyriakidis, C. (2014). Case Studies and Sustainable Urban Mobility research schemes: A communication channel among researchers and interdisciplinary community groups.

Educational Researches and Publications Association ERPA Congress 2014, Istanbul 6-8.6. 2014 & Publication at the Journal of Service Science, Management and Engineering. Vol. 1, No. 4, 2014, pp. 42-51.
Available at: <http://www.openscienceonline.com/journal/archive2?journalId=729&paperId=883>

Bakogiannis, E., Siti, M., Kyriakidis, C. and Vassi, A. (2016). Using Traditional and New Digital Technology Tools to Promote Sustainable Mobility: Current Trends in the Evolving Transformation of Smart City. Proceedings of Smart Blue City conference: 1st Euro-Mediterranean Conference- Exhibition. Limassol, 2016.

Cervero R. (1998). The Transit Metropolis. A global Inquiry, Washington D.C.: Island Press

EXTRA project (2001). Social aspects of sustainable mobility. Thematic synthesis of transport research results paper 3 of 10. European Community's Transport RTD Programme.

Houghton G. και Hunter C. (1994). Sustainable Cities, London: Regional Studies Association.

Hellenic Institute of Transportation Engineers (2002). 20+1 proposals for the Transportation System of Athens from H.I.T.E. Athens: Hellenic Institute of Transportation Engineers

Newman P. και Kenworthy J. (1999). Sustainability and Cities. Overcoming Automobile Dependence, Washington D.C.: Island Press.

Schreiber, F. and Carius, A. (2016). The Inclusive City: Urban Planning for Diversity and Social Cohesion. In: Worldwatch Institute (Ed.): State of the World: Can a City Be Sustainable? Washington D.C.: Worldwatch Institute, pp. 123-141.

Transport for Athens (1998). Green Paper on Public Transportation of the Capital City of Athens. Athens, April 1998.

Vlastos, Th., Milakis, D., Athanasopoulos, K. (2004). The Bicycle in 17 Greek Cities. A Planning Manual. Athens: OEDB. (pages 567, ISBN: 960 630 251 2)

The Protection of Human Rights in Post-Communist Albania

Mejlana Bregu

UNIVERSITY OF TIRANA

Abstract

Albania was one of the most isolated countries in Europe for nearly 45 years. During the communist era, the legal system was under the direct control of the Party of Labor. The protection of human rights in the first years of the communist regime was clearly shaped on the soviet principles. The criminal code of Albania was the symbol of a repressive system, regardless of human rights protection, crimes punishable by death were sanctioned by various articles, including "agitation and propaganda against the state" and "activities against the revolutionary movement of the working class". Hoxha also closed the Ministry of Justice and banned the private practice of law as a consequence the right to a fair trial was denied. After the fall of communism Albania has made significant progress toward respect for civil and political rights, especially toward the right to a fair trial. The constitution of 1998 protects the right to a fair trial in chapter two and one important step is the ratification of the European Convention on Human Rights in 1996, which guarantee the right to a fair trial in article six. Still, 25 years of transformation are not enough to wipe away the legacy of the past; the lack of human rights mechanisms poses a serious challenge to the Albanian democratic system. Still today Albania faces important issues concerning the protection of human rights generally and particularly the right to a fair trial. This fact is evident if we refer to the cases of the European Court of human rights *versus* Albania dealing with the application of article 6 of the Convention. The paper aims to address the protection of human rights after the demise of the communist regime, especially regarding the right to a fair trial, analyzing the progress but also the continuity in some aspects with the past.

Keywords: democracy, human rights, the right to a fair trial, transition

Introduction: Human rights in communist Albania

The universality of human rights is based on the apprehension that if all humans are equal, then the rights that they have as a consequence of being human are the same regardless of the culture into which the individual happens to be born. This is the fundamental justification for the ideals expressed internationally in the oeuvre of the Council of Europe that dominated the visual sense of the Western countries after the Second World War and was fixed as western liberal thought, without value outside the western context (Sweeney, 2014, 460)

Alternatively, during the cold war, relativism - a cautious view of public international law that affords greater respect for state sovereignty - dominated socialist public international legal philosophy. Thus, human rights were treated as an aspect of domestic jurisdiction and a policy of non-interference was promoted. Due to relativism the values promoted by the system are relative only to the society from which they are derived and are incapable for universality. From a relativistic point of view it's unjustifiable to impose upon one society a system of social justice deriving from another, including in this even human rights system, imposing serious problems for their protection.

Referable to the relativistic view Albania was insensitive to the norm of international law and its application into the intern legal system. Many quotes by the UN Commission on Human Rights and the Sub-Commission on prevention of discrimination and Protection of Minorities have not laid in any change and improvement in human rights protection. Albania was cited repeatedly for its treatment of minority citizens, particularly the Greeks and for its stringent anti-religious policies when in 1967 became the world's first atheist country (Lawson, Bertucci, 1996, 45).

The protection of human rights is not a consolidated practice or tradition in Albania, its origins dated back only in the late 20's. Hence the Soviet practice borrowed from Mosca after the Second World War caused its own dynamics. The soviet model was not connected with Albanian tradition and necessities. According to the Marx theory applied in the socialist

countries, including Albania, law in a socialist state must be nothing more than the imposition of dominating class – the working class – over the bourgeoisie. Thus, values as individual rights and equality before the law were considered as fraudulent masks worn by the bourgeoisie for economic supremacy and exploitation (Zimmerman, 2009). All the values of liberal democratic societies were denounced as merely being ideological tools for legitimizing an exploitive economic system that would serve only the dominant economic group (Zimmerman, 2011, 22).

Communism in its Leninist interpretation was inimical to the values of individual rights and human freedom, which were an obstacle for the revolution and for the win of the proletariat against the bourgeoisie (Lenin, 1952, 226). Enver Hoxha, who was an ardent disciple of the Soviet Union at the time, strongly claimed in his official speeches that the proletariat retains the power and all the bourgeoisie concepts and elements of human rights and liberties had to disappear from the new communist society. The first Albanian constitution of 1946 which defines Albania a People's Republic did not cite the people as subjects of law and rights, but the Albanian workers (Gjykata e Larte, 1975, 6). The latter on the approval of the fundamental law in 1952 the judicial system was reformed with the approval of a new penal code. The penal code was different in the Hoxha words from any other penal code applied in capitalist countries and bourgeoisie systems (Hoxha, 1952, 481).

Indeed, the penal code was different it provided the capital punishment in several articles, for offenses against the state which included leaving the country without permission, crimes against life, etc. The penal code included a raw character of criminal offense defined as agitation and propaganda against the popular power which mean calls to undermine or subvert the people's power and the preparation, dissemination or preservation for dissemination of writings with such content, are sentenced: by deprivation of liberty from three to ten years. *When these acts are committed in time of war or have particularly serious consequences, are punished by deprivation of liberty of not less than ten years or by death with confiscation of property anytime* (article 73).

According to Gonenc the characteristics of the socialist conception of human rights are three and they present with a different shape in almost all of socialist countries. First, the possession and enjoyment of human rights and liberties must not obstruct the realization of the ultimate goal, a classless society (Gonenc, 2002, 221). Freedom of association provides a well-defined case of this. According to the 55 article of the Albanian constitution of 1976 – which modify the constitution of 1946 - the freedom of organization was permitted in accordance with the aims of the communist system, indeed were not permitted the religious organizations, anti-democratic organizations and anti socialist organizations.

Second the socialist conception of human rights gave prominence not to the individual but to the state. This provided the full control of the state over the creation and application of rights and liberties. Two are the aspects of the centrality of the state in human rights that can emphasize. On the one hand the state was the only source of human rights. On this way the rights and the liberties were granted by the state and could be taken away from it (Gonenc, 2002, 221). Rights and liberties were not inalienable in a communist regime in contrast to the liberal one (Mezzetti, 2010, 20). A clear case is the Albanian constitution of 1976 that defines Albania a People Socialist Republic, according to which: *The rights and duties of citizens are built on the basis of the reconciliation of the individual interests and of the socialist society, giving priority to the general interest. The rights of the citizens are inseparable from the fulfillment of their duties and cannot be exercised in opposition to the socialist order. The further extension and deepening of the rights of citizens are closely linked with the socialist development of the country.* (Art. 39)

Third the socialist concept of human rights in the Albanian constitution finds inspiration in the socioeconomic premises of Marxism-Leninism. The fusion of rights and duties, the primacy of economic and social rights over civil liberties and political rights, the ban on individual ownership of the means of production, the importance of the right to work and the accent on equal rights were the reflection of Marxism-Leninism principles (Gonenc, 2002, 222).

The second section of the constitution was centered along the economic order and especially the 16th article define the economic system of the People's Socialist Republic as a socialist economy based on the socialist ownership of the means of production and the second comma of the article prohibited private property.

The human rights in Albania during the communist regime were systematically violated; a serious violation was the denial of the right to a fair trial. The right to a fair trial was violated by the complete absence of independent courts and by the denial of the right to defense. Institutionally in 1966 was disbanded the Ministry of Justice and was eliminated the part of the defense attorney. The elimination of the defense lawyer role in a state where didn't exist the freedom of speech

transformed the right to a fair trial in an empty phrase. Albanian citizens were plagued by serious human rights violation such as restriction of freedom of expression and association, manipulation of the legal system and violence by the police. The numerous branch of human rights the dishuman treatment of the prisoners, especially of the politic prisoners, many of whom died in the communist prisons are not the main focus of the paper, but this brief introduction puts light on the problems that Albania faced aftermath the demise of the communist regime.

The constitutional reform and international instruments for the protection of human rights after the demise of communist regime

The downfall of the communist regime marked the end of almost half a century of dictatorship and inaugurated a new era, a period of intense changes started to reshape the political and institutional view of Albania. Albania faced the daunting challenge of having to reconstruct almost every single aspect of its system in very little time in order to avoid more havoc and to keep some stability but it was the communist country less prepared for these changes. For nearly a half century experienced a brand of communism unknown to the rest of Eastern Europe, isolationism and dictatorship kept the country as the poorest and most repressive of all Europe.

The student protest of 1990 was a promoter of democratic changes in Albania. In 1991 were held the first pluralist elections and various reforms have taken place on a number of levels. The main reform was concentrated on the constitution, with a new set of constitutional provisions in force until the enactment of the new Constitution in 1998 which guarantee to Albania the status of a parliamentary democracy. The human rights protection was at the time a main topic of concern for the political elite. Article 2 of the Constitutional act states: *The dignity of man, his rights and freedoms, the free development of his personality, the constitutional order, equality before the law, social justice, and the multi-party system constitutes the foundation of the State which has an obligation to respect and protect them.* Thus, several amendments were made to the legislation and one positive step was the abolition of death penalty for woman and persons under the age of 18, the reintroduction of conditional release, the reintroduction of the counsel and other criminal procedures (Lawson, 1996, 46). The problem of capital punishment was not at the core of the new government attention despite the incontrovertible fact of the abolition of death penalty for adult female. Indeed a crucial role in the abolition of capital punishment had the efforts of Albania to be a member of the Council of Europe. The Council of Europe, explicitly tied the question of Albania's membership to its progress on human rights issues, particularly the abolition of the death penalty (Frankowski, 1996, 230). In 1995 Albania signed a declaration stating that will sign, ratify and apply Protocol n. 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights on the abolition of the death penalty in time of peace within three years. Indeed, from 1995 Albania puts into place a moratorium on executions and ratified the Protocol in 2000 when the capital punishment was definitely abolished.

Despite these positive changes, of especial note were the laws on foreign investment, land reform and the right of former political prisoners, many problems continue. For instance the new penal code of 1995 had been criticized by the Albanian Helsinki Committee - local human rights group - for the high number of crimes punishable by death as well as the harshness of punishment contained in the code (Human Rights Watch Helsinki, 39, 1996).

Another important problem was the rights to a fair trial. The constitutional law on Fundamental Rights and Freedoms protected an individual's right to a fair trial. Article 7 to 13 had guaranteed the presumption of innocence, access to a lawyer of one's choice and sufficient time and facilities to prepare a defense also the law enhance the *right to a fair, quick and public trial by a competent, impartial and independent court* (Art. 40). Despite this legal guarantee, Human Watch Rights Watch Helsinki has documented various and numerous violations of due process. Defendants were often held in pretrial detention beyond the maximum time allowed, denied access to a lawyer and sometimes subjected to physical or psychological abuse while in police custody (Abrahams, 1996, 41). The violations were due to the police force and judiciary inexperience with the new legal order, and an incomplete break with the practice of totalitarian regimes. A focal point was also the ill-treatment and the excessive utilization of violence by police and prison guards. An obvious example of this phenomenon was given in the report of Amnesty International 'Albania' who received over one hundred complaints about the unlawful use of force from 1994 to 1995 (Amnesty International, 1995). The situation described below is a general panorama of the violations of human rights despite the legal framework and the international conventions ratified from Albania aftermath the fall of communism. The problem in this period from 1992 to 2000 was not the lack of the legislative instruments, but the substantial defense of the human liberties and the implementation of the legal framework. In many cases the authors of the violations, especially in ill-treatment case and torture by the guard in person remain unpunished and not responsible for their action. This got to a little faith of the Albanian citizens in the criminal justice system.

Analyzing the material rules of the protection of human rights a huge step toward was the adoption of the Constitution of the Republic of Albania 1998. The constitution was adopted by popular referendum and drafted with assistance of the Venice Commission, guarantees the rights, freedoms and duties of all persons within and subject to the jurisdiction of the Albanian state. The main achievement lies in a more innovative and precise regulation of basic legal and institutional norms at the constitutional level (Bianku, 2016, 14). Part II of the constitution is dedicated to human rights and freedoms which are arranged in six chapters, but the most important is the second chapter which provides for personal rights and freedoms. Among the values of the new Constitution is first, the Preamble, which stresses that the Constitution is made aside the people of Albania with faith in God to build a popular and social state based on the rule of law and to ensure the fundamental human rights and freedoms with a life of tolerance and religious coexistence. The constitution envisages the faith in god and the religious coexistence among the three religions after almost 40 years after the definition of Albania as an atheist state. The text stipulates also a fundamental principle in Part 1, the basis of the Albanian state is the dignity of the person his rights and freedoms, and the state is bound to protect and respect them.

The second section of the Constitution is devoted to fundamental human rights and freedoms. The first chapter provides the universal principles of the human rights and freedoms and qualifies them as inalienable, inviolable and inseparable. The second and most important chapter defines the personal freedoms and rights, guarantee the freedom of speech, the freedom of religion, the right to a fair trial, the private property, etc.

The third chapter is devoted to political rights and freedoms which guarantee the right of assembly and the fourth chapter comprises economic, societal and cultural rights. The fifth chapter focuses on the social objectives such as more equitable education, improved sanitation, employment and health care. The sixth chapter provides the principles governing the office of the Ombudsman.

Beside the constitutional act of 1992 and the constitution of the 1998 the protection of human rights is not thorough by material rules, hence the law considered in terms of reference relating international instrument that enrich the catalogue of constitutional rights; or accept international rules as interpretative parameters. The catalogue of constitutional rights mentioned in the law of 1993 was enriched in other acts drafted in conformity with the international Convention on human rights. Albania has ratified the major international human rights instruments such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the International Convention on the Elimination of all forms of racial discrimination and the Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (Abrahams, 1996).

In the mentioned context due to the phenomena of law importation that took place non only in Albania but also in the other countries of Eastern Europe the main term of reference regarding the protection of human rights is the European Convention of Human Rights the most prominent human treaty promoted by the Council of Europe. Albania became a member of the Council of Europe in 1995 and in the same date ratified the European Convention on Human Rights and recognized the competence of the European Court of Human Rights. Referable to the Constitution of 1998 the international agreements have normative effects in the domestic legal sphere by virtue of their ratification, art. 116 provide that normative acts effective in the entire territory of the Republic of Albania are the Constitution, the ratified international agreements, the laws and normative acts of the Council of Ministers. Due to article 122 – *an international agreement ratified by law has priority over the laws of the country that are incompatible with it* – an international ratified treaty is second only to the Constitution inside to the Albanian legal system. Agree to this article in case of incompatibility between a ratified international agreement and an ordinary domestic law, the international treaty norm will prevail (Bianku, 16).

The European Court of Human Rights has received various applications from Albanian citizens. The 495 applications lodged against Albania concern largely on the non enforcement of the domestic decisions, the right to a peaceful joy of the property, the right to a fair trial and the conditions of pre-trial detention (Bianku, 19). The applications concerning Albania bring to light the major problems of the judicial system in Albania.

Selected Examples - Cases related to Article 6 of the Convention - violation of the right to a fair trial

In Laska and Lika v. Albania – (N. 319.20/04/2010)

A fair and public hearing art. 6 comma 1 - In 2001 Mr. Lika and Laska were charged with armed robbery and illegal possessions of arms which they contested before the district court. The court noticed certain irregularities during the investigation stage, such as the absence of the layer both during the questioning and the identification, but it found the

applicants guilty on the basis of the eyewitness statements. During the identification and the questioning conducted by the police officers in charge the lawyer of the applicants was not present. The Court observed that even the District Court had admitted that there had been irregularities at the investigation stage, in convicting the applicants it had relied to the outcome of the investigation stage. Besides the Court considers that the patent disregard of the rights of the defense at this stage seriously undermined the fairness of the subsequent criminal trial. Consequently the proceedings in question had been unfair in violation of Article 6.

In *Driza v. Albania and Ramadhi and other versus Albania* (n. [33771/02](#))

The court recommended to Albania to take urgent measures in restitution of property cases. These two cases are related to two problematic aspects of the protection of human rights, the right to a fair hearing and the protection of the property. The cases concerned the non-enforcement of assessments and administrative decisions in restitution of property cases, a widespread problem involving large numbers of people in Albania. In both cases the applicants took legal action to regain ownership of property belonging to their fathers, which had been removed by the authorities without payment of recompense. The Court concluded that there had been a violation of Article 6 § 1 in respect of the breach of the principle of legal certainty, the impartiality of the court and the non-enforcement of a final judgment. Granting to the Court, in granting leave to receive a final judgment reviewed and allowing the insertion of parallel sets of transactions, the Albanian Supreme Court had put at naught an entire judicial process which had terminated in a final and enforceable judicial decision.

The violations of article 6, article 13, and the violation of the security of the property reflected a widespread trouble in Albania and the European Court imposed an obligation on the Albanian state to address this problem. It held that Albania had to take general measures in order to effectively secure the right to compensation within 18 months from the date in which the judgement became final. The emblematic case law was *Manushaqe Puto and Others v. Albania* (applications N. 604/07, 43628/07, 46684/07, and 34770/09) in which human right judges awarded 680.000 euro against Albania following a complaint against the country's failure to enforce compensation rulings. According to the facts 20 applicants complained that, despite their inherited title to plots of land is recognized by the authorities, the final administrative decisions awarding them compensation *in lieu* of restitution had never been enforced. They relied on article 13 of the Convention which has focused on the lack of effective remedies in relation to article 6 of the convention and Article 1 of the First Protocol. In relation with article 13 the Court concluded that the impossibility to have an effective form of compensation provided by law proved that there was no effective domestic remedy on account of the prolonged non-enforcement of administrative decision awarding compensation. The Court found violations of article 6 in relation to the lack of effective remedies in relation to the length of proceedings. The length of the proceeding was faced by the Court in *Mishgjoni* case explained above/

Right to a fair hearing with a reasonable time – *Mishgjoni versus Albania* (2010)

The judgment dealt with the proceedings in the case of Mirela Mishgjoni whom complaints about the excessive length of proceedings with regard to her dismissal in 2002 from her post as a district court judge. After ruling on the applicability of the article 6 in proceedings concerning the applicant's dismissal as a judge, the Court found that the duration of the dismissal proceedings by the High Court of Justice did not satisfy the reasonable time requirement under the Convention (Bianku, 22). Also, in 2014 in another similar case (*Luli and others v. Albania – 64480/09*) the Court finds the length of proceedings to excessive and indicate that the Albanian authorities should undertake general measures in relation of this problem. The Court recalls that it is for the Contracting States to organize their legal systems in such a way that the competent authorities can meet the requirements of Article 6 of the Convention.

This few example are symptomatic of the same problems of the Albanian judiciary system, the length of the proceedings, the access to the justice system, the non-enforcement of court decisions has brought to a loss of faith on the justice in Albanian citizens, whom perceive the system as corrupted and ineffective. This is discernible also in the EU's Progress Report on Albania, of October 2014, the functioning of the judicial system continues to be affected by politicization, limited accountability, poor interinstitutional cooperation, while claims of corruption inside the justice system remain a grave worry. Based on a study by IDRA, which focused on citizens' perception of the judiciary, it results that 84% of those polled think that judges are not impartial in Albania, thus expressing the profound crisis of credibility in them (*Impunity - Perceptions and experiences of Albanian Citizens 2014-2015*). The bad functioning of the judicial system is a crucial point which seems to reflect not only the economic situation of the country but also the legacy of the past. In this situation the justice reform approved in July 2016 by the Parliament was necessary, but the implementation has not yet begun.

The legal framework for the protection of human rights is broadly in line with the European standards. Nevertheless, implementation is limited and enforcement of human rights remains insufficient. There is a large gap between human rights protection that citizens should have in theory and how individuals or groups experience the protection of their rights in reality. On this regard Civil Right Defenders – an independent expert organization – in its report found that human rights continued to be breached in Albania. Agreeing to this report, the treatment of vulnerable groups is extremely problematic in Albania. *Discriminatory attitudes and practices prevail against the Roma/Egyptians and LGBT communities. Independent institutions, such as the Office of Ombudsman, despite the active engagement have had only limited impact when it comes to improving human rights. Widespread corruption and impunity are a contributing element in the country's poor human rights record (Human Rights in Albania, Country Report, 2015).*

In 2014 the EU candidate status was granted to Albania, thus marking an important step toward European integration. The EU has identified the protection of human rights as one of the five priorities Aereas. Although in 2015 the EU values the positive efforts in the enforcement of human rights in Albania but affirms that the capability of institutions in charge of the protection and enforcement of human rights remains weak, and there is a particular demand for more well-trained, specialist staff in the judiciary and police (Albania, 2015 report). The most problematic area remains the disproportionate role of force and violence by police officers and prison guards and the overcrowding of the prison system. Also more efforts are needed to implement the strategy on property rights, to complete the process of registering properties, to ensure enforcement of the judicial decisions and to continue the process of restitution and compensation. Another problematic aspect of human rights in Albania has to come to light, specifically the protection of minorities and the integration of the Roma community. Roma and Egyptians continue to face difficult living conditions, frequent social exclusion and discrimination, especially regarding access to wellness care, social security, training, work and lodging. Albania faces problems also with the integration of persons with disabilities, and the discrimination of LGBT community. Besides in these years domestic violence against women is a serious problem and the country does not have enough mechanisms to address gender-based violence. Protection Orders are often violated and the number of female murders is still high.

This paper does not address the full scope of human rights and freedoms sanctioned by the Constitution and international acts, applicable in the Republic of Albania. The paper looked and addresses part of them, especially the right to a fair trial and the evolution of the human rights situation in Albania since the fall of the communist regime. Since the fall of the communist regime the situation is improved, the legal framework is more complete and the state is more sensitive to the complaints of citizens. Although these positive changes are not enough to warrant a complete protection of human rights in Albania especially for weak and marginalized groups like woman, children, Roma community and the captives. The lack of faith in the justice system and often the malfunction of it remain a point of great concern. At this point the efforts of all the actors like state and ONG are necessary but not enough, a focal node is the participation of the citizens. Relying on the IDRA report mentioned above, although corruption, breaking of the law and impunity are seen as big problems, very few citizens claim to have engaged in any activities to report these phenomena. Only a small number of citizens signed petitions, wrote on specific case of corruption in social media or demonstrate against this phenomena. The economic situation and the slow development also the lack of the efforts of all the citizens, state, and civil society brings to poor result human rights record despite a general improvement of the protection of human rights from the demise of communist till to the new justice reform.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abrahams F. and Human Rights Watch Helsinki (ed). 1996. *Human Rights in post – communist Albania*, USA
- Amnesty International. (ed). 1995 *Albania: failure to end police ill-treatment and deaths in custody*. Index number Index number: EUR 11/004/1995 retrieved from <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/eur11/004/1995/en/>
- Bianku, L. in Motoc I. and Ziemele I. (Ed) 2016. Albania long path toward European Human Rights standards in *The impact of the ECHR on Democratic change in central and eastern Europe*, Cambridge.
- Driza v. Albania and Ramadhi and others v. Albania. European Court of Human Rights N. 33771/02, N. 38222/02 retrieved from <http://hudoc.echr.coe.int/>
- European Commission. 2015. *Albania Progress Report* retrieved in

http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/pdf/key_documents/2015/20151110_report_albania.pdf

Frankowski S. (ed). 1996. *Capital Punishment, global issue and prospects*, Winchester

Gonenc L. (ed). 2002. *Prospects for Constitutionalism in Post-Communist Countries*, Hague

http://www.gjykataelarte.gov.al/web/kushtetuta_e_republikes_se_shqiperise_1298.pdf - Albania Constitution

Gjykata e Larte e RPSH. (ed). 1975. *Zhvillimi i legjislacionit socialist ne RPSH*. Tirane, 8 Nentori

Hoxha, E. (ed). 1952. *Vepra, vellimi 4*. Tirane

Human Rights in Albania. 2015. Country Report retrieved from <https://www.civilrightsdefenders.org/country-reports/human-rights-in-albania/>

Impunity - Perceptions and experiences of Albanian Citizens (2014-2015) retrieved from <http://www.idracompany.com/>

Lawson Edwards. (ed) 1996. *Encyclopedia of Human Rights*, Washington

Laska and Lika versus Albania. European Court of Human Rights. N. 319. 20/04/2010 retrieved from <http://hudoc.echr.coe.int/>

Lenin. (ed). 1952. *Vepra, vellimi 32*. Tirane

Mezzetti, L. (ed). 2010. *Human Rights*. Bologna: Bonomia

Sweeney A. James. (ed). 2014. Margins of Appreciation: Cultural Relativity and the European Court of Human Rights in the post-cold era. *International and Comparative Law Quaterly* retrieved from <http://www.pierre-legrand.com/sweeny.pdf>

Zimmerman A. (ed). 2009. *Marxism, Law and Evolution* retrieved from <http://creation.com/marxism-law-and-evolution>

Zimmerman Augusto. (ed) 2011. Marxism, Communis and Law: How Marxism led to lawlessness and genocide in the former Soviet Union in *The Western Australian Jurist* N.60,

The Analysis of Weak-Form Efficiency in the Market of Crude Oil

Anna Górska

Warsaw University of Life Sciences,

Department of Agricultural Economics and International Economic Relations

Monika Krawiec

Warsaw University of Life Sciences,

Department of Econometrics and Statistics

Abstract

Crude oil is the strategic commodity whose market has become the biggest commodity market in the world over the past 40 years. The main actors in the market, such as producers, refiners, financial institutions, and individual traders are interested in recognizing some trends, patterns or anomalies in performance of oil prices and returns, they could benefit from. Such anomalies among others are calendar effects, for example the day-of-the week effect, the month-of-the year effect, holidays effect or the turn-of-the month effect. Either the calendar effects are observed for stock prices, or for commodity prices, they make the markets inefficient. According to classical Fama's definition: a market in which prices always fully reflect available information is called efficient. However, there are 3 types of market efficiency: weak-form efficiency, semistrong-form efficiency, strong-form efficiency. The weak-form market efficiency is tested the most often. There are several tools used for its verification, for example: some statistical tests (unit root tests, autocorrelation tests, variance ratio tests), long-run relationships and correlation analysis, calendar effects analysis. Our previous research focused on searching for calendar effects in the market of crude oil (Górska, Krawiec 2015), shows the existence of the-day-of-the week and the month effects. It may imply market inefficiency. That is why the present paper is aimed at further testing weak-form market efficiency. The empirical data covers daily closing prices of crude oil in USD per barrel from 2000 to 2015 and includes, both West Texas Intermediate (WTI) and Brent quotations. Having calculated their logarithmic returns, we apply the following tests: runs test, variance ratio, autocorrelation test.

Keywords: crude oil, weak-form market efficiency, statistical tests

Introduction

Oil along with currencies and gold are the main indicators of the most important processes in the world economy. Moreover, oil is the world's dominant fuel with 33% share in current global primary energy consumption, which is however predicted to decrease to 28% by 2030 (Popescu 2016). With no doubt, in the last century it has become a highly demanded product, absolutely necessary for the development of every economy.

Since the 1970s macroeconomists have viewed the price of oil as one of the important sources of economic fluctuation, and a driver of global economic shocks. Consequently, oil prices have been carefully followed and analyzed by empirical and theoretical economists. A sufficient understanding of the signals from oil prices is important as both, short-run and long-run decisions are based on information provided by the price of this essential resource, that still remains an important input factor influencing a variety of investment decisions in all economic sectors.

Oil is also the strategic commodity whose market has become the biggest commodity market in the world over the past several decades. The main actors in the market, such as producers, refiners, financial institutions, and individual traders

are interested in recognizing some trends, patterns or anomalies in performance of oil prices and their returns, they could benefit from. Such anomalies among others are calendar effects, for example the day-of-the week effect, the month-of-the year effect, holidays effect or the turn-of-the month effect. Either the calendar effects are observed for stock prices, or for commodity prices, they make the markets inefficient. Efficient market hypothesis received much attention in the late 1970s and 1980 when a vast amount of literature examined the efficiency of stock markets (see Fama 1970, Fama and French 1988, Lo and MacKinlay 1988, Fama 1991). Efficiency of commodity markets was also studied, although not to the same extent.

According to classical Fama's definition: a market in which prices always fully reflect available information is called efficient. However, there are 3 types of market efficiency: weak-form efficiency, semistrong-form efficiency, strong-form efficiency. The weak-form market efficiency is tested the most often. There are several tools used for its verification, namely some statistical tests, long-run relationships and correlation analysis, calendar effects analysis (including the generalized method of moments, the method of generalized spectrum, mean variance (MV) and stochastic dominance (SD) approaches, detrended fluctuation analysis, time-varying parameter models). However the statistical tests, such as the variance ratio test, the unit root test, the autocorrelation test still remain popular instruments in testing weak-form efficiency of stock markets (see Borges 2010, Aatola, Ollikka and Ollikainen 2010, Guidi, Gupta and Maheshwari 2011, Nisar and Hanif 2012, Khrapko 2013 or Shaker 2013) and sometimes of commodity markets (see Smith 2002, Charles and Darne 2009, Górska and Krawiec 2013, Ntim *et.al.* 2015).

As our previous research focused on searching for calendar effects in the market of crude oil (Górska, Krawiec 2015) shows the existence of the-day-of-the week and the month effects, it may imply market inefficiency. That is why the present paper is aimed at further testing weak-form market efficiency. The empirical data covers daily closing prices of crude oil in USD per barrel from 2000 to 2015 and includes both, West Texas Intermediate (WTI) and Brent quotations. Having calculated their logarithmic returns, we apply the following tests: runs test, variance ratio test, autocorrelation tests.

Methodology

The efficient market hypothesis is a concept of informational efficiency, and refers to market's ability to process information into prices. The idea of the efficient market hypothesis (EMH) emerged as early as the beginning of the twentieth century in the theoretical contribution of Bachelier (1900) and the empirical research of Cowles (1933). In the paper of Samuelson (1965) one can find an opinion about price changes and their predictability: *If we correctly predict asset prices, their changes should be unpredictable*. Correct prediction of prices means taking into account all available information, including information about the expectations of other market participants.

Basic types of information for testing the efficiency of the capital market are:

historical quotes of values,

all publicly available information,

all the information available to market participants (also confidential information).

Analyzing the efficiency of capital market with respect to the above information categories it is necessary to specify three forms of efficiency. These are: weak, semi-strong and strong form of efficiency. However, this is the weak-form that is examined the most often. Fama (1970) defines weak-form efficiency as follows: security prices fully reflect the information contained in past price movements, i.e., they do not follow repeating patterns, and it is impossible to trade profitably purely on the basis of historical price information. The essence of weak-form efficiency is that past returns on a market cannot be utilized to predict current returns on the same market (Haugen 1996).

In order to examine efficiency in the weak form one can use statistical tests that verify the randomness of changes in the time series. They are both parametric and non-parametric tests. The verification may consist in:

assessing whether prices of financial instruments are well described by a random walk process:

$$p_t = p_{t-1} + e_t, \quad (1)$$

where p_t - logarithms of prices;

assessing whether the returns on investments in financial instruments have property of the white noise:

$$r_t = e_t . \quad (2)$$

The aim of the research is to clarify whether the model (1) is a good approximation for the analyzed prices of oil, and whether it can be stated that the model (1), where e_t are independent random variables with the same distribution (with finite variance), is a proper model for these prices. Thus, we perform runs test, variance ratio tests, autocorrelation tests, portmanteau and adjusted portmanteau tests.

1. Runs test.

Runs test belongs to the group of non-parametric tests also known as compliance tests. Non-parametric tests are used to verify hypotheses about the type of distribution of the variable, and to determine whether samples extracted from the population have the same distributions (Domański and Pruska 2000). A run in the commodity market is defined as a series of changes in commodity prices in the same direction (i.e. a series of increasing values, or a series of decreasing values) of any length (Czekaj and all, 2001). In this case, fractions will be compared to the distribution the data would follow if the investigated process was a random walk. If price changes are random, the probability of a further decline, after the price decreases, should be equal to the probability of an increase. This would mean that in a large sample of observations one should expect similar numbers of runs and sign changes.

Modeling the behavior of commodity prices, one assumes the existence of series of positive values, negative values and zeros. Then, in order to perform the runs test, there is introduced auxiliary variable R_t^* , such that:

$$R_t^* = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } R_t > 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } R_t = 0 \\ -1, & \text{if } R_t < 0 \end{cases} .$$

The null hypothesis H_0 : " R_t^* is a white noise" is tested against H_1 : " R_t^* is not a white noise".

To verify the hypothesis, K statistic is used. For large samples it is approximately asymptotically normally distributed ($N(0, 1)$).

Statistic K is given by:

$$K = \frac{H - E(\tilde{H})}{\sqrt{Var(\tilde{H})}} , \quad (3)$$

where: H is conditional realization of a random variable \tilde{H} and denotes the total number of runs.

In order to perform this test, continuous sequences of positive, zero and negative returns R_t^* are first distinguished. There is also introduced an auxiliary variable h_t such that:

$$h_t = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } R_t^* = R_{t+1}^* \\ 1, & \text{if } R_t^* \neq R_{t+1}^* \end{cases} .$$

If $h_t = 1$, R_{t+1} starts a new run. The total number of runs is:

$$H = 1 + \sum_{t=1}^{n-1} h_t, \quad (4)$$

where:

n is the length of a run.

If the investigated series consists of n_1 positive returns, n_2 with values of zero and n_3 negative returns, then the mean and variance of the random variable \tilde{H} are defined by the formulas (Taylor 1986):

$$E(\tilde{H}) = n + 1 - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^3 n_j^2}{n}, \quad (5)$$

$$Var(\tilde{H}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^3 n_j^2 \left(\sum_{j=1}^3 n_j^2 + n + n^2 \right) - 2n \sum_{j=1}^3 n_j^3 - n^2}{n^3 - n}. \quad (6)$$

If $|K| > 1.96$, then the null hypothesis is rejected at the 5% level. When $K < 0$, we have trends in the data, and $K > 0$, implies mean reversion (Taylor 1986).

2. Variance ratio test

Performing the variance ratio test, we assume that we have $nk + 1$ spot prices (e.g. daily): S_0, S_1, \dots, S_{nk} .

The variance ratio test is used to verify whether the equation:

$$p_t = \mu + p_{t-1} + e_t, \quad t=1, \dots, nk \quad (7)$$

(where $p_t = \ln(S_t)$ and μ - a constant) is a proper model for the analyzed price series (the null hypothesis H_0 of this test states that equation (7) is the right model for the series of prices of assets).

The model can be tested in two variants:

e_t are independent and follow the same normal distribution with the expected value of zero and the same variance (assumption 1),

e_t are uncorrelated and have a finite variance (assumption 2).

Verifying these two assumptions one can determine the cause of a possible rejection of the null hypothesis: Is it heteroscedasticity of e_t or rather autocorrelation?

Assuming that the assumption 1 is true and transforming the model (7), we have:

$$r_t = \ln \left(\frac{S_t}{S_{t-1}} \right) = \mu + e_t. \quad (8)$$

This means that the continuously compound daily returns r_t follow a normal distribution with expected value μ and variance equal e_t . Assuming also that individual rates of return are independent, the sample variance of k -period return is k times the sample variance of one-period return. Thus, if H_0 is true (i.e. prices are generated by a stochastic process given by the formula (7) and e_t satisfies assumption 1), then:

$$\frac{var(r_k)}{k \cdot var(r_1)} = 1, \quad (9)$$

where r_k is a logarithmic return from k days.

Therefore the test of the null hypothesis can be based on the quotient of the variance (see the left side of equation (9)). If H_0 is true, the variance ratio calculated from the sample should be equal to unity.

The distribution of the test statistics (variance ratio):

$$z(k) = \frac{IW_{k-1}}{\sqrt{L(k)}}, \quad (10)$$

where:

$$\bar{p} = \frac{1}{nk} \sum_{t=1}^{nk} (p_t - p_{t-1}),$$

$$\overline{var}(r_1) = \frac{1}{nk-1} \sum_{t=1}^{nk} (p_t - p_{t-1} - \bar{p})^2,$$

$$\overline{var}(r_k) = \frac{1}{(nk-k-1)(1-1/n)} \sum_{t=k}^{nk} (p_t - p_{t-k} - k\bar{p})^2,$$

$$IW(k) = \frac{\overline{var}(r_k)}{k \cdot \overline{var}(r_1)},$$

$$L(k) = \frac{3nk^2}{2(2k-1)(k-1)},$$

follows standard normal distribution asymptotically (Lo and MacKinlay 1989).

Assuming the truth of the assumption 2, which is more realistic, the null hypothesis can be verified using the statistic:

$$z^*(k) = \frac{IW_{k-1}}{\sqrt{L^*(k)}}, \quad (11)$$

where:

$$L^*(k) = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \left[\left(\frac{2(k-j)}{k} \right)^2 \cdot V(j) \right],$$

$$V(j) = \frac{\sum_{t=j+1}^{nk} (p_t - p_{t-1} - \bar{p})^2 \cdot (p_{t-j} - p_{t-j-1} - \bar{p})^2}{\left[\sum_{t=1}^{nk} (p_t - p_{t-1} - \bar{p})^2 \right]^2},$$

It also follows standard normal distribution.

Statistics $z(k)$ and $z^*(k)$ allow to verify the null hypothesis, answering the question whether the equation (7) may model the analyzed prices, properly.

3. Autocorrelation tests

The autocorrelation test examines whether the data in the time series are correlated or not, portmanteau (Box-Pierce) and adjusted portmanteau (Box-Ljung) examine whether the price changes are independent random variables with identical distributions.

Autocorrelation test verifies the following null hypothesis:

$H_0: \rho = 0$ (returns are not correlated with each other)

against

$H_1: \rho \neq 0$ (rates of return are correlated).

To verify the null hypothesis one can use the autocorrelation coefficient of returns given by the formula:

$$\hat{\rho}(k) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-k} (R_t - \bar{R}_T)(R_{t+k} - \bar{R}_T)}{\sum_{t=1}^T (R_t - \bar{R}_T)^2}, \quad (12)$$

where:

$\hat{\rho}(k)$ is the autocorrelation of order k ,

\bar{R}_T is the mean return ($\bar{R}_T = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T R_t$),

T is the number of observations,

R_t is the rate of return at time t ,

R_{t+k} is the rate of return of prices that are k moments distant from each other.

Assuming the truth of the null hypothesis H_0 : "the elements of the series are uncorrelated with each other", the statistic:

$$S = \sqrt{T} \hat{\rho}(k)$$

follows normal distribution with parameters $N(0, 1)$ (Taylor 1986). The null hypothesis is rejected at 5%, when the absolute value of the statistic S is greater than 1.96.

The aim of the Box-Pierce and Box-Ljung tests is to verify the following null hypothesis:

$H_0: \rho_1 = \rho_2 = \dots = \rho_m = 0$ (rates of returns are uncorrelated)

against

$H_1: \rho_i \neq 0, i=\{1, \dots, m\}$ (rates of return are correlated).

This tests examine the significance of the subsequent correlation coefficients.

In the case of Box-Pierce test, the statistic is:

$$Q_m = T \sum_{k=1}^m \hat{\rho}(k)^2, \quad (13)$$

and in the Box-Ljung test, it is:

$$Q'_m = T(T+2) \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\hat{\rho}(k)^2}{T-k}, \quad (14)$$

where:

$\hat{\rho}(k)$ – autocorrelation coefficient of order k , for $k=1, \dots, m$ (compare the formula 10),

T – the length of the time series,

$m \approx \ln(T)$ – maximum delay.

Statistics Q (Q') consist of numerous autocorrelation coefficients, and follow the χ_m^2 distribution, which is the chi-squared with m degrees of freedom (Mills 1999). When the value of empirical statistic Q exceeds the value of χ_m^2 theoretical distribution, H_0 can be rejected at the pre-specified significance level.

The formulas (13) and (14) show that the number of degrees of freedom m is the number of autocorrelation coefficients, which are taken into account when calculating statistics Q or Q' . It should be noted that for small “ m ” one may not detect significant higher order autocorrelation, whereas too big “ m ” may reduce the power of the test due to the presence of insignificant higher-order autocorrelation.

Data and preliminary analysis

The data covers daily closing prices of crude oil in USD per barrel from January 4, 2000 to December 31, 2015 from the Bloomberg database (www.bloomberg.com) and includes, both West Texas Intermediate (WTI) and Brent quotations. They are displayed in Figures 1 and 2 together with their logarithmic returns. The West Texas Intermediate (USA origin) and Brent (North West Europe origin) crude oil prices are chosen to represent the oil market as they are key global marker crudes that are used as pricing benchmarks. During the period under consideration WTI traded between a low of \$17.45 (November 15, 2001) and a high of \$145.29 (July 3, 2008) per barrel, while Brent traded between a low of \$17.68 (November 15, 2001) and a high of \$146.08 (July 3, 2008) per barrel.



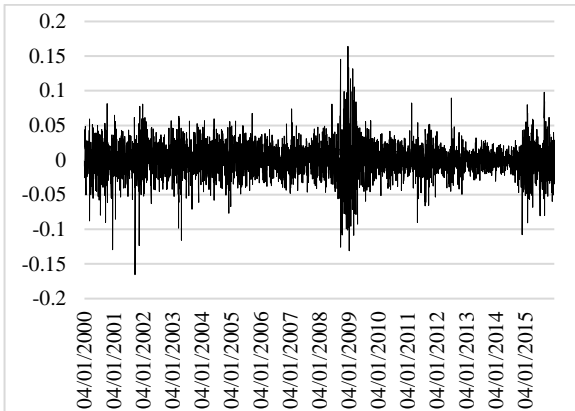


Fig. 1 . Daily WTI crude oil prices and logarithmic returns

Source: own elaboration.

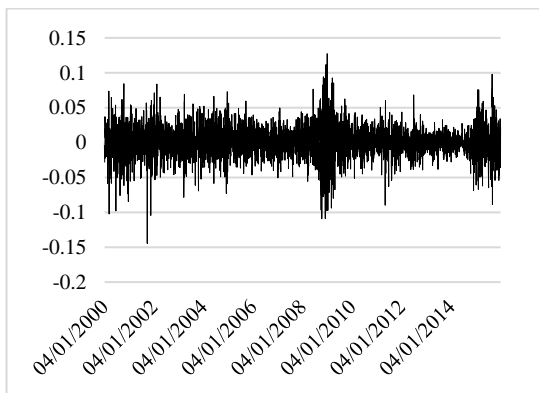


Fig. 2 . Daily Brent crude oil prices and logarithmic returns

Source: own elaboration.

In table 1, there are reported descriptive statistics of oil daily returns for evaluation period from January 2000 to December 2015 consisting of 4173 observations. Both, WTI and Brent are characterized by a daily mean close to zero and their volatilities do not differ remarkably. Additionally, they are described by negative skewness. Moreover, kurtosis is larger than 3. To follow, the Jarque-Bera statistic (JB) of normality confirms the rejection of null hypothesis for both return series at 5% level of significance. They are also characterized by strong linear correlation (Pearson correlation coefficient equals 0.86).

Table 1. Summary statistics for logarithmic returns of crude oil prices WTI and Brent in period January 2000 – December 2015

Characteristics	WTI	Brent
Number of observations	4173	4173
Mean (%)	0.0089	0.0095
Standard deviation (%)	2.361	2.1658
Kurtosis	4.496	3.130
Skewness	-0.176	-0.191
Minimum (%)	-16.545	-14.437
Maximum (%)	16.410	12.707
JB	3526.02*	1723.54*
Pearson correlation	0.86	

Source: own calculations

*Rejection of null hypothesis of normality at 0.05

Empirical results

Runs test

Table 2 presents values of K statistic (equation (3)), calculated for both WTI and Brent logarithmic returns. They show we cannot reject the null hypothesis at 5%. Thus, we can expect R_t to be generated by the white noise ($|K| < 1.96$). In consequence, both WTI and Brent markets may be efficient in a weak-form. Additionally, positive values of K suggest existence of trends in oil returns.

Table 2. Values of K statistic for WTI and Brent returns

Crude oil	K
WTI	1.86666
Brent	1.90793

Source: own calculations.

Variance ratio test

Results of variance ratio test are reported in table 3 (the tests were performed for logarithmic returns from 1 up to 10 days ($k=1, \dots, 10$)). All $z(k)$ statistics, given in table 3, are not significant at 5%. Thus, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and oil prices may be generated by the stochastic process fulfilling assumption (1). Moreover, model (7), fulfilling assumption 2 is a good approximation of analyzed oil prices (with exception of $k=3$ for WTI and $k>4$ for Brent). Additionally, values of all variance ratios (IW) are smaller than 1 and decrease when k increases. Thus, the logarithmic returns under consideration are characterized by negative coefficients of autocorrelation (compare table 4).

Table 3. Results of the variance ratio test for logarithms of oil prices

	k	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
WTI	$IW(k)$	0.96501	0.93249	0.92890	0.93519	0.92550	0.91320	0.90215	0.89036	0.87661
	$z(k)$	-0.00001	-0.00005	-0.00006	-0.00008	-0.00011	-0.00015	-0.00020	-0.00025	-0.00032

	$z^*(k)$	-1.56181	-2.00937*	-1.68244	-1.30853	-1.33062	-1.40513	-1.45970	-1.52494	-1.90063
Brent	IW(k)	0.94397	0.92310	0.92201	0.93561	0.92880	0.92756	0.92449	0.92404	0.91718
	$z(k)$	-0.00002	-0.00005	-0.00007	-0.00008	-0.00010	-0.00013	-0.00015	-0.00017	-0.00021
	$z^*(k)$	-2.72339*	-2.49240*	-1.99876*	-1.40154	-1.36683	-1.25628	-1.20415	-1.12757	-1.34868

Source: own calculations *Significance at 0.05

Autocorrelation test

Table 4 presents results of the autocorrelation test for logarithmic returns, where autocorrelations of order $k=1, 2, \dots, 10$ are verified.

Table 4. Values of autocorrelation of order k (ρ) and S statistics

k		WTI	Brent
1	$\rho(1)$	-0.036	-0.057
	S	-2.318*	-3.657*
2	$\rho(2)$	-0.031	-0.003
	S	-2.016*	-0.191
3	$\rho(3)$	0.025	0.018
	S	1.606	1.188
4	$\rho(4)$	0.021	0.036
	S	1.370	2.323*
5	$\rho(5)$	-0.042	-0.049
	S	-2.735*	-3.162*
6	$\rho(6)$	-0.020	0.011
	S	-1.269	0.740
7	$\rho(7)$	-0.007	-0.009
	S	-0.481	-0.569
8	$\rho(8)$	-0.014	0.008
	S	-0.889	0.529
9	$\rho(9)$	-0.020	-0.033
	S	-1.321	-2.127*
10	$\rho(10)$	0.010	0.042
	S	0.669	2.685

Source: own calculations *Significance at 0.05

Results, given in table 4, suggest rejection of the null hypothesis H_0 : „oil prices are independent random variables” for both, WTI and Brent in the case of autocorrelation of orders $k=1$ and $k=5$ ($|\sqrt{T}\hat{\rho}(k)| > 1.96$). On the contrary, we cannot reject the null hypothesis for both of them in the case of autocorrelation of order $k=\{3, 6, 7, 8\}$. Evidence for other orders of autocorrelation is mixed. Although in most cases the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, values of coefficient of correlation $\hat{\rho}(k)$ differ from zero. However, their moduli are small. Thus, we expect oil prices to be autocorrelated, but their autocorrelations are too weak to let us draw definite conclusions.

Box-Pierce and Box-Ljung tests

Results of Box-Pierce and Box-Ljung tests, that have been performed on logarithmic returns, are given in table 5. There are considered different numbers of lags (m): 10, 20 and 30. Empirical values of Q_m and Q'_m statistics are compared to the theoretical values of chi-squared distribution: 18.31, 31.41 and 43.77 respectively.

Table 5. Values of Q and Q' statistics

Item	m	Q_m	Q'_m
WTI	10	26.197	26.210
	20	43.000	43.068
	30	52.362	52.480
Brent	10	43.098	43.128
	20	62.926	63.017
	30	80.380	80.563

Source: own calculations

Results in table 5 suggest rejection of the null hypothesis regardless the number of lags. All values of Q_m and Q'_m statistics are greater than respective theoretical values of chi-squared distribution. This lets us state that returns are correlated. Again, the correlations are too weak to draw definite conclusions.

Concluding remarks

According to Chai *et al.* (2011), oil is an indispensable energy product, chemical raw material, and also a strategic material that plays an irreplaceable role in national defense. Nowadays, many countries' economies critically rely on oil consumption, so frequent and dramatic volatility of the world oil price affects the world economy, governments, and energy industry. What is more, the volatility of oil price not only impacts on the economic growth, but also directly influences energy enterprises and investors. That is why it is important to examine behavior of oil markets.

This paper has explored weak-form efficiency in the WTI and Brent crude oil markets from 2000 through 2015 using few statistical tests: the runs test, the variance ratio test, the autocorrelation tests. Their results, however, do not provide clear answers to the question whether oil markets are efficient in a weak-form (although the runs test and the variance ratio test show that time-series of WTI and Brent prices are well described by the random walk). This opens a door to further investigations with the use of alternative methodology.

References

- Aatola, P., Ollikka, K., Ollikainen, M. (2010). Weak and Semi-strong Forms of Informational Efficiency in the EU ETS Markets. University of Helsinki Discussion Papers, 48, www.helsinki.fi.
- Bachelier, L. (1900). Théorie de la spéculation (PDF), *Annales Scientifiques de l'École Normale Supérieure*, 3 (17), pp. 21–86.
- Borges, M. (2010). Efficient Market Hypothesis in European Stock Markets. *European Journal of Finance*, 16(7), 711-726.
- Chai, J., Guo, J.E., Meng, L., Wang, S.Y. (2011). Exploring The Core Factors and Its Dynamic Effects on Oil Price: An Application on Path Analysis and BVAR-TVP Model. *Energy Policy*, 39, 8028-8036.
- Charles, A., Darne, O. (2009). The Efficiency of the Crude Oil Market: Evidence from Variance Ratio Tests. *Energy Policy*, 37, 4267-4272.
- Cowles, A. (1933). Can Stock Market Forecasters Forecast? *Econometrica*, 1: 309-324.
- Czekaj, J., Woś, M., Żarnowski, J. (2001). Efektywność giełdowego rynku akcji w Polsce. Z perspektywy dziesięciolecia. Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa.
- Domański, Cz., Pruska, K. (2000). *Non-classical Statistical Methods*. Warsaw: WN PWN (in Polish).
- Fama, E.F. (1970). Efficient Capital Markets: A Review of Theory and Empirical Work. *Journal of Finance*, 25, 383-417.
- Fama, E.F., French, K.R. (1988). Permanent and Temporary Components of Stock Prices. *Journal of Political Economy*, 96, 246-273.

- Fama, E.F. (1991). Efficient Capital Markets: II. *Journal of Finance*, 46, 1575-1617.
- Fama, E.F. (1998). Market Efficiency, Long-term Returns, and Behavioral Finance. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 49, 283-306.
- Górska, A., Krawiec, M. (2013). The Analysis of Weak-form Efficiency in the Market of Precious Metals. *Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego: Finanse, Rynki Finansowe, Ubezpieczenia*, 768 (63), 143-156 (in Polish).
- Górska, A., Krawiec, M. (2015). Calendar Effects in the Market of Crude Oil. *Scientific Journal of Warsaw University of Life Sciences – SGGW: Problems of World Agriculture* 2015, 15 (30), 4, 62-70.
- Guidi, F., Gupta, R., Maheshwari, R. (2011). Weak-form Market Efficiency and Calendar Anomalies for Eastern Europe Equity Markets. *Journal of Emerging Market Finance*, 10(3), 337-389.
- Haugen, R.A. (1996). *Modern investment theory*. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Khrapko, V. (2013). Testing the Weak-form Efficiency Hypothesis in the Ukrainian Stock Market Versus Those of the USA, Russia, and Poland. *Ekonomika*, 92(2), 108-121.
- Lo, A.W., MacKinlay, A.C. (1988). Stock Market Prices Do Not Follow Random Walk: Evidence From a Simple Specification Test. *Review of Financial Studies*, 1, 41-66.
- Lo, A., MacKinlay, A.C. (1989). The Size and Power of the Variance Ratio Test in Finite Samples: a Monte Carlo Investigation. *Journal of Econometrics*, 40, 203-238.
- Lo, A., MacKinlay, A.C. (1998). Stock Market Prices Do Not Follow Random Walks: Evidence From a Simple Specification Tests. *Review of Financial Studies*, 1(1), 41-66.
- Mills, T. (1999). *The Econometric Modelling of Financial Time Series*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nisar, S., Hanif, M. (2012). Testing Weak-form of Efficient Market Hypothesis: Empirical Evidence from South Asia. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 17(4), 414-427.
- Ntim, C.G., English, J., Nwachukwu, J., Wang, Y. (2015). On the Efficiency of the Global Gold Markets. *International Review of Financial Analysis*, 41, 218-236.
- Popescu, M.F. (2016). The Volatility of Oil Prices on Stock Exchanges in the Context of Recent Events. *Studies in Business and Economics* 11(1), 112-123.
- Samuelson, P. (1965). Proof that Properly Anticipated Prices Fluctuate Randomly, *Industrial Management Review*, Spring 6, 41-49.
- Shaker, A.T.M. (2013). Testing the Weak-form Efficiency of the Finnish and Swedish Stock Markets. *European Journal of Business and Social Sciences*, 2(9), 176-185.
- Smith, G. (2002) Tests of the Random Walk Hypothesis for London Gold Prices. *Applied Economic Letters*, 9 (10), 671-674.
- Taylor, S. J. (1986). *Modeling Financial Time Series*. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.

Commodities Versus Stocks: Analysis of Their Performance from 2009 Through 2015

Monika Krawiec

Warsaw University of Life Sciences, Department of Econometrics and Statistics

Abstract

Although over the last several years one could have witnessed unprecedented interest in commodity investments, the view of commodities from an investor's perspective is of more recent date (with the exception of precious metals). There are several reasons for investing in commodities. First of all, they let investors gain equity-like or higher returns. Then, they can help to mitigate risk and improve portfolio diversification. They can also provide a possible hedge against unanticipated inflation. The growing popularity of commodity investing has been followed by a great number of new investment vehicles that make commodity investments available to a wider audience. Thus, investors based on their risk-return criteria and individual requirements may select from a broad range of commodity-linked financial instruments. One of possibilities is investing through a commodity index. This approach is especially attractive to investors that are familiar with investing in stock indexes. In theory, commodity indexes share a similar goal: to create a broad indicator of commodity price movements, though in practice portfolio weightings, construction, and calculation methodology vary significantly from one index to another. The most important of commodity indexes are: the Thomson Reuters/Core Commodity CRB Index, the S&P Goldman Sachs Commodity Index, the Bloomberg Commodity Index (former Dow-Jones AIG Commodity Index), and the Deutsche Bank Liquid Commodity Index. The present paper is aimed at assessing return and risk characteristics of these indexes and at providing a comparative analysis of their performance in relation to the most important equity indexes, such as S&P500, FTSE100, CAC40, DAX, WIG, BUX, IBovespa, Nikkei, Shanghai Composite (SSE), TSE300 (current S&P/TSX Composite Index), and AOI (All Ords). The empirical data covers daily quotations from January 5, 2009 to December 30, 2015. To verify whether the commodity indexes returns differ significantly from the returns of equity indexes, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test is applied. The test has been chosen as returns of commodity indexes are not normally distributed.

Keywords: commodities, equities, return, risk, Mann-Whitney test

Introduction

Although over the last several years one could have witnessed unprecedented interest in commodity investments, the view of commodities from an investor's perspective is of more recent date, with the exception of precious metals which have traditionally been viewed as a store of wealth (Rouwenhorst 2012). There are several reasons for investing in commodities. First of all, academic studies demonstrate long-term viability of commodities as an asset class that produces similar returns to equities with less historical volatility and negative skewness (Gorton and Rouwenhorst 2004, Akey 2005, Proelss and Schweizer 2008, Chevalier and Ielpo 2013). Other research illustrates that commodity returns have been non-correlated to financial assets like stocks and bonds, and that commodities demonstrate inflation hedging properties favorable to stocks and bonds (Greer 2000, Busken 2004, Kat and Oomen 2007, Fabozzi, Füss and Kaiser 2008, Koutsoftas, Ross and Fila 2010). Some studies also find that adding commodities to a traditional stock and bonds portfolio can enhance returns and decrease volatility (Bodie and Rozansky 1980, Anson 2008, You and Daigler 2012, Bessler and Wolff 2015).

The growing popularity of commodity investing has been followed by a great number of new investment vehicles that make commodity investments available to a wider audience. Thus, investors based on their risk-return criteria and individual requirements may select from a broad range of commodity-linked financial instruments. Generally, methods of investing in commodities are divided into direct investments, such as direct purchase of commodities in the cash market or forward contracts, and into indirect investments, e.g. futures contracts and options on futures, commodity-based equities, mutual funds, exchange-traded funds (ETFs), investable commodity indexes (Geman 2007, Schofield 2007, Engelke and Yuen 2008). According to Ackworth (2005), investing through a commodity index is especially attractive to institutional investors that are familiar with index investing in equities world and like the idea of "buying the market" in a single transaction. Most

of commodity indexes have publicly traded commodity futures index contracts, which can be purchased and rolled. One may also enter into an over-the-counter (OTC) swap with a counterparty to gain direct participation in these indexes. There are also mutual fund managers who offer funds tied to various indexes by investing in structured notes or swaps that receive the index total return in exchange for paying the Treasury bill component of the index plus fees (Engelke and Yuen 2008).

In theory, commodity indexes share a similar goal: to create a broad indicator of commodity price movements, though in practice portfolio weightings, construction, and calculation methodology vary significantly from one index to another. There are three primary methodologies used to construct commodity indexes, that include production weighting, optimized weighting, and equal weighting. Production weighting involves assigning weights based on a moving average of world production. A production-weighted index will have a heavier weighting in sectors that may be more important in the economy, for example crude oil. These allocations will have a disproportionate impact on the performance of the index. An optimized-weighted index includes specific constraints and objectives such as correlation with inflation, negative correlation to equities and fixed income, a focus on liquidity, and the sectors that are most relevant. Finally, an equal-weighted index keeps price fluctuations in any one sector from disproportionately impacting the index, but does not over- or underweight sectors that may be more important in the economy (Busken 2004).

A dramatic increase in the number of indexes being published worldwide has come along with growing investors' interest in commodity investments. These indexes are widely used as price indicators for economists and investors. However, they are also rapidly assuming the role of comparison benchmarks in portfolio management, as well as acting as underlying instruments for certain derivative structures (Füss, Hoppe and Kaiser 2008). Currently, there are several large commodity indexes offered by different providers. The most important are: the Thomson Reuters/Core Commodity CRB Index (TR/CC CRB), the S&P Goldman Sachs Commodity Index, the Bloomberg Commodity Index (former Dow-Jones AIG Commodity Index), and the Deutsche Bank Liquid Commodity Index. The present paper is aimed at assessing return and risk characteristics of these indexes and at providing a comparative analysis of their performance in comparison to the most important equity indexes, such as S&P500, FTSE100, CAC40, DAX, WIG, BUX, IBovespa, Nikkei, Shanghai Composite (SSE), TSE300 (current S&P/TSX Composite Index), and AOI (colloquially called All Ords). The paper is organized as follows. The next two sections present the data, methodology, and the results obtained. Finally, the last section provides a brief discussion and conclusions.

Data and methodology

Empirical data covers daily quotes of four commodity indexes and eleven equity indexes representing European, American, Asian and Australian stock markets from January 5, 2009 to December 30, 2015. The commodity indexes under consideration are the following:

- the Thomson Reuters/Core Commodity CRB Index,
- the S&P Goldman Sachs Commodity Index,
- the Bloomberg Commodity Index (former Dow-Jones AIG Commodity Index),
- and the Deutsche Bank Liquid Commodity Index.

The CRB Index is the oldest of the indexes. It was first calculated by the CRB in 1957 and made its inaugural in the 1958 CRB Commodity Year Book. The index, originally composed of 28 commodities, currently is made up of 19 commodities: aluminum, cocoa, coffee, copper, corn, cotton, crude oil, gold, heating oil, lean hogs, live cattle, natural gas, nickel, orange juice, silver, soybeans, sugar, unleaded gas, wheat. The tenth revision of the index renamed it the Tomson Reuters/Core Commodity CRB Index (TR/CC CRB). The index was originally designed to provide dynamic representation of broad trends in overall commodity prices, hence the periodic adjustments in order to reflect changes in market structure and activity.

The Goldman Sachs Commodity Index was created in 1991. It is a world-production-weighted index that is based on the average quantity of production of each commodity in the index, over last five years of available data. This allows the index to be a measure of investment performance as well as serve an economic indicator. It comprises 24 commodities from all commodity sectors (energy products, industrial metals, agricultural products, livestock products and precious metals). The wide range of constituent commodities provides the index with a high level of diversification across subsectors and within

each subsector. In 2007, index ownership was transferred to Standard&Poor's, who currently own and publish it as S&P GSCI.

The Dow-Jones AIG Commodity Index, originally launched in 1998, was renamed to Dow Jones-USB Commodity Index, when UBS acquired it from AIG in 2009. On July 1, 2014 the index was rebranded under its current name – the Bloomberg Commodity Index (BCOM). It tracks prices of futures contracts on physical commodities on the commodity markets. The index is designed to minimize concentration in any one commodity or sector. It currently has 22 commodity futures in seven sectors. No one commodity can compose less than 2% or more than 15% of the index, and no sector can represent more than 33% of the index. The weightings are calculated in accordance with rules that ensure that the relative proportion of each of the underlying individual commodities reflects its global economic significance and market liquidity.

The Deutsche Bank Liquid Commodity Index is composed of only 6 commodities all of each are among the most liquid in their sectors: sweet light crude oil (WTI), heating oil, aluminum, gold, wheat, and corn. These cover the biggest commodity sectors and are held in fixed notional amounts that reflect world production and inventories in these sectors. Notional weights refer to the US dollar weights of the various assets at the inception of the index in 1988. The index value is calculated daily using the closing prices of listed instruments on each of the commodities. The DBLCI has constant weightings for each of the 6 commodities (the index is rebalanced annually to reset weights back to fixed levels), however during the course of the year the weights fluctuate according to the price movement of the underlying commodity futures.

The stock indexes under consideration represent different stock markets. The representatives of European markets are:

BUX that is a blue chip stock market index consisting of the 25 major Hungarian companies trading on the Budapest Stock Exchange. It was launched in 1991.

CAC 40, created in 1987, is a benchmark French stock market index. The index represents a capitalization-weighted measure of the 40 most significant values among the 100 highest market caps on the Euronext Paris (formerly the Paris Bourse). It is one of the main national indexes of the pan-European stock exchange group Euronext.

DAX (*Deutscher Aktienindex*) has been calculated since 1988. It is a blue chip stock market index consisting of the 30 major German companies trading on the Frankfurt Stock Exchange.

Financial Times Stock Exchange 100 Index (FTSE 100) founded in 1984 is a share index of the 100 companies listed on the London Stock Exchange with the highest market capitalization.

WIG, originally an acronym for Warszawski Indeks Gieldowy (Warsaw Stock Exchange Index) is the oldest index of the Warsaw Stock Exchange. It was introduced in April 1991. WIG lists 385 companies (as of December 18, 2015).

South and North American stock markets are represented by:

IBOVESPA which is the benchmark index of São Paulo Stock Exchange as it comprises the most representative companies in the market. It is the oldest BOVESPA index, being broadcast since 1968.

Standard & Poor's 500 (S&P 500) is an American stock market index based on the market capitalizations of 500 large companies having common stock listed on the NYSE and NASDAQ. It is one of the most commonly followed equity indexes, and many consider it one of the best representations of the U.S. stock market. It has been calculated since March 1957.

TSE 300 Index was a Canadian stock market index that tracked the prices of 300 influential stocks which were traded on the Toronto Stock Exchange. Since May 1, 2002, it has been replaced by the S&P/TSX Composite Index.

Asian stock markets indexes are:

Nikkei 225, more commonly called the *Nikkei*, is a stock market index for the Tokyo Stock Exchange. It has been calculated daily since 1950. Currently, the Nikkei is the most widely quoted average of Japanese equities.

Shanghai Composite Index (SSE) is a stock market index of all shares that are traded at the Shanghai Stock Exchange. It was established in 1991.

The last of the indexes under consideration is the All Ordinaries Index (AOI) representing Australian stock market. It was established in January 1980 and is the oldest equity index in Australia that is made up of the share prices for 500 of the largest companies listed on the Australian Securities Exchange.

Figures 1 – 3 show the performance of commodity and stock indexes in the period from January 5, 2009 to December 30, 2015. In this period, the quotes of the Thomson Reuters/Core Commodity CRB Index ranged from the minimum of 170.7 (on December 17, 2015) to the maximum of 370.56 (on April 29, 2011). The DBLCl minimum (192.99) was observed on December 30, 2015, whereas its maximum (494.78) was recorded on April 29, 2011. Extreme levels of the Bloomberg Commodity Index were the following: minimum of 378.33 (observed on March 2, 2009) and maximum of 879.48 (on April 25, 2011). The levels of the S&P Goldman Sachs Commodity Index ranged between 305.01 on December 22, 2015 and 760.33 on April 8, 2001. Thus, three out of four commodity indexes reached their lows in December 2015 and all of them reached their highs in April 2011.

The European stock indexes exhibit the following extrema:

BUX: 9461.30 on March 12, 2009 and 25322.96 on April 6, 2010;

CAC40: 2519.29 (March 9, 2009) and 5268.91 (April 27, 2015);

DAX: 3666.41 (March 6, 2009) and 12374.73 (April 10, 2015);

FTSE100: 3512.09 (March 3, 2009) and 7103.98 (April 27, 2015);

WIG: 21274.28 (February 17, 2009) and 57379.45 (May 8, 2015).

Thus, the majority of European indexes reached minimal levels in March 2009, whereas their maximal levels were observed in April 2015.

Other stock indexes exhibited similar performance. Their minima were recorded in March 2009 and their maxima in April 2015. The details are the following:

AOI: 3111.70 on March 6, 2009 and 5954.80 on April 27, 2015;

IBovespa: 36234.69 on March 2, 2009 and 72995.69 on November 4, 2010;

Nikkei: 7054.98 on March 10, 2009 and 20868.03 on June 24, 2015;

Shanghai Composite: 1863,37 on January 13, 2009 and 5166,35 on June 12, 2015,

S&P500: 676.53 on March 9, 2009 and 2130.82 on May 21, 2015;

TSE300: 7566.94 on March 9, 2009 and 15657.63 on September 3, 2014.

In general, most of equity indexes reached their maxima in mid-2015, when commodity indexes exhibiting their counter-cyclic nature, fell down.

The first step to assess return and risk characteristics of the indexes is to estimate their logarithmic returns:

$$r_t = p_t - p_{t-1}, \quad (1)$$

where p_t is the logarithm of the index level at time t and p_{t-1} is the logarithm of the index level in the previous period.

Then, there are calculated descriptive characteristics.

1. Mean return is an indicator for the location of the return distribution. It is:

$$\bar{r} = \frac{r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n}{n} . \quad (2)$$

2. Standard deviation:

$$\sigma = \left(\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (r_i - \bar{r})^2 \right)^{0,5} . \quad (3)$$

The standard deviation indicates the dispersion of the return distribution. It accounts for both the positive and negative deviations from the average value and is thus a measure for the total risk of an investment.

3. Semideviation:

$$\sigma_s = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2}{n-1} \right)^{0,5} , \quad (4)$$

where:

$$d_i = \begin{cases} r_i - \bar{r} & \text{if } r_i - \bar{r} < 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } r_i - \bar{r} \geq 0 \end{cases} . \quad (5)$$

The semideviation is a downside risk measure as it accounts only for negative deviations from the average, so it is believed to better reflect the real expectations of investors.

4. Skewness:

$$S = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (r_i - \bar{r})^3}{\sigma^3} . \quad (6)$$

The skewness describes the asymmetry of a probability distribution. If the distribution has a longer tail on the right (left) side then the distribution is referred to as positively (negatively) skewed. The skewness of a symmetrical probability distribution is equal to zero.

5. Kurtosis:

$$K = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (r_i - \bar{r})^4}{\sigma^4} . \quad (7)$$

Kurtosis describes whether a probability distribution is more acute or wider in comparison to normal distribution, which has kurtosis of three. If the probability is more acute (wider) and has more (less) returns at tails than a normal distribution, then the distribution is referred to as leptocurtic (platycurtic). Having thick distribution ends ("fat tails") is referred to as having positive excess kurtosis; having thinner tails when compared to the normal distribution indicates negative excess kurtosis. According to Shore (2008) it would be ideal for an investment to have positive skewness coupled with high kurtosis so that it has a greater potential for positive extreme returns than negative extreme returns.

In order to assess linear dependence between commodity and equity indexes returns, Pearson correlation measure is considered. The Pearson correlation coefficient k_{XY} of indexes X and Y is:

$$k_{XY} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (r_{Xi} - \bar{r}_X)(r_{Yi} - \bar{r}_Y)}{(n-1)S_X S_Y} . \quad (8)$$

Its value ranges between $<-1, 1>$. The higher the value of its modulus, the stronger the linear dependence between the investigated time-series.

For the purpose of analysis, there is also tested normality of distribution of time series under consideration. The normal distribution can be statistically verified using respective Jarque-Bera test.

The null hypothesis:

H_0 : the returns follow a normal distribution

is tested against the alternative hypothesis

H_1 : the returns do not follow a normal distribution.

The test statistic JB is:

$$JB = \frac{n}{6} \left[S^2 + \frac{1}{4} (K-3)^2 \right] . \quad (9)$$

The statistic follows an asymptotic chi-squared distribution with two degrees of freedom. The hypothesis of normality is rejected at the 5% level if the JB test statistic is greater than 5.99.

The next step of the research uses the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test to verify whether the calculated commodity indexes returns differ significantly from equity indexes returns. The decision to use this nonparametric test is justified by the fact that returns of commodity indexes are generally not normally distributed (Füss, Hoppe and Kaiser 2008). This test, based on ranks, is the most useful in testing equality of means in two populations and is recommended when assumption of distribution normality is not fulfilled as the only assumption demanded is that all observations from both groups are independent to each other and were selected in the random way (Aczel 2000). First, one should arrange all observations into a single ranked series. If there are any equal values, they receive arithmetic averages of their ranks. Then one should add up the ranks for the observations coming from sample 1. The sum of ranks is denoted by R_1 . The test statistic U is given by:

$$U = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_1(n_1+1)}{2} - R_1 , \quad (10)$$

where n_1 is the sample size for sample 1, and n_2 is the sample size for sample 2.

For large samples, when both n_1 and n_2 are larger than 10, U is approximately normally distributed. In that case, the standardized value Z is given by:

$$Z = \frac{U - \mu_U}{\sigma_U} , \quad (11)$$

where μ_U and σ_U are the mean and standard deviation of U given by:

$$\mu_U = \frac{n_1 n_2}{2}, \quad (12)$$

and

$$\sigma_U = \sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_2 (n_1 + n_2 + 1)}{12}}. \quad (13)$$

It is worth noticing these calculations are not based on values of separate characteristics. They are based on sample sizes (Mynarski 2006).

Results

On the base of 1804 observations for each of the considered indexes, there were calculated their logarithmic returns that are used to evaluate descriptive statistics given in table 1. These are: minimal and maximal observed values, expected rate of return (mean), standard deviation, semideviation, skewness, kurtosis and Jarque-Bera statistics. Almost all commodity indexes are characterized by negative mean returns. The only exception is Bloomberg Commodity Index (BCOM). Its mean return is greater than this of IBovespa which is the stock index that produced the lowest positive return. The highest positive expected rate of return is that of S&P500. In general, equity indexes exhibit positive mean returns. Taken into account both standard and semideviation, the Shanghai Composite (SSE) is the riskiest one among investigated indexes, whereas the least risky is the AOI. All commodity and equity indexes are described by negative skewness, so there is a higher probability of high negative daily returns when compared to the normal distribution. Moreover, kurtosis is higher than 3 for six out of eleven equity indexes whose distributions are leptokurtic, then. These indexes are: BUX, Nikkei, Shanghai Composite, S&P 500, TSE300, and WIG. Negative skewness and positive excess kurtosis are distribution properties, which investors do not appreciate, because they imply more overall large returns (positive and negative) compared to the normal distribution. The larger negative returns are generally not compensated for by larger positive returns. Distributions of other equity indexes and all commodity indexes are platycurtic. The risk-averse investors prefer negative excess kurtosis or in comparison to normal distribution lower probability of extreme values. The Jarque-Bera test statistic (JB) of normality confirms the rejection of null hypothesis at 5% level of significance for all commodity and stock indexes.

To investigate linear dependencies between commodity and equity indexes returns, Pearson correlation coefficients are calculated. Their values are reported in table 2. In general, all indexes are characterized by positive linear correlation (the weakest dependencies are between the commodity indexes and the AOI, the strongest between commodity indexes and the TSE300).

In order to assess profitability of commodity investments in relation to stock investments, the Mann-Whitney test was used to verify the hypothesis:

H_0 : mean values of logarithmic returns series of X index and Y index are equal

against

H_1 : mean values of logarithmic returns series of X index and Y index differ significantly.

At the significance level 0.05, critical value of standardized normal distribution equals $\pm 1,96$, so critical areas for hypothesis formulated above are the following: $(-\infty, -1,96)$ and $(1,96, +\infty)$. Results of verification (Z statistics), presented in table 3, let us generally conclude that in the considered period mean returns on separate commodity and equity indexes did not differ significantly as in most cases the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. However, there are some exceptions. These are: DAX with TR/CC CRB and with DBLCl, Nikkei with TR/CC CRB and with DBLCl, Shanghai Composite with TR/CC CRB and with DBLCl, S&P500 with TR/CC CRB and BCOM, and TSE300 with TR/CC CRB and with DBLCl. Thus the TR/CC CRB and the DBLCl were the only commodity indexes whose mean returns were significantly different from mean returns of equity indexes.

Apart from the expected rate of return (mean), another basic characteristic of every investment is its level of risk. In the case of commodity investments, it is often believed that their returns are less volatile and thus less risky. In order to verify the hypothesis with regard to indirect commodity investments through commodity indexes, there were calculated absolute values of returns deviations from the mean. Then, the Whitney-Mann test was applied again, but this time observations were ordered in the descendent way (higher absolute deviations received lower rank numbers).

The following hypothesis was verified:

H₀: deviations of X index rates of return from the mean are identical as deviations of Y index rates of return

against

H₁: deviations of X index rates of return from the mean differ significantly from deviations of Y index rates of return.

Results of testing (Z statistics) are reported in table 4. In most cases they indicate rejection of the null hypothesis implying that deviations of separate commodity indexes rates of return from their means differed significantly from the deviations of equity indexes rates of return from their means. More detailed analysis leads to the conclusion that in some cases deviations from means exhibited by stock indexes were higher than those of their commodity counterparties (as for IBovespa, BUX, CAC40, Nikkei, Shanghai Composite.) In other cases they exhibited lower deviations from their means (as for AOI, FSE100, S&P500, TSE300, WIG). The evidence for DAX is not clear as it exhibits lower deviations when compared to TR/CC CRB and higher when compared to BCOM. Thus it is legitimate to conclude that indirect investing in commodities through commodity indexes may be attractive to risk-averse investors due to the lower risk in comparison to investments on Brazilian, Hungarian, French, Japanese and Chinese stock markets. On the contrary, investments on Australian, British, North American and Polish stock markets appear to be less risky in comparison to investments through commodity indexes. Nevertheless, one should be cautious about the conclusions formulated on the base of Mann-Whitney test as commodity and stock indexes returns reveal positive correlation. Thus empirical data used for the purpose of testing may differ from the typical pattern for two simple independent samples extracted from two different populations.

Concluding remarks

In recent years, alternative investments have gained widespread acceptance due to their attractive risk-return characteristics and their low correlations to traditional asset classes, such as stocks and bonds. This paper is focused on commodity indexes and investigates the performance of selected commodity and stock indexes over the 2009 to 2015 period. These indexes are: the Thomson Reuters/Core Commodity CRB Index, the S&P Goldman Sachs Commodity Index, the Bloomberg Commodity Index (former Dow-Jones AIG Commodity Index), the Deutsche Bank Liquid Commodity Index, S&P500, FTSE100, CAC40, DAX, WIG, BUX, IBovespa, Nikkei, Shanghai Composite (SSE), TSE300 (current S&P/TSX Composite Index), and AOI (All Ords). On the base of their logarithmic returns there were calculated descriptive characteristics, such as mean return, standard deviation and semideviation, kurtosis, skewness and correlation. Then the normality of distribution of investigated time-series was tested. In all cases one should reject the hypothesis of distribution normality. Thus in the next step of the research the Mann-Whitney test was used to verify the hypotheses of equality of means and deviations from mean of logarithmic returns of analyzed indexes.

The research revealed that in the considered period majority of stock indexes generated returns no different from the commodity indexes. In some cases stock indexes returns were more volatile and in some other less volatile in comparison to commodity indexes. Nevertheless, one could draw the general conclusion that investments through commodity indexes did not seem much more attractive in comparison to the stock markets. It corresponds with Gilbert's opinion that commodity investments are generally justified more in terms of their contribution to overall portfolio returns than as attractive stand alone investment (Gilbert 2008). Author's earlier research (Krawiec 2011) investigating indirect commodity investments through commodity-based equities listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange from December 2008 through March 2011 and commodity mutual funds led to the similar conclusion. However it is worth to remember that the current study presented here covers a specific period as in 2015 most commodities fell significantly and commodity indexes suffered losses as well. That is why commodity investments were hit hard and resulting from that equities outperformed commodities. It was Faber who in 2004 cautioned that commodity markets could reach all time highs and subsequently new lows within a brief period of time, and that investors should have been prepared to occasional 50% declines in the prices of commodities (Faber 2004). Moreover, Jodie Gunzberg, global head of commodities at S&P Dow Jones Indices, interviewed by Rajesh Bhayani

in March 2016, observed that 2015 would go down in history as one of the worst years ever for commodities. Nevertheless, she expected 2016 to bring good news for the market (www.business-standard.com).

References

- Ackworth, W. (2005). Going Long on Commodities. *Futures Industry Magazine*, May-June. <https://fimag.fia.org>.
- Aczel, A. D. (2000). *Statistics in Management*, Warsaw: WN PWN (in Polish).
- Akey, R.P. (2005). Commodities: A Case for Active Management, www.dnb.co.in
- Anson, M.J.P. (2008). The Pricing and Economics of Commodity Futures. *The Handbook of Commodity Investing*, Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons, 38-55.
- Bessler, W., Wolff, D. (2015). Do Commodities Add Value in Multi-asset Portfolios? An Out-of-sample Analysis for Different Investment Strategies. *Journal of Banking and Finance*, 60, 1-20.
- Bodie Z., Rozansky V. (1980). Risk and Return in Commodity Futures. *Financial Analyst Journal*, 36, 27-39.
- Busken, Ch. (2004). Investing in Commodities. Fund Evaluation Group, Fall, www.feg.com.
- Chevalier, J., Ielpo, F. (2013). *The Economic of Commodity Markets*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons.
- Engelke, L., Yuen J.C. (2008). Types of Commodity Investments. *The Handbook of Commodity Investing*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons, 549-569.
- Faber, M. (2004). Booming Commodity Prices, but ..., www.safehaven.com.
- Fabozzi, J., Füss, R., Kaiser D.G. (2008). A Primer on Commodity Investing. *The Handbook of Commodity Investing*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons, 3-37.
- Füss, R., Hoppe Ch., Kaiser, D.G. (2008). Review of Commodity Futures Performance Benchmarks. *The Handbook of Commodity Investing*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons, 169-202.
- Geman, H. (2007). *Commodities and Commodity Derivatives*, Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons.
- Gilbert, Ch.L., (2008). Commodity Speculation and Commodity Investment. *Discussion Paper No. 20*, Università degli Studi di Trento, Dipartimento di Economia, www.unitn.it
- Gorton, G., Rouwenhorst, K.G. (2004). Facts and Fantasies About Commodity Futures. *Financial Analyst Journal*, 62, 47-68.
- Greer, R.J. (2000). The Nature of Commodity Index Returns. *Journal of Alternative Investments*, 3 (1), 2000, 45-52.
- Kat, H.M., Oomen, R.C.A. (2007). What Every Investor Should Know About Commodities, Part I, Univariate Return Analysis. *Journal of Investment Management* 5 (1), 1-25.
- Koutsoftas, N., Ross, B., Fila, G. (2010). Commodities and the Efficient Frontier. *Canadian Investment Review*, www.investmentreview.com.
- Krawiec, M. (2011). Efficiency of Indirect Ways of Investing in Commodities in Conditions of Polish Capital Market. *Quantitative Methods in Economics*, 12 (1), 105-117.
- Mynarski, S. (2006). *Analysis of Market Data with the Use of Excel*. Cracow: Cracow Economic University Press (in Polish).
- Proelss, J., Schweizer, D. (2008). Efficient Frontier of Commodity Portfolios. *The Handbook of Commodity Investing*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons, 454-478.

Rouwenhorst, K.G. (2012). Commodity Investing. *Annual Review of Financial Economics*, 4, 447-467.

Schofield, N.C. (2007). *Commodity Derivatives*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons.

Shore, M.S. (2008). Introducing Alternative Investments in a Traditional Portfolio: the Case of Commodities, Hedge Funds, and Managed Futures. *The Handbook of Commodity Investing*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley&Sons, 504-521.

You, L., Daigler, R.T. (2012). A Markowitz Optimization of Commodity Futures. *Journal of Futures Markets*, 33 (4), 343-368.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for commodity and stock indexes

Index	Measure							
	Min	Max	Mean	Std. dev.	Semidev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	JB
AOI	-0.04300	0.03437	0.00021	0.00960	0.00699	-0.29180	1.4501	183.559*
IBovespa	-0.08430	0.05746	0.00002	0.01460	0.01032	-0.04387	1.5850	189.310*
BUX	-0.07570	0.10607	0.00035	0.01485	0.01040	0.12885	3.3226	834.333*
CAC40	-0.05635	0.09221	0.00018	0.01402	0.01005	-0.02421	2.6703	535.842*
DAX	-0.05995	0.05895	0.00043	0.01365	0.00986	-0.16146	2.0316	317.904*
FTSE100	-0.05480	0.05032	0.00018	0.01062	0.00769	-0.19895	2.6860	553.910*
Nikkei	-0.11150	0.07426	0.00041	0.01374	0.01011	-0.52206	4.3665	1514.240*
SSE	-0.08873	0.06369	0.00035	0.01510	0.01127	-0.70799	4.7441	1841.440*
S&P500	-0.06896	0.06837	0.00044	0.01106	0.00806	-0.21429	4.4919	1529.580*
TSE300	-0.05511	0.05179	0.00019	0.00967	0.00716	-0.39523	3.1035	770.539*
WIG	-0.06881	0.05799	0.00027	0.01146	0.00835	-0.37869	4.2512	1400.800*
TR/CC CRB	-0.05697	0.05785	-0.00020	0.01058	0.00766	-0.24681	2.9802	686.526*
DBLCI	-0.06021	0.05610	-0.00034	0.01232	0.00884	-0.14115	2.0049	307.943*
BCOM	-0.04912	0.05243	0.00003	0.01023	0.00734	-0.14875	2.1743	361.817*
S&P GSCI	-0.07088	0.05959	-0.00010	0.01331	0.00959	-0.18288	2.6860	552.050*

Source: own calculations

Note: * Indicates rejection of the null hypothesis at 5%.

Table 2. Coefficients of correlation between selected commodity and stock indexes

Index	TR/CC CRB	DBLCI	BCOM	S&P GSCI
AOI	0.190	0.149	0.194	0.172
IBovespa	0.446	0.421	0.441	0.436
BUX	0.322	0.298	0.355	0.326
CAC40	0.441	0.407	0.473	0.434
DAX	0.427	0.393	0.459	0.419
FTSE100	0.467	0.443	0.505	0.470
Nikkei	0.146	0.094	0.126	0.112
SSE	0.183	0.151	0.203	0.150
S&P500	0.474	0.466	0.475	0.485
TSE300	0.556	0.550	0.567	0.564
WIG	0.400	0.374	0.437	0.393

Source: own calculations

Table 3. Man-Whitney test results fo commodity and stock indexes mean returns

Pair	Z	Pair	Z	Pair	Z	Pair	Z
AOI-TR/CC CRB	-1.447	BUX-S&P GSCI	-0.623	FTSE100-BCOM	-0.850	S&P500-DBLCI	-2.618*
AOI-DBLCI	-1.748	CAC40-TR/CC CRB	-1.366	FTSE100-S&P GSCI	-0.793	S&P500-BCOM	-2.028*
AOI- BCOM	-0.905	CAC40-DBLCI	-1.625	Nikkei-TR/CC CRB	-2.197*	S&P500-S&P GSCI	-1.744
AOI-S&P GSCI	-0.878	CAC40-BCOM	-0.901	Nikkei-DBLCI	-2.391*	TSE300-TR/CC	-1.823

						CRB	
IBovespa-TR/CC CRB	-0.154	CAC40-S&P GSCI	-0.870	Nikkei-BCOM	-1.723	TSE300-DBLCI	-2.021*
IBovespa-DBLCI	-0.547	DAX-TR/CC CRB	-2.159*	Nikkei-S&P GSCI	-1.651	TSE300-BCOM	-1.319
IBovespa-BCOM	-0.330	DAX-DBLCI	-2.333*	SSE-TR/CC CRB	-2.039*	TSE300-S&P GSCI	-1.119
IBovespa-S&P GSCI	-0.123	DAX-BCOM	-1.694	SSE-DBLCI	-2.318*	WIG-TR/CC CRB	-1.595
BUX-TR/CC CRB	-0.996	DAX-S&P GSCI	-1.561	SSE-BCOM	-1.612	WIG-DBLCI	-1.878
BUX-DBLCI	-1.312	FTSE100-TR/CC CRB	-1.348	SSE-S&P GSCI	-1.518	WIG-BCOM	-1.091
BUX-BCOM	-0.506	FTSE100-DBLCI	-1.646	S&P500-TR/CC CRB	-2.482*	WIG-S&P GSCI	-1.043

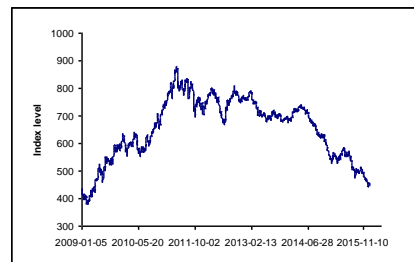
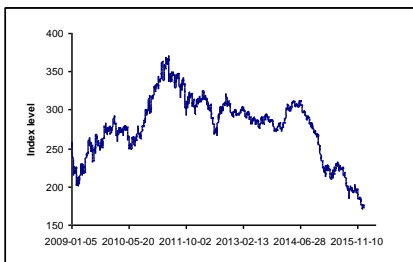
Source: own calculations Note: * Indicates rejection of the null hypothesis at 5%.

Table 4 Man-Whitney test results for deviations from mean return on commodity and stock indexes

Pair	Z	Pair	Z	Pair	Z	Pair	Z
AOI-TR/CC CRB	-1.518	BUX-S&P GSCI	-3.012*	FTSE100-BCOM	-0.090	S&P500-DBLCI	-7.425*
AOI-DBLCI	-6.721*	CAC40-TR/CC CRB	-7.645*	FTSE100-S&P GSCI	-6.591*	S&P500-BCOM	-2.168*
AOI-BCOM	-1.169	CAC40-DBLCI	-2.619*	Nikkei-TR/CC CRB	-8.038*	S&P500-S&P GSCI	-8.404*
AOI-S&P GSCI	-7.734*	CAC40-BCOM	-8.024*	Nikkei-DBLCI	-2.989*	TSE300-TR/CC CRB	-4.171*
IBovespa-TR/CC CRB	-9.091*	CAC40-S&P GSCI	-1.523	Nikkei-BCOM	-8.429*	TSE300-DBLCI	-9.228*
IBovespa-DBLCI	-4.109*	DAX-TR/CC CRB	-50.114*	Nikkei-S&P GSCI	-1.834	TSE300-BCOM	-3.846*
IBovespa-BCOM	-9.521*	DAX-DBLCI	-1.219	SSE-TR/CC CRB	-5.356*	TSE300-S&P GSCI	-10.156*
IBovespa-S&P GSCI	-3.012*	DAX-BCOM	-6.560*	SSE-DBLCI	-0.562	WIG-TR/CC CRB	-0.330
BUX-TR/CC CRB	-9.091*	DAX-S&P GSCI	-0.113	SSE-BCOM	-5.644*	WIG-DBLCI	-4.812*
BUX-DBLCI	-4.109*	FTSE100-TR/CC CRB	-0.463	SSE-S&P GSCI	0.524	WIG-BCOM	-0.727
BUX-BCOM	-9.521*	FTSE100-DBLCI	-5.625*	S&P500-TR/CC CRB	-2.485*	WIG-S&P GSCI	-5.790*

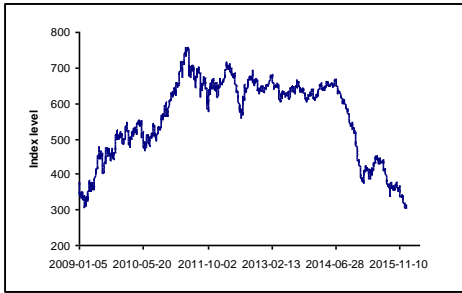
Source: own calculations Note: * Indicates rejection of the null hypothesis at 5%.

Figure 1. Commodity indexes from January 5, 2009 to December 30, 2015: the Reuters/ Core Commodity CRB Index (a), Bloomberg Commodity Index (b), S&P Goldman Sachs Commodity Index (c), Deutsche Bank Liquid Commodity Index (d).

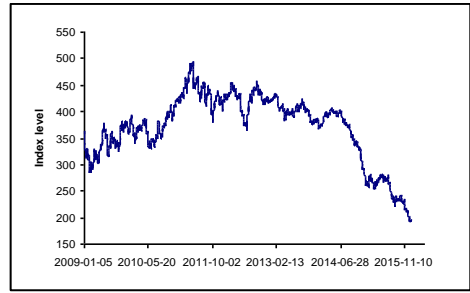


(a)

(b)



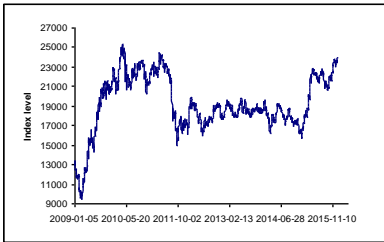
(c)



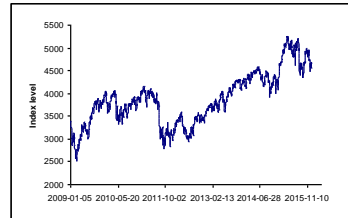
(d)

Source: Own elaboration

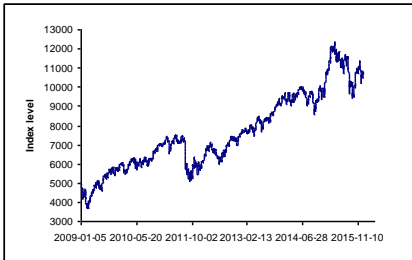
Figure 2. European stock indexes from January 5, 2009 to December 30, 2015: BUX (a), CAC40 (b), DAX (c), FTSE100 (d), WIG (e)



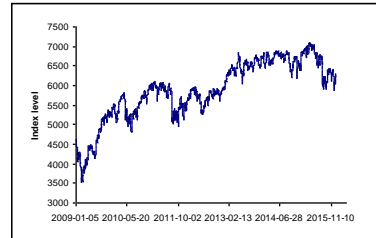
(a)



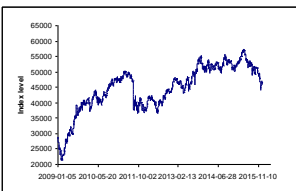
(b)



(c)



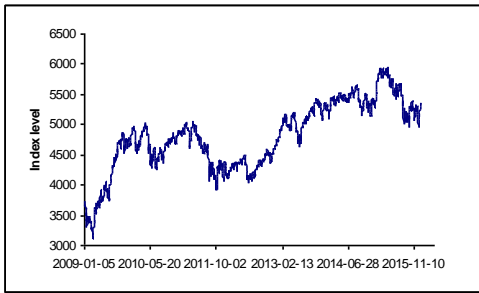
(d)



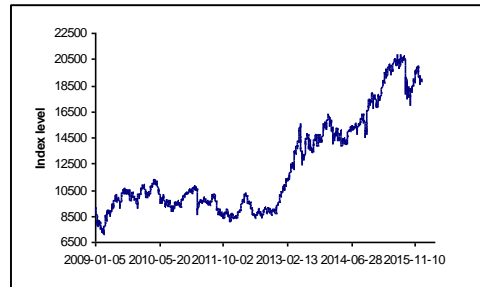
(e)

Source: Own elaboration

Figure 3. Australian, Asian and American stock indexes from January 5, 2009 to December 30, 2015: AOI (a), Nikkei (b), SSE (c), IBovespa (d), S&P500 (e), TSE300 (f)



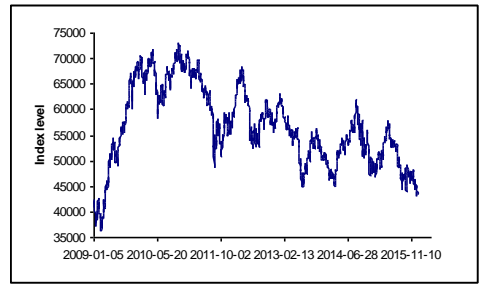
(a)



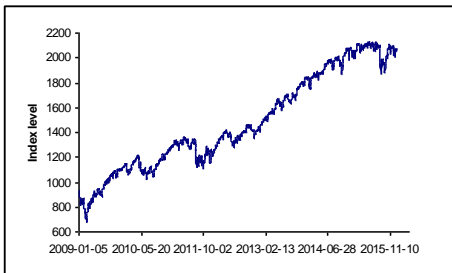
(b)



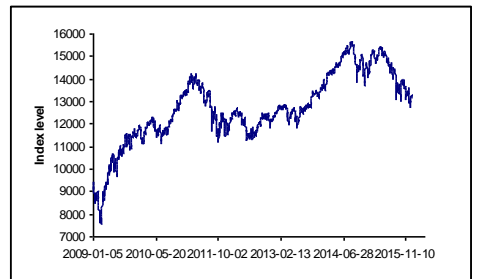
(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

Source: own elaboration

The Position of Traditional Anatolian Jewellery in the Jewellery Sector and Production Problems

Dr. Birnaz ER

Asist. Prof. Dumlupinar University Kutahya –Turkey.

Abstract

Traditional jewelry is a symbol of Anatolian culture. Anatolia has a rich identity in respect to handicrafts and nearly all of Anatolia districts have its own identical handicrafts. Jewelry is among this handicrafts that is produced only in special area and symbolizes its own region. Unfortunately, technological achievements adversely effects the traditional jewelry production such as, reducing the demands of them and decreased interest. The jewelry industry prefers the mass production techniques and this leads to destruction of traditional jewelry preferences. Nowadays, traditional jewelry is about to be destroyed. In this research, the position of traditional Anatolian jewelry in the jewelry sector will be investigated. In this context, firstly the Anatolian's traditional jewelry will be introduced then, the position of traditional jewelry will be researched and the results will be explained, and suggestions for solutions will be presented.

Keywords: Jewelry, tradition, handicrafts.

Introduction

Traditional jewelry culture dates from ancient times to the present and it has accomplished different missions in every period. Some phenomena such as religion and adornment have been the main factors that shaped jewelry culture. Throughout its history, jewelry, produced from precious stones and metals, has served some functions such as protection from evil eyes, witching, or natural catastrophes, and has been the symbol of religion, wealth, and power.

During the nomadic life, human beings explored the environment where they settled and tried to be dominant in order to live in safety. Therefore, they made bracelets and necklaces which were made of natural stones, mines, and of the bones, teeth, and nails of animals which they hunted for food and profit. They shaped these materials through rubbing, scraping and eroding of the shells of sea creatures and strung up these beads to the ropes, made from vegetable fibers in order to make bracelets and necklaces.

Considering the common adornment culture of a society, some knowledge could be obtained from their technological, economical level and religious and aesthetic values of that society. When the jewelry, obtained from the archeological excavations, has been examined, they light on our present by informing us about the cultural, economic, technological levels of the civilizations to which they belong.

During the Neolithic age, human beings began to get more settled; thus, agriculture and animal husbandry became their main source of living and they were capable of producing proper tools according to their needs. So, they could attain the opportunity to shape and polish the natural beads and animal bones to design their own jewelry. Through the archeological excavations held in Cayonu, near Diyarbakir and Catalhoyuk, near Konya, some necklaces and bracelets made from stones, teeth and shells were engraved.

During this period, it is predicted that jewelry was used obligatorily because of the natural conditions. However, it was also used for the purposes of decoration and adornment, of which a mirror made of the volcanic glass found during the Catalhoyuk excavation is the best evidence.

During the Neolithic age, which covers a very long period of time, human beings began to shape metals such as copper and lead for making jewelry as well as the natural materials which they gathered from their environment. From the early years of 4000 BC., some metals such as gold and silver were used in jewelry and some vibrant colored ornamental stones such as agate and chalcedony were used in making jewelry design.

In the early years of Bronze Age, a major development occurred in Anatolian mining with the discovery of bronze which is an alloy of copper and tin. In a short period of time, bronze was used in jewelry making and in daily life. Parallel to the development of this metal art, some other developments were observed in the production of ornamental beads. Necklaces, which were decorated with the beads of gold and stones alternatively, reflect the aesthetics of the age. (MEGEP,2006).

In this period, it is obvious that rich ornaments, belonging to the Sumerian Culture engraved from the King UR's tomb, proved the fact that some jewelry techniques, including filigree, emboss and granulation were used. Together with these important works of jewelry techniques, some other jewelry forms were reached to Anatolia through commercial communications and migration path. During the first Bronze Age, rich source of jewelry in Anatolia were identified from the samples engraved from King Tombs in Troy at Alacahöyük. These obtained jewelries reflect the pleasure and advanced goldsmith of that period. It is also possible to find similar delicacy at the works of the bull and deer figures, which carried the signs of casting techniques, obtained from Alacahöyük excavations. Jewelry, belong to this period, was made of gold, silver, and electron. Casting technique, wire braiding, twisting, open work, stamping and relief techniques were applied on the chains, bracelets, precious stones and decorated needles, hairpins, and crowns. From this period on, diadems which were made in the form of flower and leaf, made of thin plates of gold, and usually decorated with printing techniques and oval gold plates, which were perched on the mouth and eye sockets, were found in the archeological excavations in Anatolia and different regions of Thrace (MEGEP,2006).

Due to Anatolia being on the road of silk and spice, cultural influence has become inevitable alongside the commercial relations. Anatolian jewelers compared and blended their own jewelry making methods and techniques with different jewelry making techniques, belonged to the different society and civilizations, and provided jewelry art come to a different point.

Hittites, arrived to Anatolia via Caucasus, first processed copper and then by using fire they enabled the development of forging and casting techniques by melting and shaping copper. Hittites settled in a very rich area of raw material, found in Anatolia and produced different types of jewelry products such as hair ornaments, earrings, brooches, necklaces, bracelets, rings, chest ornaments, neck bands, pendants, amulets, and bangles.

Established after the collapse of Hittite Empire, the Phrygians was one of the civilizations that inevitably carried the influence of Hittites civilization in their metal works. The most striking jewels of this civilization were fibulas. It has been clear in the excavations that animal headed bracelets and belts, belonged to the Phrygians, which were made with granulation technique reflected transition to a more advanced point in mineral processing.

The Lydians, located in the region of western Anatolia, were in close relations with the Greek and Persian culture. During the period, when the Persians conquered Lydia, they nearly got the possession of whole Anatolia. During this period, – Lampsakos (Lapseki) and Sardes – two important cities engaged in the production of jewelry came under the rule of the Persians. Geometric shapes such as triangular and diamonds, used in the jewelry of this period were considered to be linked with the religious beliefs of the Persians. In the period of Hellenic civilization, women wore jewelry most. During this period, large, flashy forms, subtle designs and semi-precious stones, glass imitation stones were begin to be used. (Antik Dekor, 2011). (Şentürk, 2007)

Brought into light by the Lydians from the excavations of the kings' tombs, the '*Treasures of Croesus*' includes a myriad of pots and pans, examples of jewelry, religious items, which were made of gold, silver, bronze and semi-precious stones and it has been displayed in Uşak Museum (MEGEP,2002).

When the Persians conquered Lydia in 547 BC., almost the whole Anatolia came under the rule of Persians. Lampsakos (Lapseki) and Sardes, as being two important cities engaged in the production of jewelry, remained significant jewelry centers for two years. During the period, when Anatolia acquainted with the Eastern art and drawing, the handling of precious and semi-precious stones increased. It was believed that each stone had a particular influence as well as they carried beautiful and striking designs and forms (MEGEP, 2002).

Along with the advancement in the art of jewelry techniques of natural stones, Anatolian Hellenic civilization also produced jewelry which reflected the influence of other civilizations as well as the diversity and innovation of its own era.

Human and animal headed earrings mostly carry the figures of a lion's head, lynx, calf, panther, deer, bird and heads of Eros and women. Also, bracelets, breast ornaments, pendants and necklaces carry the figures of chain weaves, Herakles

knot, the depiction of Dionysus, animal head and seeds. Snake-shaped bracelet and rings are new forms of jewelry of the Hellenistic period. Especially in the central part of the seal rings, colored stone or glass is used. The common feature in the jewelry of the Hellenistic period is big and flashy forms and figures filled with fine elaborately details. (MEGEP,2002).

The Seljuk Turks combined the techniques of Byzantine with the masters of eastern jewelers and created a new synthesis (Kirtunç, 1990, Şentürk, 2007).

Despite the Islamic period, in the era of the Anatolian Seljuk, along with the floral and geometric shapes the animal motifs were used in the decoration. During the Seljuk goldsmith, all of the techniques such as engraving, embossing (repoussé), the work hole etching, gilding, niello techniques and with the influence of Byzantine enameling techniques were successfully applied (Yaşayan Anadolu Takıları, 2004, Şentürk, 2007).

In the Ottoman period, the sultans were concerned with a branch of art. For example, Yavuz Sultan Selim and Kanuni Sultan Süleyman learned the art of jewelry making and they engaged with this art. This is why jewelry making is known as "the Profession of the Sultans" (Sakaoğlu, Akbayır, 2000, Şentürk, 2007).

During the Ottoman period, Istanbul has been one of the most important jewelry centers in the world and precious stones have been transported to the Empire from Asia and Africa via caravans (Savaşçın ve Türe, 1986, Şentürk, 2007).

Anatolian Jewelry Culture

Coming to the present, Anatolian jewelry culture was a rich synthesis that combined the natural materials and metals that the Anatolian civilizations received according to their geographic and economic characteristics with the inspiration of the cultures of other civilizations that hosted.

Jewelry constitutes the source in many ways in that, giving information about culture, economy, technology and geographical situations of that society. Although wearing jewelry in Anatolia was firstly used for basic life requirements, religious rituals, celebrations, indicator of the power and authority, it was used for adornment and decoration purposes in the subsequent periods. Wearing jewelry in today's Anatolian culture reflects similar purposes such as adornment, a sign of wealth, religious beliefs, and protection from evil eyes and in many parts of Anatolia it has been used for non-verbal communication tool by the Anatolian women because they could not verbalize their thoughts and feelings.

Each jewelry used by the Anatolian women, fashion and utility are integral elements. Anatolian women tell their ancestral stories with motifs. Jewelleries which are adorning the Anatolian women's heads, chests, backs and hands sometimes symbolize luck and their patience and sometime symbolize blessing or warding off eye (Payzın, 1985). Peasant women wear stylized snake-shaped silver necklaces in the fields made with embossing techniques because they believe that it protects them against snake bites (Payzın, 1985). For a period, dervishes also wore buckled agate stones belts and these belts were considered to be the signs of their cult (Kuşoğlu, 1994).

In Anatolia, it is a tradition to give the gift of hilly to the married girls. The sequence of the abundance of gold which worn on the bride's hilly symbolizes both the dignity of the groom and the bride's family and the bride prides herself with this view on the community, shows her own power to public. However, the gold materials are regarded as a kind of the assurance of the woman's life (Tansuğ, 1991).

Anatolian women girded a bangle on the ankle of her child so that she could know whereabouts of her child with the sound of bangle (Kuşoğlu, 1998, Şentürk, 2007). In ancient Turks, the gold belt that the king wore at his waist was the sign of his reign. During the same period, gold earrings were worn by Turks men and reflected their bravery and manhood (Tarih Boyunca Türklerde Altın, Şentürk, 2007).

Sometimes hanging jewelry had been the symbol of belonging to a member. The rings especially worn to the index finger and used as the seal rings were the symbols of the communities of statesmen, sultans, and kings to which they belonged (Kuşoğlu, 1998, Şentürk, 2007).

Since the antiquity to present in Anatolia, amulets have been a kind of object used against bad souls and evil eyes.

Jewelry In The Traditional Jewelry And Manufacturing Techniques

2.1.1. Engraving Technique: in this technique, steel pens are used in different type of thicknesses. The pen is pushed or grabbed hammer over a pattern so that graving can be seen on the surface. This is called graving. It is embellishing of metal works with deep lines.

2.1.2. Niello Technique: The first step of this technique is engraving. The surface of the inner line is filled with niello mud.

2.1.3. Repousse Technique: In this technique, special kind of hand tools and hammer are used. It is also known as embossing. Firstly, the metal plate is fired then metal is ornamented by hammering from the reverse side of metal to create a design in low relief.

2.1.4. Granulation Technique: Gold or silver particles are formed by soldering side by side on the surface of the jewelry. (Erginsoy 1978, Savaşın-Türe 1986)

2.1.5. Filigree Technique: Gold and silver wires are arranged side by side in a specific order then they are soldered (Sözen 1983). Thin silver or gold wire curls are wrapped or woven and then these wires are arranged to form various patterns and soldered onto a metal base. The surface looks like lace and this is called filigree. Today, Mardin is the city where most production of filigree technique is conceived. Moreover, Trabzon and Ankara are other cities where filigree techniques are used extensively. Filigree jewelry contributes largely to the economy and tourism of the regions.

2.1.6. Nailing Technique: The nailing technique, in the jewelry production techniques, is a processing through which precious and semi-precious stones are embedded in the predetermined gap on the surface of ring, earring, bracelets, necklaces or belts. (Sözen 1983).

2.2. Traditonal Anatolia Jewelry

2.2.1. Silver Jewelry with Niello Technique: Thin channels are opened on the silver surface with steel pencil and then, a mixture of copper, lead and sulfur mixture are introduced into these channels. Thus, the motif becomes apparent (Er, 2010). In Anatolia, especially near Van, Eskisehir, Bolu, Bitlis and Sivas this technique is used extensively.



Niello Jewelry

<http://www.arkofcrafts.com/tr/>

2.2.2. Filigree Jewelry: Soft wires such as gold, silver and copper are buckled to form a composition then welded to the metal, this processing are known as filigree technique (Büyükyazıcı, 2008). In Anatolia, especially near Mardin, Trabzon, Ankara – Beypazarı are cities where filigree techniques are used extensively.



Filigree jewelry

<http://www.dogankuyumculuk.com/>

2.2.3. Straw Weaving And Kazzaz Jewelry: Straw weaving is included in the filigree art. It is processing in which soft gold, silver, and copper wires are weaved like straw by the use of hand tools.

Kazzaz is another important traditional jewelry in Anatolia and Trabzon is the center of this art. Silk thread braiding with the metal threads created with very fine wire of gold and silver.



Straw weaving and kazzaziye

<http://www.gumusbox.com/trabzon-el-ormesi-gerdanlik-ve-bileklik-takim-set>

2.2.4. Maras Bracelet: It is a traditional bracelet produced in Kahramanmaraş in Anatolia. In the production of the bracelet, nails are disposed between the gold wires then it is woven. It is woven by two people and it has its own system. (Coşkun,2012).



Maras Bracelets

[.kahramanmaraskulturturizm.gov.tr](http://kahramanmaraskulturturizm.gov.tr)

2.2.5. Kisti jewelry in Kastamonu: This jewelry is produced only in Kastamonu in Anatolia. There are only two masters maintaining this traditional jewelry art. Gold plate is embossed and it is filled with leads. Because of lead, its preciousness is getting low but masters say that they do not have any other options.



Kastamonu Kisti

2.2.6. Cebe Bracelet and Sivrihisar Earing in Eskişehir City: Manufacturing of Cebe Bracelet is entirely based on manual laboring. It is woven with 55 micron wires and gold or silver version is available. It consists of four lines of weaving. Production of Cebe Bracelets takes two whole days of its masters and it is a very difficult craftsmanship (<http://sivrihisar.web.tr/geleneksel-takilar.html>)

Sivrihisar earring is three-dimensional. Gold pieces on the edge of the earring are classified six-eight and twelve lines. In the original form, there is a red natural bead at the center of the earring. A pair of earring takes two days of its master. (<http://sivrihisar.web.tr/geleneksel-takilar.html>)



Cebe Bracelet and Sivrihisar Earing

<http://www.eskisehirkulturizm.gov.tr/>

2.2.7. Erzurum Curly Twisted Bracelet: Oltu natural stones which obtained from Erzurum is used on the center of the bracelets which is known as 'kaş.' This is the part of the lock of the bracelet.



Erzurum Curly Twisted Bracelet

<http://www.rizvanoglu.com.tr/>

2.2.8. Frenk Bagi Necklace And Urfa Akitmasi: The name of the traditional women jewelry in Sanliurfa is "hışır". Frenk bagi necklace and Urfa Akitmasi are the most demanded traditional jewelry in ceremonies.



Frenk bagi Urfa akitmasi

<https://www.altinaymucevherat.com>

2.2.9. Diyarbakir Coriander Necklace Set: Coriander necklace set is the traditional jewelry produced in Diyarbakir. The necklace, produced in the form of a sphere hanging from a chain, is made by an analogy with the coriander.



Kışnişli kolye seti Hasır örgü kolye

<http://www.altinelkuyumculuk.com>

2.3. The Position of Traditional Anatolian Jewelry In The jewelry Sector

Adornment and wearing jewelry during the wedding ceremonies in Anatolia is a very common and important tradition today. Jewelries presented to the bride both reflect the power and wealth of the family and reveal the importance given to the bride. Moreover, close relatives and guests of the both families wear golden jewelries as important signs of adornment.

Gold has a particular place in the lives of Anatolian people. Throughout the history, especially in rural areas, gold was seen as the safest means of saving. During the economic uncertainty and crisis, gold is again the most confidential investment vehicle, and it is preferred especially by the women consumers.

Due to the fluctuations of the economic crisis, the companies found different ways in order to increase the value of their brands and tried to become traditional jewelry manufacturers with the form of producing special collections. Thus, individuals are encouraged to use gold and continuation of the traditional jewelry is ensured. Although today's manufactured jewelry has not been used for the similar purposes and reflected the original forms of the past, they are produced by gaining new forms and designs, inspired from those of the past.



Traditional jewelry collection of Atasoy Gold

<http://www.atasay.com/tr/markalar/myras/karadeniz.html>



Traditional jewelry collection of Altinbas Gold

<http://www.altinbas.com/sultanlar>

Today, the use of gold jewelry is more common on the western regions in Anatolia. Both wearing gold jewelry as a symbol of wealth and the use of traditional jewelry techniques in these regions are distinctive features of jewelry culture in Anatolia. It is known that jewelry belongs to woman in the Anatolia and traditional jewelry is not used as a tool of investment; gold jewelry is an important element of the dowry which passes to from mother to her daughter. However, in the western parts of Anatolia, gold jewelry is regarded as a means of investment and it is not usually worn in everyday life.

Fashion varies quickly and correspondingly this affects the consumers' preferences. For this reason, corruption influences the production of traditional jewelry. Traditional forms should be changed according to the needs of fashion in order to continue the production. The deterioration and corruption in the pattern designs and the techniques should be prevented. Therefore, both to respond the needs of customers and to keep its stability in the jewelry sector, manufacturers in the gold markets should be observable in order to produce special series of traditional jewelry without destroying the traditional forms.

However, today, political changes, economic crisis, unforeseen internal and external developments, the volatility of exchange rate, terrorism is taking a back seat to jewelry and the jewelry sector. Thus, future anxiety in humans reduces the interest in use of traditional jewelry.

Conclusion

Jewelry, emerged in the early periods of history, had been used for protection initially, however, over the time it manifested itself with symbolic meanings such as transferring culture, identification of people in a society, representation of religious beliefs, and so on. During the Paleolithic era, when human beings were not permanently settled, the first use of jewelry was used in the name of talisman for the purpose of protection and hunting.

All the civilizations who lived in Anatolia designed different types of jewelry according to their religion, culture, and art. The Hittites, Urartian, Phrygians, Ionians, Lydians, Romans, Byzantines, Seljuks and Ottomans who lived in Anatolia influenced

each other and they created different types of jewelry by the use of different decoration techniques. These jewelries are the cultural library of Anatolian culture.

Thanks to rich cultural history, Anatolia has the different handicrafts. Traditional jewelry is regarded one of these handicrafts. There are different types of jewelry in almost every region of Anatolia. However, limited facilities of tourism, economic crises, and unceasing variability of fashion have reduced the interest in traditional jewelry. Nowadays, traditional jewelry has come to the point of being almost nonexistent and it has a small share in jewelry industry.

Exclusive jewelry brands in Turkey have been manufacturing special series of traditional jewelry to maintain their presence in the market and to keep the market alive as well as to keep alive the traditional jewelry. This situation encourages the use of traditional jewelry and motivates the craftsmen who have nearly left the profession.

However, special collections have been manufactured in the workshops of big cities and traditional jewelry craftsmen could not associate with these collections. Thus, it does create enough motivation and encouragement for these craftsmen to return their professions to deal with their works. The application of casting and printing techniques in the production of traditional jewelry based totally on manual laboring, causes deterioration of the actual form of traditional jewelry and keep the craftsmen away from their working conditions. This also hampers the training of new apprentices. For this reason, special workshops should be created for special collections and the production should be based on master and apprentice relationship.

References

- Anonim, (2002). *Tarih Boyunca Türklerde Altın*, İstanbul Altın Borsası Yayınları, No: 14, Ofset Hazırlık ve Baskı, İstanbul
Yayına Hazırlayanlar: Yeşim Öztekin, Özlem Taştekin, And Murat Güvenç
- Anonim (2004). *Yaşayan Anadolu Takıları Zaman Geçer Altın Kalır*, Atasay Kuyumculuk A.Ş. Şahinkaya Matbaacılık, İstanbul.
- Anonim (2011). *Çağlar Boyu Takı Tutkusu*. Antik Dekor.
- Büyükyazıcı, M. (2008). *Trabzon İlinde Altın ve Gümüş İşlemciliği*, Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ev Ekonomisi (El Sanatları) Anabilim Dalı, Ankara.
- Coşkun, A. (2012). *Kahramanmaraş İli Geleneksel Takılarından Maraş Burması Üzerine Bir Araştırma*, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü El Sanatları Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Ankara.
- Emre Eroğlu, M. (2013). *Ege Üniversitesi Etnografya Müzesinde Bulunan Takıların Teknik Ve Tasarım Özelliklerinin İncelenmesi*, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Güzel Sanatlar Enstitüsü Tekstil Ve Moda Tasarımı Anasanat Dalı, İzmir.
- Er, B., Kayabaşı, N. (2010). *Günümüzde Van ilinde Savat Tekniği ile Üretilen Gümüş Takılar*. II. Uluslararası Katılımlı Mücevher-Takı Tasarımı ve Eğitimi Sempozyumu Bildirileri. 151–157, Dumlupınar Üniversitesi. Kütahya Meslek Yüksekokulu, Kütahya.
- Er, B. (2012). *Van İlinde Üretilen Takıların Bazı Özellikleri*, Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ev Ekonomisi (El Sanatları) Anabilim Dalı, Ankara.
- Kirtunç, E. (1990). *Anadolu Kuyumculuğu Ürünlerinden Kemer ve Tepelikler*, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür ve Sanat, Sayı:8, Aralık, Ankara
- Kuşoğlu, M. Z. (1994). *Dünkü Sanatımız- Kültürümüz*, Ötüken Neşriyat A. Ş. İstanbul.
- Kuşoğlu, M. Z. (1998). *Tılsımdan Takıya*, Pimapen Kültürevi, Seçil Ofset Baskı, İstanbul.
- Sakaoğlu, N. ve Akbayır, N. (2000). *Osmanlı'da Zenaatten Sanata*, II.Cilt. *Sanatlar ve Sanatkârlar*, Creative Yay. İstanbul.
- Savaşçın, M. Y. ve Türe, A. (1986). *Takı Malzemeleri ve Teknikleri II*, *Antika Aylık Dergi, Kasım*, Sayı: 20, İstanbul

Şentürk, F. (2007). Anadolu Takılarındaki Motifler İle Tunus Takılarındaki Motiflerin İncelenmesi, Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü El Sanatları Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Geleneksel Türk El Sanatları Bilim Dalı,

Payzın, Sevim (1985). Anadolu Takıları, *Antika Aylık Dergi*, Nisan, Sayı: 1, İstanbul.

Tansuğ, S. (1991). Altınlı Başlıkların Dili, *Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür ve Sanat*, Yıl: 3, Sayı: 12, Aralık, Ankara.

Üster, M. (2011). Antik Dönem Anadolu Takılarında Görsel Kültürün Kodları, Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Beykent Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İletişim Ve Tasarım Ana sanat Dalı İletişim Ve Tasarım Sanat Dalı, İstanbul

<http://www.altinbas.com/sultanlar>

<http://www.atasay.com/tr/markalar/myras/karadeniz.html>

<http://www.gumusbox.com/trabzon-el-ormesi-gerdanlik-ve-bileklik-takim-set>

<http://www.kahramanmaraskulturturizm.gov.tr>

<http://www.eskisehirkulturturizm.gov.tr/>

<http://www.rizvanoglu.com.tr>

<https://www.altinaymucevherat.com>

<http://www.altinelkuyumculuk.com/urun.html?id=38>

<http://www.arkofcrafts.com/tr/>

Raising Awareness for Gender Equality in Hindu Marriage

Maryam Kaydani

Ph.D. Scholar, Law Department, Osmania University India

Abstract

The Hindu marriage has been one of the controversial issues among activities. Marriage in Hindu community is considered as holy and very significant social institution. In real, it is a commercial exchange and at large a marketplace populated by high demanding groom family. The paper aims to give a comprehensive account of problems that Hindu girls encounter during their marriage and within their marriage life. Apparently, Hindu marriage is between two families rather two people. More or less girls have no right to object. As a result girls mostly get married at earliest opportunity and they are forced into relationship as such most of marriage is based on parent's decision rather than mutuality of sentiment or emotional attachment. Therefore, prepubescent girls are often oppressed by bridegroom and his family members. In this sort of relationship, girls are financially dependent which develop their suppression. Data for this paper has drawn from in-depth interviews conducted with 120 married women of aged 12-20 years living in two Indian states who got married since 2005. Participants were randomly selected for interview if the woman was married before the ages of 15 years. Findings underscore the need to raise awareness of the negative outcomes of child marriage and to build support among girls and their families for delaying marriage, to enforce existing laws on the minimum age at marriage and to encourage other authorities to support young women in negotiating with their parents to delay marriage and eliminate child marriage.

Keywords: Child marriage, Women, Culture, Family, Society, Gender, India

Introduction

To Mytheli Sreenivas, in Indian society daughters are viewed as a "burden that they were eager to shove off onto groom's family" (104).

Child marriage is still rampant all around the world, particularly in countries with deep cultural and religious values and beliefs around marriage like India. Generally, Hindus arrange a marriage based on horoscopes read by pundits. It has been seen propose sustained just due to non-matching horoscope. Marriage is a very severe decision to be taken by individuals who have to be ready to spend the rest of their lives with someone of their choice. Of course, children are not that one as such children do not have a choice in this matter and mostly they are being forced, or else they are too young to realize what marriage means.

Yet, it mostly is cultural and religious tradition in many places and consequently problematic to change due to people cultural and religious beliefs in which tradition is considered valuable and should not be touched, particularly religious tradition, since changing it means asking people stop practicing religion, ritual ceremony which are a ultimate principle of democracy. The advantage of child marriages to lower cast is that child marriages are economical. Considering being protected or unavailable to other men also is one the cruxes bring about child marriage.

Notwithstanding, "harmful traditional customary practices such as early and forced marriage" is really a matter of concern (1). As such governments and civil society organizations are demanding to get laws against child marriage which is not working presently.

Child Marriage under Indian Law

Child marriage is complex subject under Indian law. The Child Marriage is set the minimum age of marriage for men as 18, and women as 15 by Restraint Act in 1929, which is revised several times after India independence, especially in 1978

when the marriage age was upstretched by 3 years each for men and women. However, according to The Prohibition of Child Marriage Act of 2006, the definition of child marriage updated by India which claims that

(a) to Hindus, Christians, Jains, Buddhists and those who are non-Muslims of India, and (b) outside the state of Jammu and Kashmir. For non-Muslim, The Prohibition of Child Marriage Act of 2006, "child marriage" is defined based on gender of the person - if a male; it is 21 years of age, and if a female, 18 years of age.

Hindu society has been always dealt with many problems regarding marriage which are due to different issue they encounter in their life .Mostly they cannot afford their children as such they would rather get rid of them and her expenditure. Therefore child marriage is customary in most Indian communities. As Rajendra Kumar Sharma in his book entitled *Social Problems and Welfare* (1998) argues that "The reasons behind child marriage in Hindu society were religious conservation, endogamy, sati custom, the custom of dowry and the joint family "(49-50). It means that there are several reasons behind child marriage. More, poverty is one of the significant issues that is ignored by Sharma. Even B.suresh Lal in *Child India* "remains rooted in a complex matrix of religious traditions, social practices, economic factors and deeply rooted prejudices"(2993). As usual, children are victim of their societies. The other issue which is deal with child marriage is protecting the girl's sexuality, as Pierre Tristam in his article *Child Marriage Facts, Causes and Consequences* mentioned that "In certain cultures, marriage a girl's family's honor on girl's individuality, in essence robbing the girl of her honor and dignity, undermines the credibility of family honor and instead underscores the presumed protection's actual aim: to control the girl. It means girls in this kind of family are victim of their close mind families and culture"(9). But what the concern is that girls are not matured physically or mentally and they are not able to provide binding commitment. Strong social and cultural standards also drive the practice regardless of legislation in place.

"Child marriages are accepted by and large in the society"(Tripurana Venkataratnam 5) and it has been occurred because of a diversity of various elements such as; poverty, absence of education, religion , culture ,custom and tradition, etc. This paper aims to investigate whether ethic and economy has more significant role in making girls to marriage?

Poverty is the main motivation of child marriage, child brides are mostly likely to be poor and remain poor, when poverty is sharp, parents are encouraged to married their daughter to detract family cost. Where family can't afford a proper dowry or bride's price is mostly a welcome income for this kind of families. As Anju malhotra in *The Causes and Consequence and Solution to Forced Child Marriage in the Developing World* claims that "For many poor families ,marring their daughter at an early age essentially is a strategy for economic survival, it is means one less person too feed , cloth and educate" (3) which means how families meet their problems.

Tradition, culture, religion and ethic are others issues that should be taken to the consideration. In many families ,patents are under compression to get marry their daughters as early as possible for pull up her from sexuality energetic before marriage ,because they believe this kind of relationship before marriage can bring shame for families and marriage often defines a woman's condition in Hindu society ,parents are worry that if their girls not married according to social prospect cannot be able to get a good husband at all.

Materials and Methods

Materials: Data for this paper has drawn from in-depth interviews conducted with

120 married women of aged 12-20 years living in two Indian states who got married since 2005. Participants have been randomly selected for interview if the woman was married before the ages of 18 years.

Methods: Based on the interview, most of the cases hailed from poor and lower background which means they are from Dalit cast who are not illiterate except few (16 women). These women often suppressed by husband and his family members. They are mostly involved in domestic violence. The effect of age on involving violence cannot be ignored. Accordingly, women has been beaten by their husband and groom family and forced to work even during their pregnancy and doing hard work which is dangerous for them and their babies. The worse come worse when they deliver baby girls because none of the cultures are immune to predatory manners. Girls and women are still dealing with entrenched hostile attitudes towards them on a shocking scale. The callous behavior toward girls and women of lower casts in Hindu community is startling, not just in comparison with the men but also when paralleled to other women typically in India.

The discrimination never ends there. Girls are more expected not to be properly concerned while the higher mortality rate goes to boys. A girl experiences much higher risk of malnutrition, illiteracy, child marriage and child labor than a boy. And very notably, a girl is unlikely to be able to choose when and whom to marry and more likely to have a say in domestic matters. Having to raise a daughter and expected to go in debt to pay the massive dowry which is the oppressive patriarchal culture of India means that many mothers are forced to abort as soon as they learn the baby is female. Hindu mothers who raise a fight or make too excessive fuss about getting rid of their daughter may be raped or beaten within an inch of their life (Of the total sample of 120 women were beaten at least once). Remarkably, all of them have been harassed both physically and verbally. The offender has been using knife or metal pipe which lead to victim injury and medical treatment (45 of the total sample of 120 women were victimized). Most of these women completely financially dependent and their incomes have been taken by their husband (103 of the total sample of women were dependent). All of them are staying in joint family. Unfortunately most of them are living in one room with in laws and their children that provided by the landlord who Result Child marriage and issues related to that was assessed using ten questions developed for the study and validated through rational and cognitive interviewing, none of them actually has aware being domesticated by their parents, husband or groom family. A typical issue has been "Have you had right to say no to your family for your marriage?" The questions in addition asked about their ethnic background or have been forced to marry or you married to consent your family, having problem with their husband or husband family. Women disclose that they have been not asked at the time of marriage whether they are happy with marriage or not. Further, their educational background has been asked to understand to what extent they are conscious about their right on marriage. They also asked about participating chore activities or its part of their responsibilities even when they work outside which reveals that most of them are maid or construction worker. Women have been then asked some more questions about the number of children and their husband family reaction toward the newborn baby sexuality and how their husband respond and adjust to their newborn baby in different ways. In addition how they spend their pregnancy whether they have been working or they were on leave for sometimes. Apart from this, whether they have any right over their salary or not? are working for. Most domestic violence occurred at victim's home and in front of their children. Domestic violence between parents has a deep and lasting impact on children. The majority of domestic violence has been committed against females compared to males. To some victims, intimate relationships with offenders may not be restricted to their husband rather they are harassed by their male in their families especially their son or father in law.

In this paper, it is considered the age of marriage which is child marriage in real and its consequences if it indicates in any of the ten questions about child marriage. The interview shows that child marriage and women involved in answered a series of questions on marriage issues and the causes of being victims and her age at the time.

These have been derived from qualitative research and interview. Each has presented as a statement and they have been asked to respond the questions (most of participants have been under legal age at the time of marriage) which indicating why their marriage is considered as child marriage and an explanation for why they did it. A typical item has been their family wanted to get rid of them or it has been societal and cultural forces item. These declarations have been asked separately for each of them or circumstance and some of differences between them explored and explained. Variables have been derived to groups to investigate the causes in motivation categories for those are into child marriage. Gender equality included responses to causes about being suppressed. The table 1 represents the number of participants in this study who have been engaged in child marriage.

The questions have been asked in interview included categorical variables that measuring age, ethnical background, employment, income, oppression, position and frequency of literacy. Questions on the number of children and their sexuality included items on whether and how husband or husband family treated her and her children at the time of pregnancy and delivery. Scales have measured husband and husband family kindness and behavior (Of the total sample of 120 women). A typical item has been their literacy "no, I did not go to school, because my father could not afford it. The frequency of literacy represents (Of the total sample of 120 women have not even attended the school).

Discussion:

Expanding the samples, the paper summarized sociodemographic characteristics for all women those have been interviewed. Of the total sample of 120 women, they have been selected only those who were married 2005 onward and at the time of the survey for statistical analysis, leaving an analytical model of 120 individuals. Then, in order to study the relationship between individual, household and domestic violence sociodemographic elements, being aware of their right by law, background and literacy, marital type, neighborhood, background, literacy, number of children, husband and groom family treatment, their assets, their children sexuality and others reaction and composite scores as the independent variables, and Subject characteristics

Women in both states had similar ethnicity, religion, illiteracy, offspring and they were labors as well. Women in both states have been more often child, having less literacy, and unaware of their own rights in marriage

Marital Factors

Approximately all of the women have been married before the age of reproductively, with 100% of marriages consisting of all were below 15 years, and 12 of the total sample of 120 women reporting being asked whether they are interested in their husbands while others have not been asked even. Women who are engaged in child marriage conception, reported domestic violence and social support as the outcome variables. The paper incorporated data on all women living in two Indian States Telangana and Andhra Pradesh in two ways. First, the researcher compared sociodemographic characteristics of women. Because samples for predetermined age categories with the intention of increasing the number of domestic violence and child marriage, the age distribution has been purposefully different from a participants who are representative of a continuous of child marriage trend. Second, for outcomes pertaining to literacy, regression analyses have been conducted in both States Andhra Pradesh and Telengana. which likely reflects the age-based sampling in this paper designed to include women behind their reproductive years. As with data analysis, women tended to be younger than other women. more often born in lower cast family, less literate, also they had fewer years of schooling, and had more children. They more often lived in a house that was owned by the household head and that had more inhabitants overall.

The outcome of this interview shows the women who got married in low age mostly they are involved in domestic violence rather than other women and they considered as others which Simone de Beauvoir heighten "One is not born, but rather becomes, a woman"(301). This kind of women are mostly being oppressed by their groom family, most of them are just maid for their family and even they have to work outside as a maid or as construction workers. It's so hard to believe even during their pregnancy they have to work. More or less they suffer from lack of self-confidence and they are depending on their husband. It's worst because they are working but they don't have any right over their outcome. Their outcome is often taken by husbands while mostly they don't do anything.

In this paper, the primary goal has been to examine whether marriage is a commercial exchange and comprehensive account of problems that Hindu girls encounter during their marriage and within their marriage life and trajectories of this women living in Urban in India. In order to paint a nuanced picture of familial and social context that may influence their life related to outcomes, the paper has been based on interviewed sources of social and support in their community. In addition, it has examined the effect of some familial or social factors such as age, education, ethnical background, employment, income and frequency of literacy which are the key elements in women's life. It demonstrates that these variables do significantly capture variability in during marriage or within marriage life. Local setting applied to their choices such as ethnics or social forces. Among the factors it is supposed that education, ethnical background are apparently heightened which may have significant implication for communication about marriage, family planning. Interestingly, an increase in even very less represent that they got familiar with their rights perhaps reflecting either aspects of familial or social life.

To make it clear, the interview represents that all women in this research are illiterate, from poor family and lower cast, low paid workers and unconscious about their right as human being or wife and they are victims of their poverty and attitude of their family. It demonstrates that ethnic group is one of the reasons of child marriage and a kind of a commercial exchange. And at large market, Indian marriage is populated by high demanding groom family. Hindu marriage is between to families rather than two people and mostly girls have no right to object and have to married at earliest opportunity which is mostly on parents' decisions. It also shows reproduction, these women at least have 2 or 3 children; the severity of deliver is undeniable, no healthy foods, clothing and etc.

Unfortunately, all of them are more likely to engage in sexual intercourse at a young age, which in turn puts them at greater risk of teenage pregnancy. Pregnancy at young age can result in serious consequences, and it is dangerous and sometimes. It's worst when it meet children , they do not know how to behave their children well which causes so problems because they cannot support their children very well and children are sacrifice ignorance of their families. It is sign of a sexual discrimination, but the reaction of father and groom family is really different when the baby is girl and even the mother occurred in a very different environment.

Conclusion

Our findings about child marriage echo the concept of being girl in Hindu community they have highlighted (a) reluctance on the part of parents ethnics to endorse being opposed societal convention, because of keeping girls or iterating them it cost them legs and arm which seen as an indicator of being female; (b) significant misconceptions and in particular fears of the social consequences of side effects such as spinster; and (c) girls' willingness to get marry which it supports social and cultural notions that women should get married in the early years, eventually menstruation is considered as puberty.

With respect to marital status, child marriage is not support by the movement and even opposed activist struggles still is going on in Hindu community and ethnic is important in regulating social and labor dynamics within households and the power of groom family in affecting women's facing violence. However, women after marriage is not considered as part of their own family so their family are just a significant source of financial support. Furthermore, husbands and sons played great roles in their mother's marriage and life which pointing to a gendered division of male and female and social support.

Concerning on women situation it has showed those years of social progress with respect to female education and employment opportunities. However, some major mediators of social structure, such as child marriage, persist despite broad social changes is seems impossible. Poverty persists; child marriage remains normative; female education remains low, and violence remains a facet of life in these women.

References

Malhotra, Anju. "The Causes and Consequence and Solution to Forced Child Marriage in the Developing World", International Center for Research on Women. July 15, 2010 .

Lal ,B.suresh. "Child Marriage in India: Factors and Problems", International Journal of Science and Research, 2015. 4 (4), 2993-2998.

Maluleke, MJ. "Culture, Tradition, Custom, Law and Gender Equality". Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal. 2012;15(1)1-22.

Sharma, Rajendra Kumar. Social Problems and Welfare . Atlantic Publishers & Dist,1998. Print.

Sreenivas, Mytheli. Wives, Widows, and Concubines: The Conjugal Family Ideal in Colonial India. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press,2008. Print.

Tristram , Pierre.Child Marriage - Facts Causes and Consequences of Child Marriage and Sexual Abuse of Children. April 18, 2015. www.middleeast.about.com/

Venkataratnam,Tripurana . Provide speedy justice to women victims. October 16,2014 www.thehansindia.com/

Appendix
How old did you get married?
Which kind of family are you from ?
Have you gone to school?
How did you get familiar with your husband?
Have you had right to say no to your family for your marriage?
Do you live with your husband family? 6)Do they have good behavior with you ?
Did you work in your pregnancy like before?
What did you face when you born baby girls ?
Do you work out?

NATO "Force Goals, FG 2008" for Albania

PhD.C Jonela Canaj
University of Tirana,

Abstract

What are the Partnership Goals/ Force Goals and which is their impact the elations of Albania with the Alliance? Partnership Goals (PG) are objectives linked with the military and civilian capabilities a partner/ aspirant country has agreed to voluntarily contribute to the Alliance-led operations, while the Force Goals (FG) are objectives agree by the Alliance with each of the member countries under the principle of sharing roles, responsibilities and burdens within NATO. So, the Force Goals are an advanced status of Partnership Goals in the sense of accountability of development of military capabilities for the collective defense of the Alliance, in quantity, quality, and in assigned timeframes. In July 2008, NTO International Staff proposed the target FG package 2008 for Albania which had a final approval in 22 July 2008 under silent procedures with the Alliance. This FG target Force Goals was prepared based upon NATO Ministerial Guidance 2006 and the assessment of PARR document (Planning and Review Process) of Albania for 2007. In the first analysis, and based upon the experience of other previous aspirant countries during the two last rounds of NATO enlargements from 1999, the new PG/ Target FG 2008 had been at the centre of the Defense Reform and transformations for the coming 70 years, till 2018. The good news was that the new Target FG 2008 Package was in line with the targets of Albanian Long Term Development plan (LTDP-2020).

Keywords: NATO, Partnership, Armed Forces, Target Force Goals, Alliance.

Introduction

What are the Partnership Goals/ Force Goals and which is their impact the elations of Albania with the Alliance? Partnership Goals (PG) are objectives linked with the military and civilian capabilities a partner/ aspirant country has agreed to voluntarily contribute to the Alliance-led operations, while the Force Goals (FG) are objectives agree by the Alliance with each of the member countries under the principle of sharing roles, responsibilities and burdens within NATO. So, the Force Goals are an advanced status of Partnership Goals in the sense of accountability of development of military capabilities for the collective defense of the Alliance, in quantity, quality, and in assigned timeframes.

In July 2008, NTO International Staff proposed the target FG package 2008 for Albania which had a final approval in 22 July 2008 under silent procedures with the Alliance.

This FG target Force Goals was prepared based upon NATO Ministerial Guidance 2006 and the assessment of PARR document (Planning and Review Process) of Albania for 2007.

In the first analysis, and based upon the experience of other previous aspirant countries during the two last rounds of NATO enlargements from 1999, the new PG/ Target FG 2008 had been at the centre of the Defense Reform and transformations for the coming 70 years, till 2018. The good news was that the new Target FG 2008 Package was in line with the targets of Albanian Long Term Development plan (LTDP-2020)¹.

This new package with drive the Defense Reform ahead in the coming decade and that some of them will become every expensive part of the defense budget, especially those related to the development and making available forces and capabilities for Alliance operations, combat, combat service and combat service support forces.

¹ Albanian Atlantic Association - Fondacioni Shqipetar i Shoqerise Civile. *Contribute towards a stable peace in the Balcans*. Konferenca e 3-te Nderkombetare, 21-23 Nentor 1997

Albania has been engaged with the Partnership Goals packages since 1999. Unlike the packages of PG-s of 2002, 2004 and 2006, which were voluntary in nature and related to the partner and aspirant country level of ambition, this package of Target force Goals -2008, after being negotiated. with NATO and, after the Accession Protocols are signed in 09 July, has been considered as a package of Target Force Goals, and when a full NATO member in April 2009, they have definitely become NATO Force Goals for Albania. From voluntary basis commitments, Albania have been engaged in a more binding arrangement with the Alliance, as all other countries of the Alliance are engaged in.

The package consists of 49 Target Force Goals, 26 out of them were general and applied to the entire Armed Forces; 14 others were dedicated only to Land component units; 4 to Maritime and 5 to be applied to the Air Component. Compared with the PG Package of 2006, the 2008 Target Force Goals Package consists of 24 Target Force Goals; 8 Revalidated; 16 Amended; and 7 Renewed. As mentioned above the new package covers the period of 10 years until 2018, a period in which Albania will be committed seriously to develop operational military and civilian capabilities to NATO-led operations; which can be used for article 5 operations related to collective defense and non article 5 operations, which relates to Crisis Response Operations¹.

Below there is a general list of the main capabilities required to be developed by 2018:

- Combat forces; a Motorized infantry Battalion a commando company as a basis for the 2014 Motorized Battalion Group of some 1000 personnel, tailored to the mission with combat, combat support and combat service support forces;
- Combat Support (CS) and Combat Service Support (CSS); an engineering company and an EOD platoon as combat forces, and a company of civil defense and a military police unit at platoon level as combat service support forces;
- A Human Intelligence capability (HUMINT), and a PSYOPS capability and an Information operation capability for deployed forces, for support of main forces in operations under the Alliance;
- A strategic and tactical NEC capability (Network Enabled Capability), development of "cyber defense" capabilities, etc are other challenges ahead for the Armed Forces modernization, which requires high technology and high lever of trained personnel.

This area is an area of transformation also by many NATO countries.

- An Aviation Tactical Air Lift transport capability is required to be developed in the long run to support the Group Battalion and to be made available in the long run by 2018;
- A deployable GNBR capability for deployed forces (Chemical, Nuclear, Biological and Radiological), Role 1 and 2 for deployed forces in NATO led operations, able to operate in WMD contaminated environments;
- An IED capability (Improvised Explosive Devices) for the detection and neutralization of improvised explosive objects for deployed forces in international operations;
- An ISTAR high precision indirect fire support battery, for the support of the operations of the Group Battalion;
- Dry and hot weather individual equipment and uniforms, etc, for operations in difficult terrains and extreme weather conditions;
- A deployable information team and a team for civil- military relations(CIMIC) within the Group Battalion 2014;
- Development of other capabilities of strategic from land, air and sea of the deployed forces and sustainment of forces in operations thousands of kilometers from Brussels;
- Development of other specialized niche capabilities support of our deployed forces in NATO led operations when required, etc;

¹ Lucioli, Fabrizio W. *Albania and NATO. Secretary of the Italian Atlantic Committee*; 13 International Conference of the Albanian Atlantic Council. 20 March 2009, Tirane

Taking consideration of the Comprehensive Political Guidance of the Riga Summit, the capabilities required by the Alliance go for the first time beyond the Ministry of Defense organization¹.

Some other capabilities, which go beyond purely military capabilities, are needed for all Allied countries in NATO led operations. This is the lessons learned from real live operations of the Alliance, based on the NATO three-dimensional concept of Defense, Diplomacy and Development.

The new Target Force Goal package 2008 includes also human and logistic capabilities from other national Ministries and agencies, such as from the Ministry of Interiors, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Finances, Ministry of Transportation, Ministry of Health, and Ministry of Education.

That is a real challenge for these national Ministries to be engaged in the NATO planning system with real capabilities. In this direction, NATO integration is becoming a national issue of contributions, and not only contribution with military forces.

AAF have already a Long Term Development Plan (LTDP 2020) approved the Minister of Defense in 2007. This LTDP was developed with the assumption of an invitation in the Bucharest Summit and full membership in the next summit after Bucharest, which gives this LTDP an existing value. Anyway, this LTDP needs an update and harmonization with the new reality and the capabilities required by the Package of Force Goals approved under silent procedures in July 2008, especially with regard to the AAF modernization plan. Modernization is one of the AAF key challenges in short, mid and long term which will be associated with high cost. No doubt today to participate in current and future international operations with equipment and systems of 70-ies or 80-ies. The main issue is to build an armed force for both articles 5 and article 5 operations, with hi-tech interoperable equipment with other Allied forces.

A number of operational capabilities are needed to be developed for NATO-led missions especially those related to the development of Battalion Group 2014 with some 1000 personnel, other capabilities of armored vehicles in support of deployed forces, in-theatre support transport helicopters, other equipment operating in difficult terrain and extreme weather conditions, urban warfare special equipment, equipment or detection of improvised ordnance disposal, NNEC capabilities, fire support system and others, in full harmony with the package of Force Goals 2008².

Based on other NATO country experiences, aware of the high importance of force modernization after the membership summit, it is supportive to the Armed Forces reform to have this updated LTTD 2020 approved by the Albanian Parliament in order to build consensus of all political parties for the continuity of AAF reforms and modernization plan, in spite of potential rotations of power until 2020. Also, all national institutions responsible for development of capabilities required by FG 2008 Package should have a responsible structure to develop, follow and implement a specific plan on each of the military and civilian FG, assigning responsible authorities, related cost and assigned timeframes, organization changes, training and education events equipment, infrastructure and other required elements. In support of LTDP 2020, a well balanced financial support is needed.

According to the MOD calculations, based upon the NATO Ministerial Guidance and commitments of the Albanian Government, it is foreseen that in order to meet the modernization targets, the Armed Forces should be allocated for the ten coming years a budget at the level at least 2% of which should be given to the modernization of equipment and systems.

Other than the practice followed so far, when the implementation of Force Goals was on a voluntary basis and under a NATO understanding process of PARP, from April 2009 we are bounded to build all the capabilities agreed with NATO in the timeframes assigned. This new national position requires that Albanian national team on integration issues have all the knowledge and maximal responsibility when negotiate with NATO teams on Force Goals obligations. All the decision should be taken at the highest ministerial level, that is by the Minister of Defense and Chief of General Staff for military force goals, and other respective Ministers, when it is the other civilian force goals, and in some cases, an Interministerial or interagency decision is needed.

¹ Keshilli Atlantik i Shqipërisë – Atlantic Council of Albania. *Prirjet e politikës botërore dhe Shqipëria seri ligjeratash publike; Trends of world policy and Albania series of public lectures*. PEGI, Tirane

² Simon, Jeffrey. *Number 58: "NATO'S Membership Action Plan (MAP) And Prospects for the Next Round of Enlargement"*. November 2000

Albania has almost the same Force Goals as other countries accepted in the last two rounds of accession had, and almost the same as Croatia. So, the criteria are almost the same but the size and numbers of contributions to the collective defense is different; for instance the highest level of contribution of Albania for NATO-led operation is a Group Battalion of 1000 personnel in 2014, while the highest Croatian contribution is one Bridge of 4000 personnel in 2016¹. Also, we have to contribute with two mid size helicopters and Croatia with 4 helicopters etc. It is to be explained that the force goals are carefully selected by NATO experts of defense planning, which have all the information on the development of the armed forces and the country and the perspectives in the coming years. Almost all the PG/ FG are a continuation of a more quality level of the former partnership Goals of the previous cycle 2006. The accepting system of PG/FG belongs to the highest Committees of the Alliance, and all the countries which packages being discussed do not have the right to vote for themselves, so the final decision is taken at the level 26 minus 1, so in Albania case.

Albania does not have the right to vote but only to give reasons and arguments. If the reasons and arguments are political, the final decision is taken in the Political Committee, if they are financial, in the Financial Committee, if they are legal in the Legal Committee, and if military in the Military Committee and so on... And this is a common rule for all the FG packages of the members of the Alliance.

In this context, one of the main challenges ahead is training and education the right people to have a deep knowledge and expertise of the functional mechanisms of the Alliance, especially at the decision making level. A very high importance should be given to the detailed knowledge of NATO main Committees, Sub-Committees Agencies and Working Groups, their roles and responsibilities, gradual decision making process from the lowest level working groups up to the three main NATO Committees, the North Atlantic Council (NAC), the Defense Planning Committee (DPC), the Nuclear Planning Group (NPG), as well as the highest NATO military body, the Military Committee (MC).

After the agreement with the package of Force Goals 2008 with NATO, the main challenge ahead is the careful defense planning of the capabilities required by each of the FG of the package, activating the best planning experts we have at strategic and operational levels. This is valid also for the other institutions committed with Force Goals. Given that, part of force goals have a relation capability at national level and belong not only to one institution and require an interagency efforts, so in this cases, a higher authority and coordination and common planning is needed at the Prime Minister Office level in order to enable the implementation of force goals in mid an long run².

Other Military Challenges of Integration

The Professional Force 2010. Participation in international operations retires a high level professional force; not just a professional force in numbers and under the pay effect of the professional force, in quality, values and performance of the mission accomplishment.

The current and future missions of the AAF will be more and more

Difficult, longer in time, more complex, multinational and in the regions and areas completely unknown for us and in very difficult weather situations. To accomplish missions under these circumstances, the professional force should be motivated, trained, equipped and supported to fight in any region of the world; they should reflect the best qualities of a professional force, ready to be deployable and conduct missions far away from the homeland. Today, it is very difficult to conduct international operations with conscript forces, in such conditioners where this service lasts only a year, while only for the rotation of a mission this period lasts six months. On the other side, participation in operations conducted thousand of kilometers far from national territories today's requires an extensive and long time preparation of forces. Professional qualities of the force such as in-depth knowledge of culture and traditions of the local population, English language and sometime local language, flexibility and practical skills to adapt to the difficult terrain, extreme weather and complex missions and tasks, ability to deal with the local population in the area of operation, employment of non-traditional tactics and techniques, as well as use of advanced IT systems are some of the qualities cultivated only from real professional forces.

¹ Atlantic Council of Albania - Atlantic Treaty Association. *On the way to the full membership of Albania in NATO and beyond Challenge*

² Albanian Atlantic Association - Fondacioni Shqipetar I Shoqerise Civile. *Contribute towards a stable peace in the Balkans*. Konferenca e 3-te Nderkombetare, 21-23 Nentor 1997

With a half-full glass perception, it looks like that as closer we get to the target year; it becomes more and more difficult the challenge of a quality professional force 2010. Can this goal become achievable with the current tempo of the professional force? Even if it is accomplished in terms of numbers, can it become a reality in terms of quality?

Difficult and almost impossible the professional force can not be developed with the mentality and the concept of the conscript service forces. A forces based on professionalism requires a much higher quality of training, education, equipment, systems, doctrines, infrastructure and leadership than the conscript service force. Above all, it requires reasonable and adequate motivation for the personnel, which is far away from the levels of a professional force of NATO countries. Military personnel have never been and will never be rich people but they should be highly motivated by the government for the very difficult missions institutions perform. In a way, they have practically been one of the leading national institutions in support of NATO integration. And this is appropriate confirmed many times by Albanian government leaders and especially by NATO high civilian and military authorities.

Future professional force will be prepared to fight through out the spectrum of the NATO-led operations in and outside the country. To do that, first priority should be given to high intensity to combat training, especially for Article 5 collective defense operations, in order that Albanians declared units become capable to deploy quickly and contribute to the defense of another NATO country, and if the territorial integrity of Albania is threatened and the Alliance activates Article 5, they should become capable of benefiting from this article.

That means that Albania should develop and conduct a wide range of defensive, offensive, urban operations and other difficult operations that today are considered rather impossible for our forces because of difficulties of complex training, equipment, doctrines, logistic support, etc. One of the challenges ahead for AAF is the development of training, education, exercises and evaluation system of our personnel and military units all over the spectrum of national and collective defense operations.

This is because we have participated so far in international missions with limited operational range, especially focused on "force and base protection" operations, which has to change significantly from now on¹.

The development of a fully professional force must be focused on all personnel categories and not only to professional soldiers. A special attention is to be paid to the development of a quality civil service administration. The real truth is that till now very few quality young people with a university degree want to join and work in AAF, because they are much more attracted and favorable by the private companies.

Development of a "Battalion-Group 2014" or Tactical Battle-Group". "Battalion Group 2014- BNG", is a tactical battle Group of forces, like a Task Force organization with about 1000 personnel, motivated, trained, equipped with modern weapons and equipment and ready to participate with short notice in NATO missions wherever necessary, in difficult terrains and extreme weather conditions, arctic or desert².

This Battalion Group is one of the main challenges not only for AAF, but for Albania as well, by the end of 2013.

According to NATO Ministerial Guidance 2006, all member countries should develop and make available deployable capabilities at some 8% of the total land component at a time and have deployable capabilities at 40% of the total land component for rotation purposes. This tactical battle-group will be available for NATO, EU, UN or different global coalition-led operations, under the concept of, "a single set of forces".

The development of a concept, doctrine, organizational structure, training and education, equipment, weapons and systems, infrastructure and interoperability of this Battalion Group 2014 is one of main midterm challenges for AAF.

Equal partnership in bilateral cooperation.

Being a NATO member requires development of a new platform of the relations with the collective organizations and each of the member countries, a new spirit of cooperation based upon equal partnership within the Alliance.

¹ Hudhra Thimi, "Assession talks and the way ahead to full NATO-membership". 2008, Tiranë

² Leci, Elmaz. *NATO dhe Shqipëria*. Koha 1999, Tirane

As it is known, under the current status of an aspirant and partner country, Albania benefit from NATO sponsorship formula some 8% of total cost for all events of personnel training and education and different military activities under the NATO Partnership Work Program (only 20% is covered by the national budget).

But the time of accession, this formula is not any longer applied and all costs are covered 100% by all participating countries.

The same thing will happen with all the training and education courses conducted in NATO countries under national responsibility. With the full membership status, Albania enter a new phase of maturity of sharing costs and burdens for everything Albania have done free of charge so far¹.

This new phase should be also followed by a review of Ministry of Defense with focus on the assessment of all foreign military assistance missions deployed in our country.

The MoD and General Staff should also start reflecting on an updated approach of the military cooperation plans in harmony with country standards, activating the techniques of "Staff Talks" with all countries with specific focus on essential issue of security, and collective defense, opinion sharing and consensus building through consultations of mutual interest.

Establishment of a fair AAF personnel management system.

Application of a modern AAF professional personnel management system remains an immediate task during the period of NATO integration.

Current system of personnel management is fragile and fragmentary; it is sometime subject to interventions and favors by irresponsible persons in the chain of command, which being in chief positions, bring around them people that have nothing in common with professionalism. Considering that the situation is somewhat serious and if military and civilian leadership do not engage in to this situation, this may create a "lack of confidence" the personnel management system.

The deviations from the system could deteriorate and make all people try to use defilement form out of the system, which can develop a form of "anti-system".

Particularly, development assignment and promotion of high level military leadership are crucial to the integration process and implementation of defense reforms.

After the Gerdec events, AAF has experienced a passive and hesitant situation caused from discharge and release from duty of some high military leadership².

Centralized Planning and De-centralized Execution.

Extreme centralization at the top level of defense institution has been and still is an unsolved, problem. Being extremely busy with all kind of work practice from the high importance to those with no importance at all, this practice has precluded delays and extreme lingering of the issues, failure of activities, mistrust toward subordinates, etc. NATO concept is based on centralized planning and decentralized execution. The implementation of such concept seems to be very difficult, because sometimes it touches upon the interests of preferable people.

Another important issue has to do with the fact of changing very often the organization structure of the Armed Forces. After some 1 year of the implementation of the previous structure there are initiatives to change again to a new organization structure, without even an after action review of the performance of the previous one.

¹ Atlantic Council of Albania - Atlantic Treaty Association. *On the way to the full membership of Albania in NATO and beyond... Challenge*

² Keshilli Atlantik i Shqipërisë – Atlantic Council of Albania. *Prijet e politikës botërore dhe Shqipëria seri ligjeratash publike; Trends of world policy and Albania series of public lectures*. PEGI, Tirane

Another element to be corrected is the centralization of a wide part of nomination of the military personnel in the hands of political authorities, an issue which might bring on the undesired polarization of the armed forces. This is not a NATO standard policy for the development of a professional force beyond political positioning¹.

Development of Standardization and Lessons Learned Systems.

One of the military challenges is the development of NATO interoperability, which implies standardization or approximation with Allied Operation's policies. Standardization in operational area is decisive for coordination of efforts to achieve success in NATO-led operations. Standardization is required in operational, administrative and material areas. The number of the Alliance STANAG-s is over 6000. The next step is to develop a Priority List for Ratification of STANAG-s especially those related to the Implementation of the Package of Force Goals.

Also, the development of a functional Lesson Learned system in AAF is a tool for the force transformation process based on operations conducted in the country or abroad.

Continuous challenge remains the increase of English and French skills of military and civilian personnel of AF, with priority the personnel and units declared in NATO and other key level personnel.

The main concern is not only to English and French language skills, it is also to good knowledge of operational language which requires efforts in learning and understanding of acronyms, abbreviations, definitions, and codification².

Political and Diplomatic Challenges

Albanians have always considered their country's membership in NATO and EU like a great return into their long-denied natural Western identity. This is one of the reasons of why the Albanians have always given a very large public support to their country's membership into NATO, where as all the Albanian political parties have consensually agreed to work together for attaining this strategic goal of the Euro-Atlantic integration, since the beginning of the years 1990, after the democratic changes in Albania.

The NATO air campaign against the Yugoslav Army of Milosevic, first in Bosnia-Herzegovina and later in (Kosovo in March-June 1999, reinforced this attitude of Albanians versus NATO for the very simple reason of considering it as the liberator of peoples and especially, as a liberator of a part of their nation³.

Until the Bucharest NATO Summit

During the relative long period of time, from November 1991, when a high level delegation of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Albania entered for the first time in relations with high officials of NATO during an OSCE meeting in Prague, until, the Bucharest NATO Summit a tremendous overall progress has been made towards this strategic goal of Albania's accession in to NATO.

Just only mentioning in passing some indicators of this progress according.

Only seven months later, in June 1992, Albania becomes member of the North Atlantic coordinating council (NACC) together with other former communist countries. In October 1992, an official of NATO delegation headed by the Director of the political department, M r. John Kriendler, comes for the first time in Albania and had negotiations with high authorities of Albania. Two months later, in December 1992, the President of Albania, Mr. Sali Berisha, participated in Special session of the North Atlantic coordination Council in NATO Headquarters in Brussels and presented the official request for the membership of Albania in NATO. On March 1993, the secretary general of NATO, Mr. Manfred Werner, comes on official visit in Albania. On February 22, 1994, the Albanian president, Mr. Sali Berisha, signed the Framework Document of the partnership for peace, a practical program of the relations between the NATO countries and the former communist countries, which made Albania its member. From that time until April 20 of the year 1994, when the Albanian Parliament

¹ NATO HANDBOOK 2001. NATO Office of Information and Press 1110 Brussels – Belgium

² Second Round of Accession Talks. 09 May 2008, Brussels

³ Atlantic Council of Albania - Atlantic Treaty Association. *On the way to the full membership of Albania in NATO and beyond... Challenge*

ratified that Framework Document of the partnership for peace, Albania signed also other necessary official documents needed as its legal basis. In the years that followed, Albania intensified the relation with NATO through many special programs such as Individual Partnership Program (IPP), Pacification and Review Process (PARP), Membership Action Plan (MAP). In the year 1995, Albania decided to offer NATO aero-portal facilities in order to assist in ending up the conflict in the territories of the former Yugoslavia¹. In the year 1996, Albania was included in the NATO study plans for its enlargement with new members. On May 3, 1996, the Secretary General of NATO, Mr. Javier Solana, comes on visit in Albania and makes the invitation for Albania to intensify its relations with all the NATO structures.

On September 5, 1996, the Albanian Parliament approved the law on sending Albanian military troops abroad as parts of the SFOR contingent of the NATO countries. On October 80, 1997, the Albanian Mission office to NATO opens in Brussels. During the conflict in Kosovo, Albania reiterated its decision to offer NATO its aero-portal facilities in order to assist the NATO air campaign in Kosovo. In July 2002, and March 2003, the Albanian Parliament approved respectively the law on sending Albanian military forces as part of ISAF mission in Afghanistan and law on sending Albanian military forces as part of operation "Iraqi freedom" NATO in Iraq. NATO opened officially its gates for the membership of Albania inside it in the NATO Summit of Prague, on November 21, 2002. On May 2, 2003, Albania became signatory of the Adriatic Charter together with Croatia and Macedonia supported by the United States of America².

Until the NATO Summit of Bucharest, Albania was officially visited several times by the Secretaries General of NATO, Lord Robertson and Jaap de Hoop Scheffer.

In the other two NATO Summits, in Istanbul and Riga, NATO officially assessed the Albanian progress for the completion of the NATO membership criteria. That fast development of the relations NATO - Albania has been full of challenges, because Albania entered in these relations with almost no experience because of a long isolation during the communist regime period of time which couldn't be compared to none of the other former communist countries.

Those challenges were not only duly faced but were also accompanied by a speedy process of transformation of the Albanian armed forces in compliance with the NATO standards. Until the eve of the Bucharest Summit, Albania could achieve radical changes of its Armed Forces which is foreseen to become fully professional by the year 2010, increased the military budget up to 2,1 % of the GDP, became the first country in the world to have demolished all the chemical weapons, made a radical reorganization of the entire defense system, compiled a new national security strategy, as well as approved many other necessary laws. Among the indicators of the success in this process of transformation are also the successful international military missions of Albania as part of NATO or NATO countries to the benefit of the regional or international security.

Albania could play a distinguished political role in the tensioned region of a Balkans full of conflicts by facing even in this area various challenges originating from the old nationalist legacies of the region or nationalist groupings inside the country³.

This role has been especially evaluated by the international community during the armed conflict in Kosovo, but also later, in the period of the normalization of the relations between Albania and Serbia. The positive and moderating role of Albania in the region, independent of the fact with regard to which party coalition governs the country, even more convinced the leading elite of NATO that Albania could be well its member. Among the NATO standards were those that were linked with the consolidation of the democratic order, reform of the state democratic institutions, rule of law through the fight against criminality, illicit trafficking and corruption, as well as those linked with the preservation and promotion of the common values of Albania and other democratic countries of the Euro-Atlantic geopolitical pace. Until the Bucharest NATO Summit, Albania succeeded in making many democratic reforms to the benefit of meeting these standards and its own development.

As a result, the Stabilization and Association Agreement was signed with the European Union and the relations with the European Union became closer, official negotiations on the near future free movements of Albanians (visa exempted) in

¹ NATO HANDBOOK 2001. NATO Office of Information and Press 1110 Brussels – Belgium

² NATO HANDBOOK 2001. NATO Office of Information and Press 1110 Brussels – Belgium

³ Comitato Atlantico - Atlantic Treaty Association. *Le nuove dimensioni della sicurezza Atlantica. The new dimensions of Atlantic security.* Adncronos Dicembre 1997, Roma

the EU countries began, the minority rights respect and the government commitment to do the best for them in the future were improved, etc.

This is a progress also based upon tangible attainments in the Albanian economy: decrease of unemployment down to 14%, growth rate of 6,1% expected to continue with a slight increase the following two years, controlled inflation rate of 2-4%, decrease of the number of people living in poverty from 25% in 2002 to 18% in 2007, increase of the GDP per capita up to 11%, or about 3000 euro in 2007, very large investments in the road infrastructure where the fast construction of the new modern high way Durres-Kukes is the biggest and counts especially for the security of the Balkans region, implementation of the new flat income tax of 10%, decrease of insurance contributions by 30%, increase of the national revenues by 5% in the last two years, signature of free trade agreements with almost all the neighboring countries, increase of exports, large presence of foreign investments which have increased by about 81% in 2007 and they are expected to further increase during the 2008-2009 period, decrease of budget deficit from 5,2% in 2008 in 3,9 in 2009, positive changes of the business conditions, etc. As a result of this general country progress Albania made important steps on its way to Euro-Atlantic integrations. In June 2006, Albania signed the Stabilization and Association Agreement with the EU and in April 3, 2008, NATO invited the country to join NATO together with Croatia. The very day of April 3, much joy and enthusiasm was felt all over Albania. Randomly asked Albanians in the public about the significance of that invitation, they replied without hesitations that it means more national security, more guarantee for the Albanian democratic system, larger inflow of foreign investments, acceleration of the country progress towards EU, deeper absorption of the traditional democratic values that stand in the foundations of the Democratic States of the Euro Atlantic area, further moderation of the Albanian political elite, etc¹.

That day and after, the whole Albania were expressing their feelings of gratitude to the united states of America and all other NATO countries for this invitation and the peoples gave the impression that they were feeling more motivated to consolidate their country successes as a member of the NATO family of western democratic nations. It is also very true that, after that day, the image and position of Albania in the region and beyond changed substantially what means greater international role and responsibilities for Albania. By becoming soon (very hopefully in the next NATO Summit of 2009), a new member of the North Atlantic Alliance, Albania, as well, will bring inside it precious values such as the well-known excellent religious tolerance, its unique geopolitical position, human resources' as well as would help for further strengthening of the regional security, etc. After the Bucharest Summit, there is a shorter way but still a challenging way to go until Albania gets full membership into NATO. The country political elites as well as the Albanian people are very much aware that attaining full membership is a difficult process meaning a lot of work to do. However, even after full accession in NATO, there remain many objectives to attain at in view of Albania becoming more and more a dignified NATO member country just only because, among other things, NATO themselves is under a continuous transformation in the changed global conditions. Hence, after the Bucharest summit, Albania only ends the shortest part of its journey to start another longer journey towards its transformation into a respected NATO member country.

At the doorstep of NATO Summit-2009

Until the next NATO Summit in Strasburg-Kiel, Albania as a country waiting for NATO membership, has had some specific priority goals which from the point of view of comprehensiveness and importance can be arranged into two.

The first priority goal is the completion of the remained one-year long specific procedures to full NATO membership.

Among such procedures or tasks to be fulfilled by Albania, it might be mentioned: accession talks with a NATO team, preparation of legal documents and discussion of other technical issues, ensuring the protection of specific NATO classified information, preparation and ratification by the NATO member countries of the accession protocol to the Washington Treaty assignment of the financial contribution of Albania to NATO's common budget, formal confirmation of the commitment to fulfill the military obligations, undertaking of other specific military obligations, etc. Although almost all these have been the easiest tasks to be met, special attention and serious efforts must be deployed in order not to lose time.

Among those tasks, the preparation and ratification by the Parliaments of the NATO member countries of the Accession Protocol to the Washington Treaty has been the one the less dependent on the Albanian efforts. These tasks clearly were

¹ Programi Kombëtar Vjetor i Republikës së Shqipërisë për Anëtarësimin në NATO 2008/2009 - botim i Ministrisë Punëve të Jashtme

not only for the Ministry for Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Defense. They needed the concerted efforts of many actors inside Albania under the guidance of the Government. However, Albania has been doing its best in trying to lobby on the issue.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the parliament of Albania has been playing a very significant role in these efforts.

Special role to secure this foreign parliamentary support has been played by the Albanian Parliament what, in fact, is at the same time a development of a very new and efficient diplomatic aspect in the tradition of the Albanian parliamentarianism.

In general, all these specific procedure tasks are being done at a normal pace and Albania will have all of them completed on the eve of NATO Summit of the year 2009. However, in securing foreign parliamentary support for the ratification process by the NATO member countries, various difficulties have been met, mainly technical but sometimes mixed with unvoiced feelings of prejudices on Albania, or various pressures for narrow interest in exchange of the ratification. As long as all the procedures and the ratification process will have not yet ended in all the NATO member countries and despite all those serious and politically consensual efforts, the remained period until the full membership in NATO remains a challenge to Albania and this needs the greatest attention attached to it¹.

The second priority goal has been the completion of some particular democratic reforms considered equally very important by, NATO and EU, as well as the firm enforcement of the rule of equal law for all. The more concrete tasks behind this goal are the following. First, the most important task of Albania until the NATO Summit of Strasbourg-Keil is the tangible progress in the establishment of the needed legal framework and other facilities in view of organizing internationally accepted free and fair election process. Second, evident progress is needed in the reform of the judiciary in order that its independence is duly strengthened. Third, further improved cross political party relations are as well among the obligations of Albania. Fourth, increase of the firm continuation of the fight against crime and corruption to the benefit of the strong rule of law. In general, Albania has continuously shown determination in making democratic reforms in view of consolidating its democratic institutions, the rule of law, human rights and freedoms, as well as to further progress toward a modern and developed economy, based entirely upon free market values. These reforms have intensively continued, after the reception of the invitation to join NATO, at the Bucharest Summit. So, the Parliament approved by a large consensus early in April 2008 some amendments to the Constitution of the Republic of Albania on the electoral system and the organization of general elections, on the election of the President and on the appointment of the General Prosecutor.

In the mean time, National Electronic civil Registry is under preparation and will be ready by the beginning of the year 2009 and very soon after that, the electronic identity cards for all the Albanian citizens will begin to be distributed. This has been a very difficult task and often object of high political debates between ruling parties and opposition, but the truth is that after the democratic changes in Albania, a very spontaneous free movement of people inside Albania began and it was for many years so difficult to register all the displaced citizens all over Albania, let alone those citizens who left for abroad like emigrants.

Also, a new Electoral Code will soon pass in the Parliament, which is better than the old one and diminishes the possibilities of manipulating the votes at the expense of the free will of voters. The new Electoral Code will be a substantial contribution in increasing the quality of the parliamentary work, among other, because it is being prepared and will pass in the parliament by the consensus of most of the parties². However, the organization of the free and fair elections, as estimated by the specialized organizations like ODIHR/OSCE, remains one of the biggest challenges to the improvement of democratic institutions in Albania.

The judicial reform aiming at increasing the efficiency in the judiciary and strengthening of its independence is another dimension of the democratic reform in Albania, in fact, one of the most difficult aspects of this reform. Issue of a lot of political discussion in the Parliament and in the public media, the judicial reform is moving ahead by political consensus, but by slow paces as well. It is expected to end, in general, prior to the future NATO Summit. What's important, it's being

¹ Simon, Jeffrey. *Number 58: "NATO'S Membership Action Plan (MAP) And Prospects for the Next Round of Enlargement"*. November 2000

² Hudhra Thimi, *"Assession talks and the way ahead to full NATO-membership"*. 2008, Tiranë

done based upon a shared awareness of all the political actors and the judiciary employees themselves on the necessity of that reform.

A number of important laws are foreseen to pass in the Parliament by the year 2008, such as the following, "On the High Council of Justice", "On the Organization and Operation of the Prosecution Office", "On the Judiciary Administration", "On the Notary Service", "On the Enforcement of Penal Decisions", "On the Juridical Assistance", "On the Organization and Service Operation Related to Court Decisions Execution", "On the Administrative Courts", etc.

Another important aspect of the political reforms, which despite the progress above mentioned is still problematic, remains that of the relations between the political parties. Times and again, there are severe political parliamentary debates like in the case of the need of approving some constitutional changes for the electoral reform, or the approval of the New Electoral Code itself. However normal a discussion or even a severe debate might be and, independently of its content, the way it is being done, displays a lot of superfluous problems, such as the unjustified haste in the efforts to make changes, lack of possible comprehensive consultations with the different actors in politics and outside it about various problems of the reform, lack of sufficient arguments in the discussion about the reform, insufficient publicity or transparency on the reform so that the people know about it, lack of respect on the place and role of the political minorities like the small political parties, etc¹.

These shadows of an improved climate among the political actors in Albania which is an outcome of the present level of the political culture of Albania, can be overcome by being based upon a very important democratic principle like that of the consensus, because, for example, the changes in the electoral system have to do with the rules of game in the election process, and consequently, they can't be imposed by the two biggest political parties like it is the case in Albania.

Other challenges being faced with are the continuation of the uncompromised fight against organized crime and illicit trafficking of any types, corruption and informality and the further consolidation of the public administration capacities.

A lot has been done in this area, but considering the proper eradication of these phenomena is a long-term goal, that fight remains a permanent priority goal of Albania. So far, here are some indicators of the success in this field: Albania has remarkably moved its position in the TI classification, from 126th country among 158 states in 2005 to the 105th position among 179 states in 2007; according to the latest polls (including the Global corruption Barometer), there is a considerable decline of corruption, such as, in the customs administration, from 46% in 2006 to 27% in 2007 and in the police sector, from 60% in 2006 to 46% in 2007; a substantial decline in terms of citizens' lack of trust in the effectiveness of the Government's anti-corruption measures, from 53% in 2006 to 26% in 2007; as a result of the fight against fiscal and customs evasion, the state budget revenues are higher than expected, from 22% of the GDP to 27, or more than 1,2 Billion US Dollars; the fair administration of revenues have enabled the adoption for three consecutive years of a supplementary budget in the mid-budget year; in the framework of eliminating business barriers, 60% of the business licenses have been removed, what means that out of a general number of 142 business licenses, nearly 81 have been eliminated, facilitating in this way the business and eliminating corruption; only the. Audit Service of the Anti-Corruption Department at the Prime Minister's Office has conducted 3.000 controls and inspections, out of which 200 cases have been referred to for criminal prosecution and, 400 public officials have been proposed to be either fired or subject to other administrative measures; following a Memorandum of Understanding among the General Prosecution Office, the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Finance and the Informative Service, in the second semester of 2007, the Joint Unit for the Investigation of Corruption and Economic Crime was set up and it has performed a series of successful investigations, which led to the arrests of several public officials on the account of corruption charge, over 120 officials have been arrested, among them a Deputy Minister, a Secretary General in a Ministry, 3 Heads of municipalities, several Senior Directors and other public officials of various levels, etc., etc. On one side, Albania has been commended for the recent successes in this fight, on the other side, the criticism remains to work more in the related area. What's promising here is that the Albanian government has shown publicly its awareness on the need to continue this important successful fight for the enforcement of the rule of law by further adoption of a zero-tolerance policy against these anti-law phenomena. In the coming period, it is planned to further curb the corruption phenomenon by better identifying the crimes in the economic area and by strengthening the capacities in the fight against corruption, money laundering, cultivation of illicit drugs and other economic crimes.

¹ Lucioli, Fabrizio W. *Albania and NATO. Secretary of the Italian Atlantic Committee*; 13 International Conference of the Albanian Atlantic Council. 20 March 2009, Tirane

Considering that a strong and developed economy is a fundamental pillar of the country security and an added value to NATO where Albania has been invited to become a member, the old property restitution problem is also very important. Unfortunately, there were many abuses in the restitution process which is still going on for more than one decade in Albania. As long as this process will not be over, it will exist at the expense of the social cohesion of Albania (thousands of law conflicts on property issues going on), inflow of foreign investments and rates of economic development¹.

Challenges of NATO Integration - Defense Issues

Those who have some expertise in the NATO integration process accept that NATO membership is more a political than a military issue. This is true, as much as the significant impact of the military area in meeting the political objectives. All NATO basic documents at the strategic level define the nature of the Alliance as a security organization where all the decision are taken at the political level bodies of this organization, in the North Atlantic council².

It is very important to explain: first, the definition of NATO membership and second, the definition of NATO integration. Very often discussion made about the two definitions by not well informed, people are confusing the definition with each other and often they identify both as the same processes.

Together with many similar aspects both processes have in common, based upon the concept of the basic NATO documents, the membership in the Alliance is the day of full membership of a country in the Alliance linked with "de jure" membership, and the integration into the Alliance is a much longer process having to do with the development of the national capabilities in the political, economic, military financial, legal and information security areas. Development of these capabilities takes normally longer than the date of membership in the Alliance implying both the contributions to and the benefits from the collective security of a member country. Such things are not supposed to be met at the first day of membership in the Alliance.

Based on the NATO concept for the new number countries (based on the article 10 of the North Atlantic Treaty), and based also upon the experience of the last 10 new countries accepted in to last rounds of endangerment, the NATO integration process is divided in three main phases: the first phase – the pre-invitation phase, the second phase- the pre-accession phase, and the third phase- the integration phase. Albania last year was at the pre-accession phase, which was expected to last till next Summit of the Alliance in spring 2009. Later, it is the integration phase, which is the phase of other commitments which are not met before the NATO membership day. Not only the theory, but the practice also has shown that the integration phase into the Alliance for the 10 newly NATO members in the last two rounds of enlargement has extended for at least 5 to 10 years after the day of their full membership. The full integration phase, in the military area, is the phase of transformation of Albanian Armed Forces based on the NATO nine pillars' DOTMELPET concept: Doctrine development (D), organization structure (O), Training and exercises (T), Material Modernization (M), Education system (E), Leadership development (L), Personnel management (P), Facilities development (F), and Interoperability of declared military units with other NATO countries (I).

As a taxpayer, the Albanian citizen of the United Europe fully deserves to become more aware not only for the benefits stemming from membership from him and his country, but also for the contributions he and his country will give to the Alliance.

Albania should not become despite that in five or ten years from NATO membership day, Albania might have a lower support for the integration issues, let say from 92 % now to 80% in a few years. This is not a surprise. This support is decided by, the conscience of the citizens, and not by the politicians and the military; we are all in their service and should constantly reflect the causes of their concerns.

Although the Albanian citizens are fully supporting the integration, because of the small territorial size of the country, long isolation sufferings, NATO support to their cause and many other reasons. Albanians should be more deeply engaged in the integration discussions, where our sons and daughters will be active part of that organization politically and militarily.

¹ Comitato Atlantico - Atlantic Treaty Association. *Tomorrow's leaders and the future of Euro-Atlantic security*. Rome Atlantic Forum. 25-27 September 2006, Rome

² Balenbois, Anne-Marie. *"Tell me about NATO"*. Collection du citoyen. Nane Éditions, July 2004, Paris

What are the benefits? What are the obligations?

These are normal questions worth giving related answers for every politician, citizen, expert, analyst, military or journalist in accordance with their area of interest and level of culture.

First, the benefits of membership in the Alliance for a small country like Albania are unquestionable when compared with the contributions we will offer to the Alliance. We will offer modest contributions having back unimaginable benefits; part of which cannot be calculated by numbers. This does not mean what some "experts" have expressed that we do not need the armed forces at all after NATO integration because we have the Alliance. On the contrary, this means we need a new Armed Force in shape and substance to fulfill the constitutional mission with a new defense concept. This change of defense concept has started since we were a partner and later an aspirant country.

That means that from an Armed Force of the totalitarian regime of some 100 thousand active personnel force and some 500 thousands reserve and volunteers force under the concepts of the total defense of the country "with our own forces" and "all citizens as soldiers", we dramatically change to an all professional force of some 14 thousands personnel, adopting the concept of benefits from collective defense for the defense of the country associated together with contribution to the Alliance article 5 and non-article 5 missions.

What is very important is that the membership in the Alliance gives multiple positive economic effects to the development of the country.

This makes the 2% of GDP allocated to the defense reforms now and in the long term really minimal and worth merited, compared with the positive impacts that the membership gives to the security, to the foreign investments and to the economy of the country. Many other newly accepted NATO countries have felt the impact of considerable progress and investments in their country when they joined the Alliance¹.

Countries such as Bulgaria, Slovakia, Romania, three Baltic countries, etc are the proof of this impact soon after their NATO membership.

Second, everybody agrees that NATO membership is not simply a question of benefits; that would be absurd. The membership is also a question of common contributions based upon the producible of "sharing responsibilities, burdens and roles" among the members of the Alliance. One thing is for sure; our military contributions stemming from the membership in to the Alliance are in full accordance with our national possibilities and they are based upon the common share rules of the Alliance.

Given that the main focus of this chapter is dedicated to the defense challenges of the integration process, and in order that it becomes as less propagandistic as possible. It is worth mentioning that the integration process is not just a formal process; it is a long, complex and complicated process asking for devotion and dedication of human, material and financial resources and development for enquired capabilities in 5 well known areas: political and economic, military, legal, financial, and security of classified information areas. As an aspirant country, Albania didn't have any binding obligation and responsibility to the Alliance commitments, and after getting full membership status, Albania feel more responsible for "sharing the roles, responsibilities and the burdens" as a member of the Alliance.

In this context, just reminding the difference between the definition for membership in the Alliance and the integration, Albania have ahead immediate challenges asking for immediate remedies before the next NATO Summit of Spring 2009, and other mid and long term challenges, which require more time, careful planning, efforts and recourses based upon identified priorities.

The major conceptual change in the defense reform of an aspiring country to NATO membership consists in the adoption of a complex process of transformation of the Armed Forces, from force based upon the individual defense in a force based on collective, defense concept. This transformation implies the determination in the continuation of defense forms of the integration of the nine previously mentioned components of the DOTMEPFI in required military capabilities for national missions and under the context of collective defense.

¹ Second Round of Accession Talks. 09 May 2008, Brussels

In military terms, a country aspiring for NATO membership should meet, by the time of accession, what in NATO terminology is called "Minimum Military Requirements". After the accession in the Alliance, all the newly accepted countries should be prepared to integrate into the NATO collective defense planning process, taking in the national responsibilities of contribution with military forces, sharing also the budget, the military personnel infrastructure and other resources.

From a realistic perspective, it is to be mentioned that the Armed Forces have done a lot for meeting the basic requirements for NATO membership, begin at the top of the Albanian institutions for the efforts made and the contribution given to the issue. However, under the same realistic perspective.

The defense institution has done a lot to meet the challenges of the parent and aspirant status of the country, it has performed constant elements of defense reforms with quantity and quality values; the challenges ahead will have a main focus and "target" the quality of transformation rather than quantity of the Albanian Armed Forces institution.

The military aspect has been "de-facto" engaged much earlier in the membership issues. The Armed Forces have started to contribute in international operations since 1996 in IFOR, ALTHEAL etc, and later in Iraq, in Afghanistan, in Chad, in Georgia, etc. The Armed Forces personnel, officers, NCO-s, professional soldiers and civilians, have been lucky to participate in hundreds and hundreds annual events and activities such as international missions and exercises, conferences, seminars, symposiums, round tables, training and long term education courses in almost all NATO countries, and NATO Schools and College such as in Rome and Oberammergau.

This wide participation has given the Armed Forces the experience, the expertise and modern concepts to be applied in the reality of the armed forces units.

Albania and the Armed Forces are in much favorable situation than the other aspirant countries previously accepted in the last two NATO rounds of enlargement in Washington and Istanbul. Their Lessons Learned, the positive and negative experiences are drawn carefully by our military experts. From the lessons learned, one thing is very important; the impression we will convey in the first year, after the full membership, will remain the impression of 26 countries of the Alliance for many years to come.

That means that Albania should engage their best people, develop the most functional procedures and most appropriate structures, and devote most of the recourse to the priority requirements, etc¹.

Bibliography

Albanian Atlantic Association - Fondacioni Shqipetar I Shoqerise Civile. *Contribute towards a stable peace in the Balcans*. Konferenca e 3-te Nderkombetare, 21-23 Nentor 1997

Albanian Atlantic Association. *Factors of stability in the Balkans*; 1996, Tirane-Albania

Albanian Atlantic Association. *The Balkans after the Dayton Accord*. International Conference, 13-15 December 1996, Albania. Elio 1997, Tirane

Atlantic Council of Albania - [Atlantic Treaty Association](#). *On the way to the full membership of Albania in NATO and beyond... Challenge*

Balenbois, Anne-Marie. "Tell me about NATO". Collection du citoyen. Nane Éditions, July 2004, Paris

Comitato Atlantico - Atlantic Treaty Association. *Le nuove dimensioni della sicurezza Atlantica. The new dimensions of Atlantic security*. Adncronos December 1997, Roma

Comitato Atlantico - Atlantic Treaty Association. *Tomorrow's leaders and the future of Euro-Atlantic security*. Rome Atlantic Forum. 25-27 September 2006, Rome

Hudhra Thimi, "Assession talks and the way ahead to full NATO-membership". 2008, Tiranë

¹ Simon, Jeffrey. *Number 58: "NATO'S Membership Action Plan (MAP) And Prospects for the Next Round of Enlargement"*. November 2000

Keshilli Atlantik i Shqiperise – Atlantic Council of Albania. *Prijet e politikës botërore dhe Shqiperia seri ligjeratash publike; Trends of world policy and Albania series of public lectures*. PEGI, Tirane

Leci, Elmaz. *NATO dhe Shqiperia*. Koha 1999, Tirane

Lucioli, Fabrizio W. *Albania and NATO. Secretary of the Italian Atlantic Committee; 13 International Conference of the Albanian Atlantic Council*. 20 March 2009, Tirane

NATO HANDBOOK 2001. NATO Office of Information and Press 1110 Brussels – Belgium

Programi Kombëtar Vjetor i Republikës së Shqipërisë për Anëtarësimin në NATO 2008/2009 - botim i Ministrisë Punëve të Jashtme

Second Round of Accession Talks. 09 May 2008, Brussels

Simon, Jeffrey. *Number 58: "NATO'S Membership Action Plan (MAP) And Prospects for the Next Round of Enlargement"*. November 2000

Urban Sociology and the City

Erjona Fusha

University of Tirana, Faculty of Social Sciences

Abstract

This article aims the reviewing of some challenges of our days. The main subject of this article will be the city and the relation between individuals. Furthermore, it examines the trends of the city development. Among others we discuss the trends of the globalization, information technology and specific types of cultural diversity. The paper will also analyze the role that space plays in the living of the individuals. The architects of modern times have paid special attention to the creation and management of the public spaces. For many years the public spaces has been part of the debate, on one side stands the privatization of the public space while on the other side stands the true nature and concept of this word. Living in private means to be disadvantaged from the vital items of a truly human life. Furthermore it means to be disadvantaged from the reality that stems from being seen and heard by others as well as being disadvantaged from an “objective” relationship with them. At the same time, living in private means being disadvantaged from the possibility of feeling something more permanent than life itself.

Keywords: urban sociology, city, space, individual and information technology

Introduction

In the early of 90-s, after the fall of communism, many Albanians understood as freedom the emigration and choosing of their residence within the country. Since 1991 began the migrating of the Albanian, a mass movement, in the form of an exodus, within and outside of Albania. Massive displacement of the rural population is mainly oriented towards the coastal cities, and especially in the central area of the country, which includes Tirana and Durres.

Generally, the Albanian cities and Tirana in particular, have experienced the drama of urbanization, while communities suffer all the consequences of this process happened after 1990. During these years the Albanian society eager for freedom, faced not only the influx of villagers mainly toward big cities and urban territories, but also the lack of administrative control, lack of law implementation, misuse of property rights and the manipulation of it.

This movement brought the difficulty in the circulation of vehicles and people as well as the misuse of spaces between buildings, the reduction of green areas per capita etc. The expansion of the cities came as a result of the growth of population and migration or from the separation of the people from the farms, villages and small towns.

In Tirana, factors developments before 1990as well as factors after 1990 have designed social boundaries of the urban society of the capital where we can easily distinguish between: social difference in the way and standards of living, education and culture; diversity with regional bases and other distinctive identities among social groups (Dervishi Z., 2013: 86); emphatic political diversity, which is a typical Albanian urban phenomenon; different statuses in ownership relation, social boundaries created by the processes of migration , etc. The main differences between the rural and urban life became apparent, they are seen in the fact that life in the village is lived more for the community, while in the city people are closer to their self.

Generally during the XXI century, many families which are rich or very rich, abandon their homes in the central areas of the city and build new villas in the surroundings. The rich people’s moves in the surroundings of the city because they intend to leave areas with highest level of environmental pollution. They also create a separate living with large apartments, swimming pools, green spaces and tennis courts.

Public spaces in the city

The architects of modern times have paid special attention to the creation and management of public spaces. For many years the public spaces has been part of the debate, on one hand stands the privatization of public space while on the other side stands the true nature and concept of this word. Living totally in private means, above all, to be deprived from the essential items of a truly human life: to be deprived from the reality that stems from being seen and heard by others, being deprived from an "objective" relationship with them, which comes from being connected and shared with them via the mediation of a common world of things, being deprived from the possibility of reaching something more permanent than life itself.

Deprivation of privacy lies in the absence of the others; As for those, private man does not appear, hence it likely he doesn't exist. (Arendt, 2006; 88-89). So it is necessary that each individual should use public spaces in order to be part of the society. To be included and fully realized it is necessary this use of public spaces. Public space is usable by all individuals. The more visible public spaces are public parks, beaches, squares and streets. Generally, we do not have to pay any fee or tax for the usage.

An important place in the lives of individuals, in all cities of the world throughout the history has occupied the difference between public and private. From the outset it was determined that what part is private or public. Some parts are protected and separately, they also have certain signs and are restricted for public use, where foreigners cannot be entered without certain permission. This defines the private space. While public spaces can be used by all, where anyone at any hour of the day can use it without any restriction. But it cannot miss the control over this place in order not to harm it, it should be stored. Private property is a human mechanism. It is not sacred. It was born in the early epochs of history when people with power and authority, adopted what were not previously owned by anyone (Mises: 179). Public spaces are under the public authority, it has to do with people, and it is in their disposal and can be used by the entire community. For the public space we have three important components: action, use and interest (agency, access and interest). A noticeable phenomenon, primarily in urban centers has to do with the fact of privatization of a part of the public space. New buildings constructed in the center of Tirana are multi-stage, without a green space between the buildings as well as without gardens or parks for the children. These constructions have affected a part of the public space that previously was used by the citizens. Public squares of the residential areas are the most used by the peoples. They are used by groups to meet each other, to greet each other, etc.

The relations between individuals and modern cities

We come into world, as individuals, achieve character, and become persons. (Goffman; 1959: 20). Society, as we know, is all of us; it is a lot of people together. But a lot of people together in India and China from a different kind of society than in America or Britain; the society formed by many individual people in Europe in the twelfth century was different from that in the sixteenth or the twentieth century. And although all these societies certainly consisted and consist of nothing other than many individuals, the change from one form of living together to another was clearly unplanned by any of these individuals. (Elias; 1991: 3)

Society means concerted action and cooperation. Among others, society is the result of a conscious behavior and deliberate, it doesn't mean that individuals have a contract on the basis of which they have built the foundations of human society. Actions that led to social cooperation and made it to repeat every day do not intend anything except cooperation and mutual assistance for achieving specific goals. The entire complex of bilateral relations created by such concerted actions is called society. (Mises; 194)

Our life is increasingly under the influence of events that occurs quite far away from the social framework where we perform our daily activities. When an individual appears in the presence of others, there will usually be some reason for him to mobilize his activity so that it will convey an impression to others which it is in his interests convey. (Goffman. E: 1959: 4). In modern circumstances, the deprivation from the "objective" relations with others and by a guarantee through their reality has become a mass phenomenon of loneliness, a phenomenon that has become more extreme and inhuman. (Arendt.H: 2006; 89).

The routine of the daily life that puts us in a relationship which is more or less continually and intimate with the others is the key part of our social activity. Life is organized around the repetition of similar patterns of behavior from day to day. It is

probably no mere historical accident that the word person, in its meaning, is a mask. It is rather recognition of the fact that everyone is always and everywhere, more or less consciously, playing a role.... It is in these roles that we know each other; it is in these roles that we know ourselves. (Goffman: 1959: 19).

The development of the cities has had a powerful impact not only on the habits and ways of behavior, but also in the thought patterns. A lot of people live in cities close to each other without knowing each other personally. Most contacts are fleeting and partial. Since they live in urban areas, they tend to be constantly in motion; the links between them are relatively weak. Passers intensely watch each other and then they throw away when they are closer with the other person, they demonstrate what Erving Goffman calls civil inattention, which we seek from each other in many situations. Civil inattention does not mean ignoring the other person. Any other individual shows recognition of the presence of that person, but he avoids any gesture that could be taken as more interventionists. (Goffman, E; 1971).

Showing civil inattention to others is something that we do more or less unconsciously. With that, most of people give each other the understanding that they have no reasons to suspect the goals of the others, to be hostile to them or to avoid them. (Goffman, 1963). Community spirit is also dim; the newcomers live "inside" of their subcultures. This is easily understandable to their way of behavior, their dress, communication and dialects they use. Sub cultural diversity is expressed also in the material culture, in internal mobility, especially in the architectural appearance of the house. Community spirit among the residents of the city of Tirana is very poor or non-existent. In such conditions, the newcomers are not integrated or they are incorporated with difficulty. Mutual recognition between neighbors are some faint.

To the degree that a performance highlights the common official values of the society in which it occurs, we may look upon it in the manner of Durkheim and Radcliffe-Brown, as a ceremony-as an expressive rejuvenation and reaffirmation of the moral values of the community. (Goffman; 1959: 35)

Chicago's school and urban life

Chicago's school played a very important role in the establishment of urban sociology. The University of Chicago was founded in 1882 while the Department of Sociology was established later. This university published the very famous sociological magazine "American Journal of Sociology". From this school, preoccupation about urban sociology expressed Robert Park which published the article "city". A number of writers, collaborators at the University of Chicago from 1920 to 1940, especially Robert Park, Ernest Burgess and Louis Wirth, developed ideas and conducts research in the field of urban sociology.

Chicago's School developed two concepts in the field of urban sociology:

The so-called ecological direction that indicate the adoption of people towards the environment. Cities do not arise in an ordinary way but in accordance with the environment, so they are concentrating in appropriate areas where it can be supplied with raw materials in order to secure the living.

Urbanism in social groups such as lifestyle was developed by Wirth (Park 1952; Wirth, 1938). Wirth elaborated the concept that the degree to which the modern world can be said that it is urban cannot be measured accurately by the percentage of the total population living in cities. Wirth also notes that in cities, people lives closely to each other without knowing personally - an important difference with traditional small villages. So he analyzes what urbanism is as a social form.

Tirana's urban life, mainly the life away from the downtown resembles to the urban development of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century described by George Simmel. While describing the urban metropolis life he thought that:

"there were two important trends of urban life which determines the thought and action of urban communities: the intensity of stimulating nerves or feeling in the city as well as the failing to control the effects of market relations areas, where the society had no other choice but whistling to become insensitive to events and people around them. Unexpected floods and spurt explosions were the psychological indicators of social life in the urban space" (1903: 18).

Even in contemporary Tirana at the beginning of the XXI century we experience inhuman outbreaks for a car scratch, for the race who passes first over the bridge or "why you are watching me like that?" and other similar behavior of urban society of western countries a century ago.

Why so?

Albanian cities in general and Tirana in particular have experienced the drama of urbanization backward while communities suffer all the consequences of this process of the period after 1990.

During these years the Albanian society eager for freedom faced invasions of villagers mainly to big cities and urban territories. The lack of administrative control and law enforcement, misuse of property rights and manipulating her and other conditions created a distinct reality for urban territories in Albaniasimilar to early Western urbanism which coincides with the start of the journey of industrialization estimated by Max Weber, George Simmel, Louis Wirth, etc.

The dominance of the city, especially of the great city, may be regarded as a consequence of the concentration in cities of industrial and commercial, financial and administrative facilities and activities, transportation and communication lines, and cultural and recreational equipment such as the press, radio stations, theatres, libraries, museums, concert halls, operas, hospital, higher educational institutions, research and publishing centers, professional organizations, and religious and welfare institutions. (Louis, Wirth; 5)

"Urbanism as a way of life", published in 1938, was one of the most influential articles ever written. This article paved an order research to examine how cities produce forms of social interactiondifferent from that of rural areasand throw ideas on how to distinguish the way of life between urban and rural areas.

Wirth and Redfiels which contributed also to the development of interest toward urban and rural cultures wrote at the time when the fame of Chicago was threatened by other American departments, by earning a mark of scientific in sociology. In the 1930s the Chicago's school revised the traditional topics within a positivist framework, more liked for the intellectual climate.Wirth tried to analyze the urban culture by distinguishing three "independent variables" - mass,density and heterogeneity – which were seen as contributing factors of urban cultural life.To narrow the study of urban culturesit became important to compare it with another "dependent" variable, in this case, the rural culture. In one important aspect Wirth reached beyond the measure to raise empirically a testable hypothesis that has sparked a great debate since that time. With's basic argument was that the life of the city was characterized by disorder and social isolation which comes from the fact that cities are large, densely and heterogeneous.

Conclusions

During the XXI century, many families which were rich or very rich abandoned their homes in the central areas of the city and build new villas in the surroundings.

Public space is usable by all individuals. The more visible public spaces are public parks, beaches, squares and streets.

A noticeable phenomenon, primarily in urban centers has to do with the fact of privatization of a part of the public space.

Our life is increasingly under the influence of events that occurs quite far away from the social framework where we perform our daily activities.

A lot of people live in cities close to each other without knowing each other personally.

References

- Dervishi, Zyhdi. Njëpërdeqëzime të kulturës shqiptare.Shtëpia Botuese "Emal", Tiranë 2013
- Elias, Norbert. *The society of individuals*: Continuum; New York. 1991
- Goffman, Erving 1959: *The presentation of self in everyday life*: Doubleday, New York
- Goffman, Erving 1963: *Behavior in public Places* (New York: Double Anchor)
- Goffman, Erving 1971: *Relations in Public: Micro studies of the public Order* (London: Allen Lane)
- Hannah, Arendt 2006: *Gjendjanjerëzore* (IPLS&Dita 2000)
- Georg Simmel, "*The Metropolis and Mental Life*" (1903) in Gary Bridge and Sophie Watson, eds. *The Blackwell City Reader*. Oxford and Malden, MA;
- Ludwing von Mises, *Vepiminjerëzor*, Dita 2000
- Louis, Wirth; *Urbanism as way of life*; *The American Juornal of Sociology*

Adaptation and Appropriation in Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest*

Raad Kareem Abd-Aun, PhD

Assist. Prof. , University of Babylon, Iraq.

Qaiser Munir Diab, BEd

Independent Researcher.

Abstract

Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest* is one of the earliest adaptations of a Western canonical work. It is an adaptation of Shakespeare's *The Tempest*. Césaire's play conveys his anti-colonialist ideas, exploring the relationship between Prospero, the colonizer, and his colonial subjects, Caliban and Ariel, from the perspective of the colonized. Comparing the characterization and the colonizer/colonized relationship in the two plays, this paper attempts to illustrate how Césaire uses Shakespeare's text to address the ills of colonialism and turn the tables on the colonizer using one of the masterpieces of the western canon. It also attempts to show how Césaire uses the mechanics of adaptation and appropriation to achieve his goals.

Keywords: adaptation; appropriation; Césaire, Aimé; *A Tempest*.

I. Introduction

Adaptation is the ability to make fit or suitable by changing, or adjusting, modifying something to create a change in structure, function, and form, which produces a better adjustment and to adapt means to transpose from one medium or genre (e.g. a novel, short story, poem) to another genre or medium, such as a film or stage play. It can also involve adapting the same literary work in the same genre or medium, just for different purposes. It is defined by Julie Sanders as "a specific process involving the transition from one genre to another: novels into film; drama into musical; dramatization of prose narratives and prose fiction; or the inverse movement of making drama into prose narrative" (2007, p. 17-18).

Appropriation means borrowing, imitating, taking over or using someone's idea or concept as a raw material to produce something original or at least something evidently different (Massai, 2007).

It is noticed that in both cases of adaptation and appropriation a generic shift may or may not happen. Also, these two terms in many ways "intersect and interrelate, yet it is equally important to maintain some clear distinctions between them as creative activities" (Massai, 2007).

In the process of adaptation, we have a clear and obvious signal and relationship with an informing source text (the original text). While in the appropriation process, the case is somehow different because the appropriated texts do not have that clear or obvious signal or relationship with the original text. Also, adaptations are obviously a re-reading or interpretation of a text while appropriations are more subtle. In adaptations, we often have a cultural change involved, an updating of the text for current audiences, or a different context while appropriations are less explicit and the text is often re-interpreted through political or ethical lenses. Appropriation constitutes sustained engagement with the text, but often adopts "a posture of critique (perhaps even assault)" (Nicklas & Lindner, 2012, p. 25).

In the late twentieth century, "avant-garde" writings offer a scenario in which ability or even necessity of being "original" is questioned in the domain of arts and literature, so the old question "imitation or originality" becomes, therefore, redundant from the perspective of adaptation and appropriation. Edward Said suggested on originality that "the writer thinks less of writing originally, and more of rewriting" (as cited in Kundu, 2008, p. 388-389).

II. Adaptation and Appropriation in Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest*

One of the writers who made use of adaptation and appropriation in his works was Aimé Césaire. He was a poet, playwright and a politician; also, he was one of the most influential Francophone Caribbean writers of his generation. Aimé Césaire was one of the founding fathers of Negritude, this concept or movement is defined as "affirmation that one is black and proud of it" (as cited in Lam, 2013, p. 302).

The black consciousness movement has sought to "assert pride in African cultural values to counterbalance the inferior status accorded to them in European colonial thinking" (Thieme, 2008).

Césaire saw Negritude as a "historical phenomenon that had evolved from commonalities in the post-colonial history of African peoples, particularly the experience of the Atlantic slave ships and plantation slavery" (Thieme, 2008).

Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest* deals with colonialism, and in this play, he discusses his idea of Negritude. It is a call for freedom and a reflection of the ways of how to get freedom. In this play, Césaire not only "re-reads and re-writes Shakespeare's *The Tempest* but expresses one of the most fundamental concerns of postcolonial literature; the effects of place and displacement on both the colonizer's and the colonized's sense of identity" (Maricondi, 1996, p. 47).

William Shakespeare's *The Tempest* possesses some "European biases in the justification of colonization among the colonized countries while Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest* is written as a postcolonial response to William Shakespeare's *The Tempest* and embodies the spirit of rebellion of the oppressed peoples against the European colonization" (Guo, 2008, p. 13).

Césaire's version of this play explores in further depth and studies thoroughly the original concepts and themes of colonialism and Negritude, which Césaire studied extensively. *A Tempest* addresses modernist issues and theories such as colonialism, racism and color discrimination through the utilization of a classic play most modern readers are familiar with (Césaire, 1972).

Post-colonial theatre is used as an anti-imperial tool, as a forefront for struggle against colonization and its implications, because of its own strong public dimension. All the playwrights from decolonized areas share the same project of dismantling the colonizer's rule, and influence. Colonization used literature as a weapon of cultural control to influence the native and to increase the status and superiority of European cultures. A need arose to evoke the point of view of the colonized through counter-colonial discourse (Memmi, 1991).

In this adaptation the main theme is changed, the protagonist is changed and the narration is changed and as such it deals much more with the story from the point of view of Caliban and Ariel. In making *A Tempest* an adaptation for black theater, Césaire suggests his governing principle: the master/slave relationship. This relationship between the colonizer and the colonized in Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest* is manifested clearly through two major characters, Prospero and Caliban, the former is the representative of colonizers while the latter is the representative of the colonized (Dixit, 2015).

Caliban is portrayed as an oppressed native and a rebel against colonization, fighting vigorously through various means to achieve his ultimate goal, freedom. The colonizer, Prospero, on the other hand is portrayed as the exploitative usurper of self-determinism, land, property, dignity, and even identity of the colonized peoples. This struggle between the colonizer (Prospero) and the colonized (Caliban) creates the main conflict in the play (James, 1978).

Aimé Césaire replaces the article "the" with "a" suggesting a singular storm rather than a universal one. The title of Aimé Césaire's play, *A Tempest*, is a deconstruction of the title of William Shakespeare's play, *The Tempest*. In addition, the title *A Tempest* may suggest that the storm is not a creation of the magician Prospero (the colonizer); instead, it is a natural ongoing process and a regular phenomenon and this undermines the power of the colonizer (Prospero). It may also suggest the change in the black society through destruction and regeneration (James, 1978).

In this play, Aimé Césaire designed Caliban as a black slave, Ariel as a mulatto because mulatto slaves were traditionally viewed as better treated and he puts them on an island in order to set the action within a recognizable set of Caribbean problems of material and cultural dominance (Keane, 2014).

It is noticed in this play that Aimé Césaire transforms the characters and transposes the scenes to reveal Prospero as the exploitative power-hungry European colonizer who exploits not only the land but also the minds of the colonized, and Caliban and Ariel as the exploited natives (Bakshi, Sengupta, & Pau, 2009).

In Shakespeare's *The Tempest*, Caliban is seen as an offspring of the witch Sycorax, and servant of the noble wizard Prospero who views Caliban as "Nurture can never stick; on whom my pains\ Humanely taken - all, all lost, quite lost!\ And, as with age his body uglier grows,\ So his mind cankers" (Shakespeare, 1999, p. 257). Contrary to Shakespeare's Caliban, Césaire's Caliban is completely different. He is seen as a colonized black native whose land has been taken and whose language and culture Prospero's has displaced. Césaire's Caliban is much more vocal and articulate, and his arguments for freedom are much forceful and to the point, revealing his strong indignation towards being conquered and enslaved (Morals-Daz, 2006):

Caliban: That is right, that is right! In the beginning, the gentleman was all sweet talk: dear Caliban here, my little Caliban there! And what do you think you'd have done without me in this strange land? Ingrate! I taught you the trees, fruits, birds, the seasons, and now you don't give a damn ... Caliban the animal, Caliban the slave! I know that story! Once you have squeezed the juice from the orange, you toss the rind away!

Prospero: Oh!

Caliban: Do I lie? Isn't it true that you threw me out of your house and made me live in a filthy cave. The ghetto! (Césaire, 1992, p. 13)

In Césaire's *A Tempest*, Prospero is portrayed as a slave-driving exploiter who is preying on Caliban's and Ariel's weaknesses and using his power to deprive them of their freedom and make them obey him even if they do not like it (Innes, 2007):

Prospero: Well Ariel!

Ariel: Mission accomplished.

Prospero: Bravo, good work! Are you tired?

Ariel: Not tired; disgust, I obeyed you but – well, why not come with it? – I did so much unwillingly. It was a real pain to see the great ship go down, so full of life (Césaire, 1992, p. 9).

In this conversation, we see that Prospero has ordered Ariel to crash the ship that holds the king of Naples (Alonso). The main thing that should be noticed in this conversation is that Ariel did not want to do that but he had to do it. He cannot follow or listen to his heart. He has to follow only his master. He has to think about his master and his master's aims and wishes only (Innes, 2007):

Prospero: Oh, so you are upset, are you! It is always like that with you intellectuals! Who cares! What interests me is not your moods, but your deeds. Let us split: I will take the zeal.

Ariel: Master, I must beg you to spare me this kind of labor.

Prospero: (shouting) Listen and listen good! There is a task to be performed, and I do not care how it gets done (Césaire, 1992, p. 9-10).

The colonizers treated their slaves like animals, if not worse, and they had no respect for their cultures and traditions. Aimé Césaire tried to highlight this idea in the play through Prospero who insults Caliban's mother by calling her ("a ghoul") and shows no respect nor any regard to Caliban's native language (Shah, 2010):

Prospero: Mumbling your native language again! I have already told you, I do not like it. You could be polite at least; a simple "hello" would not kill you (Césaire, 1992, p. 11).

The colonizers not only disrespect the traditions and cultures of the colonized people, but also have no regard for their identity. This idea is clearly seen through Caliban's extreme unhappiness with his name because it is associated with the savages and cannibals (Hymowitz, Ivor, & Anderson, 2003):

Caliban: Put it this way: I am telling you from now on I will not answer the name Caliban.

Prospero: Where did you get that idea?

Caliban: Well, because Caliban is not my real name. It is as simple as that.

Prospero: Oh, I suppose it is mine!

Caliban: It is the name given by your hatred, and every time it is spoken, it is an insult (Césaire, 1992, p. 14-15).

It may be true that there were cannibals somewhere in Africa in Shakespeare's time. Nevertheless, it is not necessarily true that all the Africans were cannibals. Therefore, the politics behind the naming of Caliban in Shakespeare's *The Tempest* is harshly criticized in Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest*. The name Caliban undoubtedly evokes criticism as it may refer to cannibal or savages and as a result we see Caliban contemptuously informs Prospero that he wishes to be called "X" (Frank, 2009):

Caliban: Call me X. That would be best like a man without a name - or, to be more precise, a man whose name has been stolen. You talk about history...well that is history, and everyone knows it! Every time you summon me, it reminds me of a basic fact, the fact that you have stolen everything from me, even my identity! Uhuru! (Césaire, 1992, p. 15)

Caliban's desire to be called "X" can be seen as the strongest act of resistance and a total rejection to the authority of the colonizer (Prospero). It is impossible not to specifically identify Caliban with Malcolm X who was an African-American Muslim minister, a human rights activist and a courageous advocate for the rights of blacks, or any number of other Black radicals in many countries who assumed the role of revolutionaries. Aimé Césaire is trying to de-mystify the old myths about the Africans as cannibals, savages, animalistic, lustful and childlike people and tries to portray them as they are through the characterization of Caliban (Rider, 1999).

Language is an important tool to fight back and to represent self and race. The language in which Prospero commands Caliban is also used by both Shakespeare's and Césaire's Caliban but with a difference. In Shakespeare's *The Tempest*, Caliban is seen as the victim of the language he has been taught, and he only has the ability to represent his powerlessness and express his resentment (Rahman, 2015):

Caliban: You taught me language, and my profit on't

Is I know how to curse. The red plague rid you

For learning me your language.

Prospero: Hag-seed, hence

Fetch us in fuel, and be quick — thou'rt best —

To answer other business. Shrug'st thou, malice?

If thou neglect'st, or dost unwillingly

What I command, I will rack thee with old cramps,

Fill all thy bones with aches, make thee roar,

That beasts shall tremble at thy din.

Caliban: No, pray thee.

[aside] I must obey; his art is of such power (Shakespeare, 176).

However, the case is different with Césaire's Caliban and the language Prospero teaches him becomes more than a tool to curse. It becomes a tool for him to voice his resistance and charge against the colonizer also we see him use colorful phrases and double meanings of words to almost make a mockery of Prospero out of the language he has been taught (Patterson, 2008):

Caliban: Uhuru!

Prospero: What did you say?

Caliban: I said, Uhuru!

Prospero: Mumbling your native language again! I have already told you, I don't like it. You could be polite, at least; a simple "hello" wouldn't kill you.

Caliban: Oh, I forgot... But make that as froggy, waspish, pustular and dung-filled "hello" as possible. May today hasten by a decade the day when all the birds of the sky and beasts of the earth will feast upon your corpse!

Prospero: Gracious as always, you ugly ape! How can anyone be so ugly?

Caliban: You think I am ugly...well, I do not think you are so handsome yourself. With that big hooked nose, you look just like some old vulture. (Laughing) an old vulture with a scrawny neck! (Césaire, 1992, p. 11)

In this conversation, Prospero scolds Caliban for using "Uhuru" instead of "hello" and describes it "mumbling". This may suggest two important things: First Prospero does not understand the native language of the colonized (Caliban) and at the same time he does not want to understand the meaning of "Uhuru" as it is a threat for him because once the language is accepted as intelligible and worthy of rational meaning, it will claim the same status as Prospero's own. Caliban's answer in this instance is stronger and he fights back labeling the language of the colonizer Prospero as nothing more than gibberish (Patterson, 2008):

Prospero: Since you are so fond of invective, you could at least thank me for having taught you to speak at all. You, a savage ... a dumb animal, a beast I educated, trained, dragged up from the bestiality that still clings to you.

Caliban: In the first place, that is not true. You did not teach me a thing! Except to jabber in your own language so that I could understand your orders: chop the wood, wash the dishes, fish for food, plant vegetables, all because you're too lazy to do it yourself. And as for your learning, did you ever impart any of that to me? No, you took care not to. All your science you keep for yourself alone, shut up in those big books. (Césaire, 1992, p. 11-12)

Therefore, we notice that Caliban's language seems mumbling to Prospero and at the same time Prospero's language is nothing more than gibberish to Caliban. As to the process of being forced to consume Prospero's language and culture, Césaire's Caliban finds it disgusting and wants to vomit and get rid of Prospero's white poison and this is obviously a clear rejection of the colonial authority and culture (Patterson, 2008). The colonizer thinks himself a savior for the colonized people by imposing his language and values upon them because he sees them as nothing more than savages who need saving. Therefore, when Prospero enslaves Caliban and Ariel, he considers himself their benefactor (Patterson, 2008):

Ariel: You have promised me my freedom a thousand times, and I am still waiting.

Prospero: Ingrate! And who freed you from Sycorax, may I ask? Who rent the pine in which you had been imprisoned and brought you forth? You will get it when I am good and ready. ...

Prospero: What would you be without me? ...

Prospero: Ten times, a hundred times, I have tried to save you, above all from yourself. (Césaire, 1992, pp. 10,12, 67)

Both Caliban and Ariel are fighting for their freedom but each one takes a different approach to achieve this goal. When compared with Caliban, we see that Ariel's understanding of freedom is at a high level but he is somewhat accommodating and idealistic, trying to awake Prospero's conscience and hoping that Caliban and he can join up and fight for their freedom, but in some non-violent way (Douglas, 1972):

Ariel: You know very well that that's not what I mean. No violence, no submission either. Listen to me: Prospero is the one we have to change. Destroy his serenity so that he is finally forced to acknowledge his own injustice and put an end to it.

Caliban: Oh sure ... that is a good one! Prospero's conscience! Prospero is an old scoundrel who has no conscience.

Ariel: Exactly - that's why it's up to us to give him one! I am not fighting just for my freedom, for our freedom, but for Prospero too, so that Prospero can acquire a conscience: Help me, Caliban. (Césaire, 1992, p. 22)

Césaire's Ariel is nothing like Shakespeare's Ariel who is submissive and obedient to Prospero and seems to care for nothing but his own freedom. Ariel in *A Tempest* is less willing to carry out Prospero's missions and he makes this known to Prospero when he shows sympathy for the victims of Prospero's tempest (O'Toole, n.d.):

Prospero: Enough hairsplitting! My mood has changed! They insult me by not eating. They must be made to eat out of my hand like chicks. That is a sign of submission I insist they give me.

Ariel: It is evil to play with their hunger as you do with their anxieties and their hopes. (Césaire, 1992, p. 28)

On the other hand, Caliban deals with Prospero in a more intense way than Ariel and his resistance is by far more forceful than that of Ariel's. Caliban seems to know Prospero better than Ariel, also he has no belief in Prospero's conscience. He shows great courage and determination despite all the terror to the extent that he is ready to sacrifice his own life to get his freedom (O'Toole, n.d.):

Caliban: You do not understand a thing about Prospero.

He is not the collaborating type. He is a guy who only feels something when he's wiped someone out. A crusher, a pulveriser, that is what he is! And you talk about brotherhood!

Ariel: So then, what is left? War? And you know that when it comes to that, Prospero is invincible.

Caliban: Better death than humiliation and injustice. (Césaire, 1992, p. 23)

Like Shakespeare's Caliban, Césaire's Caliban also formulates a plan with Stephano and Trinculo to win back his freedom. Caliban's plot to overthrow Prospero in both Shakespeare's and Césaire's plays are almost the same concerning its process and result, but there are some differences as far as the purpose is concerned. Shakespeare's Caliban is not civilized enough to sense the possibility of liberty. He only knows that his master treats him badly and his hatred to his master is what drives him to take revenge upon him. In addition to that, his scheme is very simple and it almost ends before starting. In the process, Shakespeare's Caliban is rightly humiliated and punished when he is dumped in horse-urine. He even recognizes that his rebellion was a sin against the law of God and nature and the great chain of being and he ends his role by calling himself a fool to take a drunken man as a god which indicates that Caliban becomes an obedient and passive slave (O'Toole, n.d.): "Caliban: Ay, that I will; and I will be wise here after and seek for grace. What a thrice-double ass was I to take this drunkard for a god, and worship this dull fool" (Shakespeare, 1999, p. 283).

However, in Césaire's *A Tempest*, the case is very different and Caliban's plot against Prospero is clearly meant to make him win his freedom. Nevertheless, as he starts to carry it out with the hope of joint force from Stephano and Trinculo, two drunkards who make themselves powerless and senseless with alcohol, he begins to realize he has fallen in with fools when he says (Duckett, 2015):

To think I am stuck with these jokers! What an idiot I am! How could I ever have thought I could create the Revolution with swollen guts and fat faces! Oh well! History will not blame me for not having been able to win my freedom all by myself. It is you and me, Prospero! (Césaire, 1992, p. 56)

Therefore, he decides to launch the battle alone against Prospero and with weapon in hand he charges towards Prospero. In his march, we see him singing a war song and this is a proof of the fact that Africa has cultural elements like poems and songs. In this song, he mentions Shango, the Yoruba god of thunder, to draw strength from him. Caliban's invocation of the god of thunder suggests that he is not submitting to Prospero and that the relationship between the master and the slave is going to be changed forever (Griffiths, 1983):

Prospero: Poor Caliban! You know that you are headed towards your own ruin. You are sliding towards suicide! You know I will be the stronger and stronger all the time. I pity you!

Caliban: And I hate you!

Prospero: Beware! My generosity has its limits.

Caliban: (shouting) Shango marches with strength along his path, the sky! Shango is a fire-bearer, his steps shake the heavens and the earth Shango, Shango, ho! (Césaire, 1992, p. 65-66)

Aimé Césaire's references to Shango (the god of thunder), Eshu (the black devil god) and some native words like Uhuru in several places of the play is very important because the use of these native words and representation of the native gods show his negritude and his fight against the representational politics about the blacks. In addition, these native words and gods are a good representation of the shared cultural heritages of the African people, which unite them and show who they truly are (Rahman, 2015).

In the last scene, after Caliban's revolution, Prospero, the colonizer, becomes weaker and weaker and is no longer his old self: "Time passes, symbolized by the curtain's being lowered halfway and reraised. In semi-darkness Prospero appears, aged and weary. His gestures are jerky and automatic, his speech weak, toneless, trite" (Césaire, 1992, p. 68). Caliban's speech after his failed revolution becomes a prophecy: "Caliban: Now I know you, you old cancer, and I also know myself! And I know that one day my bare fist, just that, will be enough to crush your world! The old world is crumbling down!" (Césaire, 1992, pp. 64-65)

Césaire hints that colonization is declining and that the colonizers are losing their power over the colonized people: "Well, I hate you as well! For it is you who have made me doubt myself for the first time" (Césaire, 1992, p. 66). This speech can be clearly viewed as a moral victory for Caliban (the colonized) over Prospero (the colonizer).

Césaire makes his voice heard most clearly through Caliban's speech which is an eloquent accusation against colonization:

Caliban: You are a great magician: you are an old hand at deception ... And you lied to me so much, about the world, about myself, that you ended up by imposing on me an image of myself: an image of myself: underdeveloped, in your words, under competent that is how you made me see myself! And I hate that image ... and it's false! (Césaire, 1992, p. 64)

It is this false image that Césaire wants to decolonize transforming Caliban from Shakespeare's ignorant savage to a colonized native with black consciousness (Manzanas & Benito, 1999).

Finally, in *A Tempest*, Césaire gives the privilege to Caliban to end the play with his song, which is printed in capital letters demonstrating his (the colonized) victory and triumph over Prospero (the colonizer). He is no longer traceless or overshadowed and even though he does not appear on stage but everybody hears his voice. The stage of the world belongs to all without any discrimination at all. It is the word "FREEDOM" that Césaire wants everyone, the colonized and the colonizer alike, to hear. It is a cry for freedom or decolonization all over the world (Manzanas & Benito, 1999): "FREEDOM HI-DAY, FREEDOM HI-DAY!" (Césaire, 1992, p. 68)

III. Conclusion

In order to convey his themes, Aimé Césaire has adapted and appropriated in his own style one of the most famous western canonical work, which is William Shakespeare's *The Tempest* in order to demystify the myths about the black people. Shakespeare wrote *The Tempest* for his audience from the colonizer's stand while Césaire wrote *A Tempest* for both the colonizer and the colonized taking sides with the latter. The character of Prospero in Shakespeare's *The Tempest* can be seen to represent the alter ego of Shakespeare and similarly, Caliban and Ariel in Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest* can be seen to represent the mouthpiece of Césaire and the tool through which he counters Shakespeare's ideas. What Caliban says and does against Prospero is the mirror image of what Césaire does to Shakespeare.

Aimé Césaire in his play *A Tempest* introduces some of the many ills and faults of colonial domination. In rejecting colonialism, he expresses the view that there is no dignity without freedom. Nevertheless, the freedom, which Césaire

speaks about, is not only the simple freedom from the oppressive physical presence of the colonizer, but it is also the freedom from the psychological bonds, which so many colonized people have accepted.

The basic thing, which Aimé Césaire wants to convey in *A Tempest* and the rest of his writings, is his wish to see black people united, not in their acceptance of inferiority, but in their rejection of an inferior status, and such is his basic concept of political Negritude. In addition, this concept is achieved through his characterizations of Prospero, Caliban and Ariel. Césaire presents his anti-colonial attitude and injects black consciousness into the colonized. Moreover, Césaire's thinking on the possibilities to gain freedom is implied in Caliban's and Ariel's struggle for their freedom. *A Tempest*, above all, is a call to get rid from the shackles or chains of servitude and a loud cry for consciousness of freedom.

Bibliography

Bakshi Kaustav, Samrat Sengupta, Subhadeep Pau. (2009). *Anxieties, Influences and After: Critical Responses to Postcolonialism and Neocolonialism*. New Delhi: Worldview Publications.

Césaire, Aimé. (1972). *Discourse on Colonialism*, translated by Joan Pinkham. London: Monthly Review Press.

Césaire, Aimé. (1992). *A Tempest*. Translated by Richard Miller. New York: Ubu Repertory Theater Publication.

Douglas, J. (1972). *A Study of the Black Political Theater of Amie Césaire*. Ontario: McMaster University.

Duckett, Katharine. (Mar. 23, 2015). Unreliable Histories: Language as Power in *The Tempest*. *Tor.com*. Retrieved from <http://www.tor.com/2015/03/23/unreliable-histories-language-as-power-in-the-tempest/> (accessed October 19, 2015).

Frank, Katherine. (n.d.) **Shakespeare on Global Colonialism. Retrieved from <http://www2.cedarcrest.edu/academic/eng/lfletcher/tempest/papers/Kafrank.htm> (Accessed October 18, 2015).**

Griffiths, Trevor. (1983). 'This Island's mine': Caliban and Colonialism. *The Yearbook of English Studies* 13, 159-180. Stable URL: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3508119>

Guo, Yuehua. (2008). A Rebel against Colonization: A Comparative Study of Césaire's Caliban in *A Tempest* with Shakespeare's Caliban in *the Tempest*. *Asian Social Science* 2(4), 13-16. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v4n2p13>

Hymowitz, Sarah, Dikkers, Ivor, & Amalia, Anderson. (2003). Study Guide: The Rights of Indigenous Peoples. Retrieved from <http://hrlibrary.umn.edu/edumat/studyguides/indigenous.html>

Innes, Lyn. (2007). *The Cambridge Introduction to Post Colonial Literatures in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

James, A. Arnold. (1978). Césaire and Shakespeare: Two Tempests. *Comparative Literature* 30(3), 236-248. doi: 10.2307/1770825

Keane, Patrick. (2014) Identity and Difference: Coleridge and Defoe, Crusoe and Friday, Prospero and Caliban: Essay. *Numéro Cinq* V(3). Retrieved from <http://numerocinqmagazine.com/2014/03/11/identity-and-difference-coleridge-and-defoe-crusoe-and-friday-prospero-and-caliban-essay-patrick-j-keane-2/> (Accessed October 17, 2015).

Kundu, Rama. (2008). *Intertext: A Study of the Dialogue Between Texts*. New Delhi: Sarup & Sons.

Linsley, Robert. (2013). Wilfredo Lam: Painter of Negritude. In Kymberly N. Pinder (Ed.), *Race-ing Art History: Critical Readings in Race and Art History* (289-306). London & New York: Routledge.

Manzanas, Ana, & Jesús, Benito. (1999). *Narratives of Resistance: Literature and Ethnicity in the United States and the Caribbean*. Albacete: Univ de Castilla La Mancha.

Massai, Sonia. (2007). *World-Wide Shakespeares: Local Appropriations in Film and Performance*. London: Routledge.

Memmi, Albert. (1991). *The Colonizer and the Colonized*. London: Routledge.

Morales-Daz, Enrique. (2006). Calibanesque Revolution in Reinaldo Arenas Writing. *Postcolonial Text* 2(2). Retrieved from <http://postcolonial.org/index.php/pcl/article/view/258/772> (Accessed October 18, 2015).

Nicklas, Pascal, Oliver, Lindner. (2012) *Adaptation and Cultural Appropriation: Literature, Film, and the Arts*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

O'Toole, Michael. (2011). Shakespeare's Natives: Ariel and Caliban in *The Tempest*. Quixotic. Retrieved from <http://www.columbia.edu/itc/lithum/gallo/tempest.html> (Accessed October 19, 2015).

Patterson, Jeanette. (2008). Au pire: Language, Violence and the Totalitarian Ideology of Origins in Ionesco's *La leçon* and Césaire's *Une tempête*. *French Forum* 33(1-2), 195-213. doi: 10.1353/frf.0.0044

Rahman, Mohammad Kasifur. (2015). Manifestation of Resistance through Caliban in Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest*. *Global Journal of Human-Social Science* 15(4), 7-10. Retrieved from <https://globaljournals.org/journals/human-social-science/a-arts-humanities-psychology>

Rider, Shawn. (n.d.). Confronting the Stage: M. Butterfly and *A Tempest* as Examples of Postcolonial Drama. Retrieved from http://www.wdog.com/rider/writings/butterfly_tempest.htm (accessed October 18, 2015).

Sanders, Julie. (2007). *Adaptation and Appropriation*. London: Routledge.

Sanders, Julie. (2014). What is Adaptation? Retrieved from <http://globalshakespearesbu.blogspot.com/2014/11/julie-sanders-what-is-adaptation.html> (accessed September 12, 2015).

Shah, Anup. (Oct. 2101). Rights of Indigenous People. *Global Issues*. Retrieved from <http://www.globalissues.org/article/693/rights-of-indigenous-people> (accessed October 18, 2015)

Shakespeare, William. (1999). *The Tempest*. Oxford: The Arden Shakespeare.

Thieme, John. (19 April 2008). Aimé Césaire: Founding father of Negritude. *The Independent*. Retrieved from <http://www.independent.co.uk/news/obituaries/Aimé-Césaire-founding-father-of-negritude-811812.html> (Accessed September 17, 2015).

Willoquet-Maricondi, Paula. (1996). African Animism, Négritude, and the Interdependence of Place and Being in Aimé Césaire's *A Tempest*. *Interdisciplinary Studies in Literature and Environment* 3(2), 47-61. doi: 10.1093/isle/3.2.47

Jurisprudential Analysis on the Implementation of and Compliance with European Safety Standards on Patient Mobility in the Romanian Health System

Cristina-Luiza Erimia

Ovidius University of Constanta, Faculty of Pharmacy, Constanta, Romania

Rodica Sirbu

Ovidius University of Constanta, Faculty of Pharmacy, Constanta, Romania

Stelian Paris

Ovidius University of Constanta, Faculty of Pharmacy, Constanta, Romania

Abstract

Since the Directive on cross-border healthcare regulates the provision of pan-European medical services, but without taking into account of the organization, provision and financing of such services, this article examines the need to reform national legislation in order to eliminate any restrictions to the fundamental freedoms of European citizens. This article aims to analyse, by presenting the jurisprudence of the Court of Justice of the European Union, the degree of harmonization of national policies in view of reforming the Romanian health system, in order to create a modern health system. In order for a modern health system to be created, it needs to be centred on patient needs, to have dynamic and integrated structures, adaptable to the various and changing healthcare needs of society in general and of individuals in particular and which, not least, must recognize the active role of the patient as partner in healthcare policies.

Keywords: patient's rights, European law, the Court of Justice of the European Union, the reformation of national legislation, health system, healthcare policies

1. Introduction

The Court of Justice of the European Union has paved the way for the implementation of the right recognized at Article 35 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union [1] for every person to have access to preventive healthcare and to benefit from medical treatment.

As stated in the Council Conclusions on Common values and principles in European Union Health Systems, "*health is a value in itself*" [2], also being a prerequisite for the economic prosperity of the Union, because people's health influences the economic results in terms of productivity, manpower, human capital and public expenditure.

To achieve the strategic objectives of the Union (ensuring access to high quality healthcare and the more efficient use of public resources), the Report of the European Commission for 2013 on economic growth and cohesion [3] recommends reforming health systems to ensure their profitability and sustainability and performance evaluation.

In order to remove the restrictions on the fundamental freedoms of European citizens, the Directive on cross-border healthcare [4] creates a standard of protection at EU level, by harmonizing national policies in the field, thus ensuring patient mobility and the freedom of healthcare benefits and regulates the provision of pan-European medical services, but without taking into account of the organization, provision and financing of such services.

2. Theory

In the field of the provision of cross-border healthcare services a certain overlap of EU law with national law is reached, so that in many cases European law is essentially limited to indicating a compulsory aim, namely achieving the free movement of citizens patients and their equal treatment, irrespective of nationality, in relation to national authorities, while maintaining the powers of Member States.

On the background of this overlap, Member States are obliged to comply with the legal framework imposed by primary law and secondary legislation, to the extent that they are not allowed to violate European Union law when exercising their powers [5].

In the absence of the legal force of a European regulation, the free movement of patients would have created a competition between the health systems of Member States to attract more patients, thus raising the likelihood that, by the free access to cross-border services, a drop in the price of medical services throughout the European Union take place, to the detriment of the quality of healthcare services; such a law could have adverse effects on short and medium term, on the sensitive economics in the European health sector [6].

As part of the wider framework of services of general interest to the Union, health systems are a central component of social protection, and contribute both to social cohesion and social justice and to the sustainable development of the European Union.

The Strategy for Sustainable Development [7] of the European Union cannot be achieved without investment in health, ensuring in this way, a smart, sustainable and inclusive growth of national health systems.

Investing in health helps the Union to overcome the challenges identified in the EU Health Strategy [8], which were worsened by the economic crisis: an aging population, increasing chronic disease, a greater demand for health and the high cost of technological progress.

3. Results and Discussions

Important institution of the European Union, the Court of Justice is the one that assesses the scope of the EU legal framework established by Article 49 EC for the exercise of the competences of the Member States. It is also incumbent on the Court, assigned by the founding treaties, that by the interpretation given to a provision of European law, to clarify and specify its meaning and scope, such as to be understood and applied from the time of its entry into force.

In addition, the Court case law expressly emphasized that the mandatory adaptations of national social security systems aiming to achieve the fundamental freedoms guaranteed by the Treaty should not be considered by Member States as interference in their sovereign competence in the field of public health [9].

To examine what degree of harmonization of national policies in view of reforming the Romanian health system, in order to create a modern health system, we will refer to Petru case who was a first in the case law of the Court.

Mrs Elena Petru was suffering from severe vascular disorders, which resulted in a surgical procedure in 2007. As her condition worsened, in 2009 Mrs Petru addressed the Institute of Cardiovascular Diseases in Timisoara where, following the medical report, it was established that she required urgent surgery.

Given the seriousness of the necessary surgery, as well as poor material conditions provided at the Institute of Cardiovascular Diseases, Mrs. Petru requested from the County Health Insurance House (CJAS) Sibiu an authorization to perform the surgery in Germany and not in the said hospital in her State of residence.

By the issued decision, CJAS rejected the Mrs Petru's request, based on the health condition of the insured person, the evolution of the disease in time and the time required until surgery, as well as on the invoked reason (the poor material conditions).

Following the rejection of her application, Mrs Petru addressed a clinic in Germany, where the surgery was performed, with the total cost, including postoperative hospitalization of 17,714.70 euro.

Immediately after the treatment carried out in another Member State, Mrs Petru filed a civil suit at the Sibiu Court, through which she requested CJAS, under Article 22, paragraph (1), letter (c) and Article 22, paragraph (2), second subparagraph of Regulation no. 1408/71 [10] the reimbursement of the expenses incurred in Germany.

The national legal framework applicable in the case of Mrs Petru is the Law no. 95 / 2006 [11], Article 208, paragraph (3) and Order no. 592 / 2008 of 26 August 2008 [12], Article 40, paragraph (1), letter b.

By the preliminary address to the Court [13], the Tribunal of Sibiu presented its doubts about the interpretation of Article 22, paragraph (2), the second paragraph of the Regulation No. 1408/71 in a case in which a Romanian citizen, Elena Petru, requests from the authorities of her country of residence the reimbursement of the costs of surgery incurred in Germany.

The question addressed to the Court through the appeal of the Tribunal of Sibiu was if a generalized deficiency of basic sanitary conditions in the country of residence should be considered a situation where it is impossible to provide the treatment in another Member State.

Admitting that a structural deficiency of healthcare conditions may be a circumstance that would allow the issuance of an authorization under Article 22 of Regulation No. 1408/71, interpreted in the light of Article 56 TFEU [14] and of Article 35 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union [15], the Commission adopted an intermediate position which requested the addressing court, the Court of Justice of the European Union, an analysis taking into account all circumstances of the actual case file.

In order to rule in the case of Mrs Petru, the Court had to consider on the one hand, if a deficiency or shortcoming of the material conditions within a healthcare institution, in certain circumstances, can amount to a situation where you cannot timely perform a certain medical benefit, which is still included among the benefits covered by the social security system.

Secondly it had to be examined whether the mentioned shortcomings and deficiencies in the hospital facilities in Romania, which correspond to a systemic situation due to different circumstances (natural, technological, economic, political or social) can be the equivalent to a situation where the medical benefit cannot be provided in a timely manner.

Starting from the main applicable legal and legislative aspects in the case of Mrs Petru, the Court has given an interpretation based on the freedom to provide services, but which takes into account the very different and heterogeneous circumstances characterizing the healthcare sector in Europe.

In its judgment of October 9, 2014 [16], the Court stated that in order to assess whether a treatment that presents the same degree of effectiveness can be obtained in a timely manner in the Member State of residence, the competent institution is obliged to consider all circumstances which characterize each specific case. Among the circumstances which the competent institution is required to take into consideration may be included, in a particular case, the lack of medicines and medical supplies of primary necessity because, as in the absence of specific equipment or specialized competences, their absence may, obviously, make it impossible to grant identical treatment or having the same degree of efficacy in a timely manner in the Member State of residence.

Considering the considerations in the Petru case, the Court ruled that the prior authorization necessary for carrying out cross-border healthcare (Form E112) cannot be refused when the hospital treatment in question cannot be provided in due time in the Member State of residence of the socially insured because of the lack of medicines and medical supply essentials.

If the facts invoked by Mrs Petru on the lack of medicines and medical supply essentials at the Institute of Cardiovascular Diseases in Timisoara are proven, the Court held that it is for the referring court to determine whether this intervention could not be achieved in this timeframe in another hospital in Romania. However, the appreciation of impossibility should be made at the level of the all the hospitals in Romania able to provide such treatment and in relation to the timeframe in which the latter can be obtained in a timely manner.

4. Conclusions

The real problem the Court faced in the Petru case was not that at the level of principle, but that expressed in terms that were characterized as "*dimensional*". In a more circumstantial formulation, the real problem arose when the lack of material

conditions required to perform the medical benefit in question went beyond being a punctual, localized, and essentially an accidental situation, being the expression of a situation of structural, generalized, long-term deficiency, which the Court essentially described as a “systemic” deficiency.

From the jurisprudence of the Court of Justice of the European Union unequivocally results that people normally resident in a Member State operating a national health service, are entitled to receiving hospital treatment in another Member State at the expense of the national health service.

Member States may condition this right by the requirement that the person concerned should have obtained prior authorization, only if such authorization is based on objective, non-discriminatory and transparent criteria within a procedure system. The absence of such criteria and the lack of easily accessible and transparent procedures cannot deprive a person of this right. Also, if the conditions for authorization (form E112) are designed to safeguard the financial stability of the national health system, considerations of a purely budgetary or economic nature cannot justify a refusal to grant such authorization.

To determine whether the treatment is available without undue delay might be considered the waiting time and the priority to treatment granted by the national health authority, only on condition that they are based on concrete indications relating to the patient's condition at the time of evaluation, as well as its medical history and the prognosis for the patient seeking treatment.

Regarding the obligation of a Member State to reimburse the cost of hospital treatment provided in another Member State of the European Union, Article 49 EC does not allow to take into account budgetary reasons, unless it is demonstrated that compliance with this obligation on a more general scale would threaten the financial balance of the respective national health system. Moreover, in accordance with Article 22 (2) of Regulation EEC No. 1408/71 [17], budgetary considerations cannot be taken into account in decisions refusing prior authorization for treatment abroad.

The Petru case was a first in the case law of the Court because it was the first time when was addressed a question regarding cross-border healthcare based on the poor medical conditions affecting the State of residence.

In our view, the Petru case is symptomatic and also relevant for the illustration of the realities of the Romanian health system.

5. References

Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (2012/C 326/02), Official Journal of the European Union C 326, 26.10.2012.

*** *Council Conclusions on Common Values and Principles in European Union Health Systems*, published in the Official Journal of the European Union C 146/01 of 22.6.2006.

Commission Communication, *Annual Growth Survey 2013* — COM(2012) 750 final, 28.11.2012

Directive 2011/24/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 9 March 2011 on the application of patients' rights in cross-border healthcare, on the application of patients' rights in cross-border healthcare L 88 of 04.04.2011.

In tis sense, see Van Raepenbusch, S., *Dossier: l'Europe de la santé – L'état de la jurisprudence de la CJCE relative au libre accès aux soins de santé à l'intérieur de l'Union européenne après l'arrêt du 16 mai 2006*, *Watts*, C-372/04, in *Gazette du Palais*, December 2006, p. 8.

We find the same view expressed by L. González Vaqué, *Aplicación del principio fundamental de la libre circulación al ámbito de la seguridad social: la sentencia Decker*, in: *Revista de Derecho Comunitario Europeo*, 1999, pp. 129-139.

European Commission, Communication from the Commission, *Europe 2020 A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth*, COM (2010) 2020 final, Brussels, 3.3.2010.

European Commission, *Commission White Paper Together for Health: A Strategic Approach for the EU 2008-2013*, COM (2007) 630 final, 23.10.2007.

This idea is clearly expressed in Judgment *Commission/Luxembourg* (C-490/09, Rec., 2011, p. I-247, paragraph 32)

Regulation (EEC) No 1408/71 of the Council of 14 June 1971 on the application of social security schemes to employed persons and their families moving within the Community, in the version amended and updated by the Council Regulation (EC) No 118/97

of 2 December 1996 (OJ 1997, L 28, p. 1, Special edition, 05/vol. 4, p. 35), as modified by Regulation (EC) no. 592/2008 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 June 2008 (OJ L 177, p. 1).

Law no. 95/2006 on the reform in the healthcare field, with the subsequent amendments and completions, published in the Official Gazette of Romania, Part I, no. 372 of 28 April 2006.

Order of the President of the National Health Insurance House no. 592/2008 of 26 August 2008 for the approval of the Methodological norms on the use within the health social security system of Romania of forms issued in view of the application of Regulation no. 1408/71 and of Regulation no. 574/72, published in the Official Gazette of Romania, Part I, no. 648 of 11 September 2008, as amended by the Order no. 575/2009, published in the Official Gazette of Romania, Part I, no. 312 of 12 May 2009, corrigendum published in the Official Gazette of Romania, Part I, no. 461 of 3 July 2009.

Court of Justice, Request for a preliminary ruling from the Tribunalul Sibiu (Romania) lodged on 16 May 2013 – Elena Petru v Casa Județeană de Asigurări de Sănătate Sibiu and Casa Națională de Asigurări de Sănătate, Case C-268/13, Official Journal of the European Union C 207 of 20.7.2013.

Treaty for the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) – consolidated version, published in the Official Journal of the European Union C 326 of 26.12.2012.

Charter of the fundamental rights of the European Union, published in the Official Journal of the European Union C 364 of 18 December 2000.

Case C-268/13 *Elena Petru v Casa Județeană de Asigurări de Sănătate Sibiu and Casa Națională de Asigurări de Sănătate*, Judgment of the Court (Third Chamber) of 9 October 2014, ECLI:EU:C:2014:2271.

Regulation (EEC) No 1408/71 of the Council of 14 June 1971 on the application of social security schemes to employed persons and their families moving within the Community, Official Journal of the European Union L 149, 5.7.1971.

Language Anxiety Among Adult Learners in UiTM Sarawak

Siti Huzaimah Binti Sahari¹,

Aiza Binti Johari²,

Affidah Binti Morni³

Abstract

Language anxiety is one of the factors that needs to be considered in learning and teaching second or foreign language. Language anxiety can be defined as the feelings of uneasiness, worry, nervousness, self-doubt, frustration and apprehension (Brown, 2001) experienced by non-native speakers when learning or using a second or foreign language. Learners respond to language anxiety differently. This study investigates the language anxiety levels and coping strategies applied by adult learners of UiTM Sarawak in using English as a medium of instruction. The subjects of the study involved those between 45 to 50 years of age. The data collection was carried out through the distribution of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The results from the study show that the adult learners have different levels of language anxiety and they have also adopted several strategies in coping with their anxiety. The conclusion of the study presents suggestions and recommendations on ways in handling anxiety in both teaching and learning second language.

Keywords: language anxiety, adult learners, UiTM Sarawak

Introduction

What is language anxiety? Language anxiety is a condition where the learners feel anxious, panic, worried when conversing in the language which is not their first language or mother tongue. The lack of confidence, a reluctant to speak, even insomnia in some cases are some of the familiar symptoms (Ellis, 2008). One particular area addressed by many researchers (MacIntyre, 1995; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Young, 1991 and Sparks & Ganschow, 1995), falls under the area of affective factors on how the learner feels emotionally towards the language (Scovel, 1991).

Program Pensiswazahan Guru Besar or better known as PKPGB, is one of the programs offered in Universiti Teknologi MARA Sarawak... The program is designed to provide an opportunity for the Guru Besar or Principals from primary schools who are still in DG 32 or DG 34 (diploma scale) to further their studies in Bachelor Degree in Education. The age ranges from 40 to 50 years old.

As the English language is the medium of instruction for all courses in UiTM Sarawak, this has caused the students or candidates to question their ability in coping with English as the medium in classes and assessments. Hence, there is a need to analyze the students, especially the adult learners on their language anxiety level in using English as their second language. The analysis will give a clear view of the anxiety levels and this will help in term of coping mechanism as well as teaching methods.

The Objectives

The objectives of this paper are to identify the language anxiety levels among adult students in UiTM Sarawak. Besides that, the respondents were also interviewed ignored to investigate their coping mechanism and learning strategies. In addition, some effective methods in teaching and learning English as a second language will also discussed.

Research Methodology

Questionnaire and semi-structured interview are used to collect data. The data from questionnaire is analyzed using simple frequency count and the answers from interviews are tabulated and gathered in identifying the students language anxiety in using English language as a medium of instruction.

The questionnaire is adopted and adapted from SLAs by Dr Carter. In order to identify the levels of anxiety, 14 questions were asked and the respondents would rank their levels based on Likert scale from 1 to 5 as; 1 as Not at all anxious, 2 as Slightly anxious, 3 as Moderately anxious, 4 as Very anxious and 5 as Extremely anxious.

The questions are:

The English lecturer asks me a question in English in class.

Speaking informally to my English teacher out of class.

Taking part in group discussion in class.

Taking part in a role-play or dialogue in front of my class.

Giving an oral presentation to the rest of the class.

When asked to contribute to a formal discussion in class.

When asked to contribute to an informal discussion in class.

Asking for advice in English from a lecturer / supervisor in my university.

Talking in English to administrative staff of my faculty.

A lecturer / supervisor from my faculty of study asks me a question in English

A lecturer / supervisor from other faculties of study asks me a question in English

Taking part in a conversation out of class with people whom I think speak better English than me.

Starting a conversation out of class with a friend or colleague whom I think speaks better English than me.

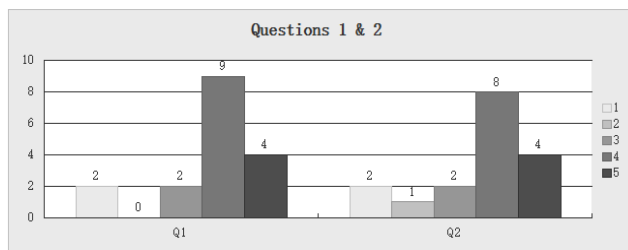
An English speaker I do not know asks me questions.

The questions in the interview were mainly focus on what are the coping mechanism that they adopted in order to lessen their anxiety. The respondents were also asked what will they do in order to improve their language proficiency.

Data Analysis

This section will show the results of the questionnaire based on each question. The results are shown using bar graphs.

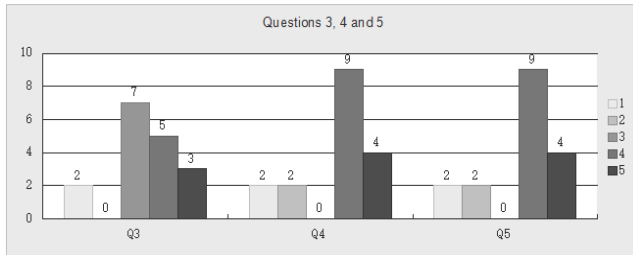
Chart 1



Question 1 : The English lecturer asks me a question in English in class.

Question 2 : Speaking informally to my English teacher out of class.

Chart 2

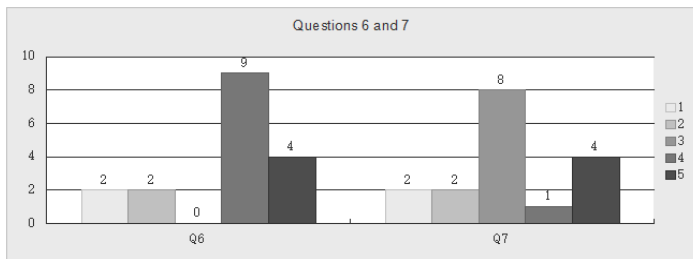


Question 3: Taking part in group discussion in class.

Question 4: Taking part in a role-play or dialogue in front of my class.

Question 5: Giving an oral presentation to the rest of the class.

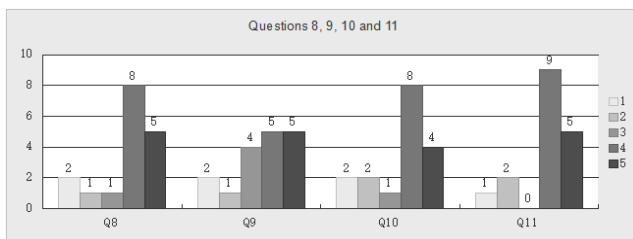
Chart 3



Question 6: When asked to contribute to a formal discussion in class.

Question 7: When asked to contribute to an informal discussion in class.

Chart 4



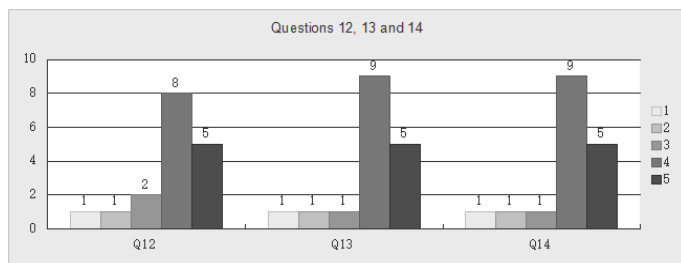
Question 8: Asking for advice in English from a lecturer / supervisor in my university.

Question 9: Talking in English to administrative staff of my faculty.

Question 10: A lecturer / supervisor from my faculty of study asks me a question in English

Question 11: A lecturer / supervisor from other faculties of study asks me a question in English

Chart 5



Question 12: Taking part in a conversation out of class with people whom I think speak better English than me.

Question 13: Starting a conversation out of class with a friend or colleague whom I think speaks better English than me.

Question 14: An English speaker I do not know asks me questions.

Interview results

When asked what normally they do when they feel anxious and nervous, these are some of the answers.

They will try to calm down and talk themselves to feel relax.

They will ask help from other classmates if they are in class.

They will force and encourage themselves to speak English because they know their purpose for being in university.

When asked what will they do to improve their English language proficiency.

They will speak in English more.

They will read more English materials.

They will listen and watch more English programs.

They will ask questions if they do not understand.

They will refer to dictionary and install e-dictionary in their smart phones.

Conclusion, Discussion And Recommendation

As can be seen by the charts it can be concluded that the level of anxiety differs based on the situations. Chart 1, talking to English lecturer in formal and informal situations caused high level of anxiety among students. In Chart 2, participating in group discussion and talking among themselves does not caused much anxiety among students and doing presentations and role play in front of the class caused high level of anxiety among most students. In Chart 3, when contributing in discussion in class; the anxiety levels differ depend on the situation. Formal discussion will cause high anxiety level and informal discussion will not cause high level of anxiety. In Chart 4, talking to administrative staff affect the students' anxiety level in moderate stage while talking to lecturer or supervisors caused high level of anxiety. In the last chart, Chart 5 indicates that talking to somebody who they think speaks better English compared to them or an English speaker affect them greatly in their anxiety levels. In conclusion, in most situations this group of adult students has a high level of language anxiety.

Some students have developed their own coping mechanisms in dealing with this anxiety problem (Dornyei, 2005). Having no other choices but to face their anxiety and practising the language were the only options the learners have. Despite all these, there are still some methods or techniques that lecturers (or language teachers) can help in reducing the anxiety level (Chew and Chui, 2012). To add, Chao (2003) suggested that anxiety and language learning may serve as a guide for language educators to increase their understanding of language from the perspective of the learner.

Making fun or insulting the adult learners is one of the things which can definitely hinder their efforts to converse and participate in class. Working many years in the Malay Language environment, the learners may find it difficult and challenging when using English as a medium of instruction in their study. Hence, as mentioned by Zheng (2008) having full understanding of the students' situation will provide insights into how educators can develop suitable interventions to decrease language anxiety among second language learners.

Other than that, to build confidence in students in using the language is the key motivation to them. Students, no matter what ages they are, need to be nurtured and encouraged in using the language (Ehrman and Oxford, 1990). Using the second language in their classroom, doing assignments and seating for exams affect their confidence in their own ability. Thus, it is important for lecturers to build and boost their confidence level. Trang, Mobi and Baldauf (2012) too suggested that students should be informed about the importance of learning English so that strong motivation can be developed and hence, students can reconfirm their awareness on the importance of English.

In planning and conducting class for adult learners, lecturers or teachers can refer to Knowles (1984) andragogy. There are 5 basic principles suggested by Knowles.

a. Self concept- dependent to self-directed

Adults learners need to feel responsible in their lives and decisions, so it is important to make them feel that they have control over their learning. Thus, a good rapport and peer relationship with their instructors or lecturers will give sense of control by being able to participate and communicate with the lecturers. Self-assessment, multiple options and subtle support are essential in their learning.

b. Adult Learner Experience

Activities in language class need to be in par with their experience in life. Discussion and sharing of experience is important before introducing them to the new concept or theory. Mistakes or weaknesses should be treated as learning experience.

c. Readiness to learn

It is said that as a person matures the readiness to learn will be more oriented towards the developmental tasks of their social roles. Thus, it is important to incorporate the element of their social roles into the lesson, tasks, activities and lesson plan.

d. Orientation to Learning-

Activities and approaches used in class in learning and teaching English language need to be revolve around problems solving based on real life situation. This will change subject centeredness to problem centeredness, which will ease students understanding towards the functions of the language.

e. Motivation to learn

In 1984, Malcolm Knowles added this fifth concept of adult learners which is the motivation to learn is internal motivation. Based on this concept, encouragement from lecturers and instructors will help to build their intrinsic motivation to learn.

Last but not least, anxiety can be marshaled into a positive force. Students' anxiety, uncertainty and discomfort can become a catalyst to learn more (Hallinger, 1998). Convincing the students that the mistakes and errors that they are making, or going to make will make them speak better as they are learning every time they make mistakes, is one of the ways to best deal with their anxiety. Their anxiety should and can be channeled to improve their language (Richardson, 1996).

In conclusion, students of second language will experience anxiety, in one way or another. This is because learning the second language can be difficult for them. Students should develop coping mechanism in facing this anxiety (Robinson, 2006). Lecturers or teachers should form understanding on this anxiety and help them feel confident and encourage their participation in class.

Reference

- Brown, H.D. (2001) *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Second Edition. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education
- Chao, C.-T. (2003). Foreign language anxiety and emotional intelligence: A study of EFL students in Taiwan. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation*, Texas University, Texas, United States.
- Chew, F.P. & Chui, J.H. (2012) Beliefs about ESL Learning among Secondary School Students in Terengganu, Malaysia. *International Journal of Research in Economics and Social Sciences*. Vol. 2 (2) p44-63
- Cook, V. (1991) *Second Language Learning and Second Language Teaching*. Oxford: Blackwell
- Domyei, Z. (2005) *The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum
- Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. L. (1990). Adult learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *The Modern Language Journal*, 74, p311–326.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2008) Learner Beliefs and Language Learning. *Asian EFL Journal*. Vol. 10 (4) p7-25
- Hallinger, P. (1998) Educational Change in Southeast Asia: The Challenge of Creating Learning Systems. *Journal of Educational Administration*. Vol. 36 (5) p492-509
- Horwitz, E. (2001) Language Anxiety and Achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 21:112-126.
- Horwitz, E., Horwitz, M. and Cope, J. (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal* 70:125-132.
- Kearsley, G (2010) Andragogy (M. Knowles). The Theory Into Practice Database. Retrieved from <http://tip.psychology.org>
- Knowles, M (1984) *Andragogy in Action*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- MacIntyre, P. (1995) How Does Anxiety Affect Second Language Learning? A Reply to Sparks and Ganschow. *The Modern Language Journal* 79: 90-99.
- Richardson, V. (1996) The Role of Attitudes and Beliefs in Learning to Teach. In J. Sikula, T.J. Butter & E. Guyton (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (p102–119). New York: Macmillan
- Robinson, P. (2005). Aptitude and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. Vol 25, p 46-73.
- Scovel, T. (1991) The Effect of Affect on Foreign Language Learning: a Review of the Anxiety Research. In *Language Anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications*, ed. by Elaine Horwitz and Dolly Young. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Sparks, R., and Leonore, G. (1995) A Strong Inference Approach to Causal Factors in Foreign Language Learning: a Response to MacIntyre. *The Modern Language Journal* 79:235-244.
- Trang, T.T.T., Moni, K. and Beldauf (Jr.), R.B. (2012) Foreign Language Anxiety and its effects on students' determination to study English: to abandon or not to abandon. *TESOL in Context*, S3
- Young, D. (1991) The Relationship Between Anxiety and Foreign Language Oral Proficiency Ratings. In *Language Anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications*, ed. by Elaine Horwitz and Dolly Young. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Zheng, Y. (2008) Anxiety and Second /Foreign Language Learning Revisited. *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*. Vol 1 (1)

How Manufacturers Haste and Consumers Taste Turn into Environmental Waste: a Waste Analysis of Picnickers in Eskişehir, Turkey

Nazmi Taslaci

PhD Cand., Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Tourism Faculty, Department of Hotel Management

Yaşar Sari

Assoc. Prof. Dr., Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Tourism Faculty, Department of Hotel Management

Davut Uysal

PhD Cand., Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Tourism Faculty, Department of Hotel Management

Abstract

Since the modern life in the urban areas is fast and exhausting, people who are tired of the routine city life tend to involve in the recreational activities provided by the local governors in their neighborhood. One of these facilities is having a picnic in the picnic areas in the countryside. However, the expansion of these services produces great amount of rubbish and lacks of proper environmental management, too. This study presents an analysis of the waste generated by the visitors in the picnic areas of Eskişehir in Turkey. Based on observations in various different picnic areas, this study highlights the unsatisfactory aspects of the present situation in terms of the amount and the composition of the picnic waste scattered around. There is also a concern over the expansion of picnic activities in the area that would result in more waste being generated. The characteristics of domestic waste and people's environmental awareness were studied by observing picnickers and analyzing over lefts they left in the picnic areas. The results showed that the wastes analyzed get accumulated in such categories like chicken packages, bottles, plastic bags, wet towels, diapers and cigarette butts. The motives that drive visitors to be ignorant about their wastes were laziness, carelessness, being accidental and unconsciousness. Therefore, both manufacturers and consumers need to be responsible for this environmental pollution in the picnic areas. Besides educating people about the issue in alternative ways, it is further suggested that governors must make manufacturers feel the need to touch a raw nerve by redesigning their products, and organizing social responsibility facilities and taxing products which are the most frequently found as waste in the recreational areas.

1- Introduction

The very first waste of the living creatures on the earth was manure, which was the most vital food for the soil and plantation, indicating that all organic waste of human beings', animals' and plants are directly recycled in the nature leaving no single item behind. This is how recycling in the nature works. As the human being's physical needs defined in the pyramid of Maslow's hierarchy of needs if have been satisfied, they tend to divert their direction to self-actualization which triggered the industry of revolution. The Industrial Revolution was a period when new sources of energy were used to power newly invented machines which are designed to reduce human labor use in production. This mass production needed huge markets and fast consumption creating a great deal of waste of production, taste of consumption and without letting the new system recycle what it left behind unlike the nature's production, consumption and recycling process and principles. This is because the new production lane and market produces and consumes faster than it is able to recycle the leftovers. This speedy consumerist life style has led to urbanization, which is a population shift from rural to urban areas or the gradual increase in the proportion of people living in urban areas. The appealing city life turns into a mechanical, routine and robotic life style for those who constitute the work force in the urban areas. Therefore, this rural area originated people look for recreational facilities away from their city life in their close countryside. These activities are generally in the form of picnics at the weekends in the greenest areas near the city centers. These visitors leave great deal of waste scattered around in

these picnic areas after they go back to their urban lives as their new urbanist life style's reflection on their consumerist and hedonic cultures. This study was designed to analyze the wastes left behind in the picnic areas of Eskişehir to have deeper understanding of these nature ignorant hedonic behaviors and the motives behind these inconsiderate polluting attitudes. The wastes were classified into categories to profile the visitors and their consuming habits to achieve this. Following up this categorization, visitors were interviewed about their wastes and motives leading them to what they leave behind. After specifying the profiles and motives, some suggestions are made for food and drink manufacturers, consumers and local and national authorities to manage the wastes and raise consciousness.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The (waste management) Recycle in the Nature

It is indicated that most animals have a balanced life in the nature, which is the vital key to survive. They only take what they need and try to keep the amount of waste at the minimum level. The waste is reduced, reused and recycled by some others, which is a naturally structured golden solution for what human beings leave behind. These animals are the recyclers of the nature (Indiagetgreenblog, 2016). This balance is considered as a paradigm called "balance of nature" which explains how nature is organized. Average people can spot this balance and human beings have tendency to upset this balance. This paradigm tries to highlight the significance of this balance by making sense of the universe and the world which is its part. This way humankind can prioritize their needs accurately (Krichner, 2009). According to an eighteenth-century Ukrainian philosopher Gregory Skovoroda, we must be grateful to God that He created the world in such a way that everything simple is true and everything complicated is untrue (Ehrenfeld, 2009). Depending on the fact that there is a need of reframing human needs and considering everything is simple, it may be useful to review the most popular human needs approach known as "Maslow Hierarchy of Needs" which has been used to determine modern people's needs for various aspect such as psychology, education, economics, marketing, management, sociology, political science, and others.

2.2 Human Needs (Maslow's Hierarchy of needs)

The son of a Ukrainian immigrant in the USA developed "Maslow's hierarchy of needs" in 1950. This pyramid model is used in the wake of Western hegemony and academic expansion of studies worldwide even though it served very much for capitalist ideology. Its universal validity and popularity is the greatest obstacle to criticize its possible weaknesses (Bouzenita and Boulanouar, 2016). Considering the needs in the agrarian societies who cultivate the soil are concerned about the mercy of weather which means that intervention of higher power can affect the cultivation process. Therefore, religious values play a key role for their lives. However, in industrial societies plough is replaced by conveyor belt leading central planning to take on God's role. Industrialization makes religion values become more secular transforming them into knowledge societies such as Western Europe, North America and Japan (Hossli, 2007). The micro cosmos formed by the replacement of roles in the universe generates wastes which need to be managed by central planning like the God does in nature. The motives behind the capitalism and Maslow's human needs draw the borders of this waste generation and management by making people believe that happiness is directly related to material possessions since this commodification system is constructed on demand and supply cycle which generally fails in recycling the wastes in this process (Bouzenita and Boulanouar, 2016).

2.3 Industrial Revolution

Traditional societies are self-sufficient in most of their needs because their foods and clothes could be made from land or animals to a great extent (Ateş 2008). Therefore, they need to respect their main source of nature. However, in the modern society's pollutant industrial production and globalizing forces cause environmental and social deterioration since the inception of industrial revolution. The new industrial plants suck natural resources dry generating tons of waste dumped into rivers, lakes and seas for the sake of economic activities

2.4 Mass Production

These economic activities consisted of a complex industrial system of the manufacturing World produce everything used in our homes, garages, offices such as potato chip from potato, seat cover from cowhide, and plastic pen from petroleum. This transformed the world into a center of mass production making most of us unaware of actual making of these everyday

items and tend to take their existence for granted so, people tend not to think of the farmer or farm worker in the field who grows, picks and sorts our fresh foods because consumers are oblivious to the story line behind almost everything used in their daily lives (Cloer and Cloer, 2013).

2.5 Urbanization

This industrialization produced the mechanization of agriculture, and farmers migrated towards urban settings giving rise to the industrial city which were larger, more densely populated, and more diverse with poor living conditions. Urbanization is increasing all over the World with its unpleasant municipal solid waste byproducts of urban living. Cities are centers of garbage production, and the amount of garbage they create is increasing even faster than their populations, according to a recent report from the World Bank. For many cities in many developing countries, it's rapidly becoming an environmental and economic fatality in many ways. It is found that the urban residents in the world are producing significantly more waste compared to the rates 10 years ago (Berg, 2012).

2.6 Consumption

This huge amount of waste generation is closely related to financial and intellectual income level because the higher people's income level is and the rate of urbanization is, the greater the amount of produced solid waste is. OECD countries produce almost half of the wastes produced in the world, whereas Africa and South Asia regions produce the least waste (Urban Development Series, 2016). Waste is mostly considered to be an urban-related issue. In rural, the rate of packaged foods consumed is less and rural people generate less food waste and manufacture less. People living in the cities produce twice as much waste as people living in the rural areas. Since the urban citizens are usually richer, they generate four times as much (Hoorweg, Bhada-Tata and Kennedy, 2013). Issues regarding global consumption and waste are complex, contentious and timely. Researchers are developing approaches to these issues presenting a real opportunity to make a substantial positive impact on the pathway to a more sustainable future

2.7 Waste Production

To figure out the waste production of the industrial societies in the urban areas, it can be essential to examine the following pie-chart which indicates that high-income countries produce the most waste per capita, while low income countries produce the least solid waste per capita (Urban Development Series, 2016).

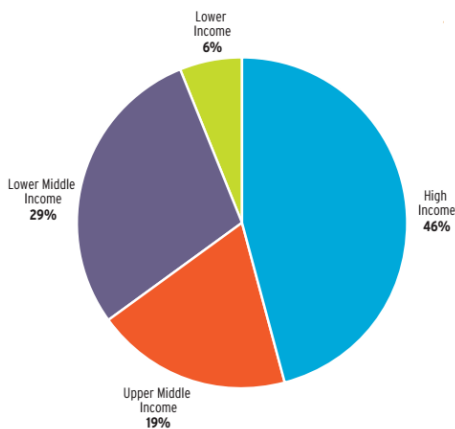


Figure 1: Waste Generation by Income in the World

2.8 Waste management

Economic contexts require production and management. Managing wastes generally considered as a local issue, however, if it is accepted as a national priority, it makes the problem politically and socially visible. This vision can only operate effectively by means of coordinating the national markets. National governors have the power to overcome the difficulties

and opportunities of waste management if coordinated well. Major concepts referring to a waste management priority are life-cycle of a product and considering waste as a resource. After this, goal setting is a vital step to realize the new policy. Thus, economic and informational regulation tools get ready to start operating and good decisions can be made when dealing with the waste, governments need to know how complicated the process is and what the inside and outside inter-relationships are because it is a cooperative process of local, regional and national governments, private sector, community and the non-governmental organizations. Realizing the existence of these challenging various relationships will help governors to understand the issue effectively because governor's waste management approach is to be on a dynamic perspective (United Nations Environment Program 2013).

2.9 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will be beneficial for the society considering that waste generation and its effective management play an important role in the protection of the environment. The greater demand for environmentally friendly picnickers in the neighborhood and the World justifies the need of such life changing analysis and their implications. Thus, local governors that apply the recommended approach derived from the results of this study will be able to train the citizens and handle the waste problem in the recreational areas. Moreover, the national authorities and decision makers can reformat the way they approach the waste management and develop educational environment protection trainings to deal with the issues. For the researchers the study will help them to uncover the critical areas and profile the consumer behaviors in the waste generation process. Therefore, a new view to waste generation and management in the recreational areas may be arrived at.

3. Methodology

Coalter (1999) suggested qualitative methods to collect data in empirical sciences which requires fragmentation, quantification and categorisation of the collected data. He was also interested in the idea of collecting the qualitative data through individual interviews using the real context. The focus of this study is three picnic areas nearby Eskişehir province. As the meaning is the main focus of this study, qualitative methods are suggested. The aim of this study is to reveal the feelings of picnickers in Eskişehir regarding waste generation and waste management in the picnic areas which have been densely polluted in the focused area of this study. Preliminary informal investigations were conducted by the researchers regarding the waste generation habits in the picnic areas subject to this study. The last visits and investigations were done in the relevant regions in May 2016. During these visits, the researchers raised awareness regarding the waste generation and waste management in the relevant regions. This awareness raised new questions in the researchers' minds which the researcher looked for answers through in-depth interviews with the picnickers in the investigated areas. Active interviews were conducted with the picnickers in the subject picnic areas. Active interviewing technique is a technique benefitting from the advantage of interviewee's life experience by accepting him/her as an authority on the investigated subject. The researchers are expected at this point to keep the conversation focused on the investigated subjects. However, they are also supposed to be ready to make necessary changes in the interview questions considering the newly emerging ideas from the interviews. The interviews mainly dealt with the following subjects;

The socioeconomic characteristics of the picnickers.

The present environmental pollution and current situation of the management, collection, transfer, treatment, and disposal of domestic waste.

Picnickers' knowledge about domestic waste pollution, as well as hazardous and recyclable domestic waste.

Picnickers' mode of domestic waste collection and treatment.

Picnickers' willingness to participate in domestic waste management.

As these subjects were investigated through the active interviews, data collection procedure expanded with the new emerging topics. Through the questions mentioned above, it was aimed that the waste generation and waste management will be investigated in detail through the interviews with picnickers. As new ideas emerged, the addition of new sampling through new interviews continued. The picnickers interviewed were selected through theoretical sampling method. Theoretical sampling method is a strategy in which data collection continues till the investigated topic has been saturated (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Therefore, the interview process went on with the picnickers till the topic of interest has been

saturated with enough information. The number of total interviews was 84 in total when all visits were considered through two months. Demographic information of the respondents was disregarded in the study as they are out of concern in the study. All the interviewees were type-recorded after receiving the approval of the interviewees, and then they were all transcribed by the researchers. Additional data were also collected through informal chats and observations during the field work.

All the data collected through the field work were analysed based on a grounded theory framework (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). According to this theory, collected data are continuously analysed through the whole research process. This analysis requires the steps of open coding, focused coding, categorising and theory building (Charmaz, 2002). These codes help the researchers to compare the data from one respondent to the next. At the beginning of the data analysis, open codes were used to highlight the content of the data by reducing record contents to single words. When all the interviews were analysed, open codes were studied with great care, and the ones most frequently repeated in the transcriptions were chosen to build larger data. This is also called as focused coding. The focused codes are obtained from the constant comparison of the conducted interviews, and they represent themes in the data more explicitly than open codes. In this study, focused codes were categorized. In the end, theory is developed by the researchers to build connections between the final categories.

Qualitative studies are considered to be reliable when the data collection is done by the same individual (Kirk and Miller, 1986). Therefore, the interviews were conducted by only one researcher in this study to make it reliable. However, all the coding procedures were done together with all the researchers. Validity in active interviews is obtained through the conversational approach for data collection in field researches (Platt, 2002). Differently from survey interviews, it is possible for those involved in the interaction to clarify the meaning in active interviews. Validity of this study is also increased by extending the data collection into two months. The fact that the researchers are familiar with these picnic areas through their former visits in the past also increases the validity of the study.

As the second step of the study, all of the domestic wastes discharged over days by the picnickers in the 3 targeted picnic areas were collected in garbage bags. The mixed waste in each plastic bag was then categorized. The sorted components were counted, and the composition of domestic waste in each area was calculated. Finally, total 1334 pieces of domestic waste was sampled as the proportion of the Eskişehir's total picnic area representation. The distribution of waste types is tested for each category to identify the picnickers' consumption habits and profiles in the city.

4. Analysis

The analysis of the collected data was done through manual methods. The conducted interviews were transcribed by the researchers very carefully, and then they were all manually analysed. All the transcriptions were read carefully to find what was common in them. The pieces of information in each transcription were put under a relevant category. New categories were created when needed and relevant pieces of information were placed into the relevant category. When the categorisation of all the transcription procedures was done, the obtained categories were re-evaluated by the researchers to see if there were any overlapping ones. If there was, they were either combined or deleted. Some categories were combined to reduce the number of categories for the interpretational purposes of the final categories. The final categories obtained in the study are "lack of education", "taking others as a model", "creating jobs for others", and "fast life style". These four categories were found to be the final categories reduced from many subcategories obtained from the analysis of the data. The final categories are justified as follows depending on the findings in the study

5. Results

Interview results indicated that the motives of the picnickers leaving wastes behind in the picnic areas vary in 4 categories. These categories are justified through examples as follows;

"Lack of Education"

The findings of the study from the analysis of the interviews suggest that picnickers think that people are not educated about the waste generation and its negative consequences in the nature. Waste generation and waste management should be a part of the school curriculums. They stated that they have never been educated at any stage of their education life

about waste generation, waste management and how wastes are recycled in the nature. The following extract from respondent 23 is a good example for this.

"I like going on picnics whenever I have an opportunity. I have observed the pollution in the picnic areas, and I have to confess that I am also one of those who are not careful about pollution in the picnic areas and wastes left behind. Now I am trying to find out the reason why I am not careful about waste generation is that I have never been made conscious about waste and waste management in nature. I am a graduate of high school and I do not remember any focus on waste management and waste recycling in my education life. It should be a part of school curriculum."

As can be seen from the extracts above, waste management is suggested to be a national problem rather than being a local problem. Picnickers state that they have not received any formal education through their education life focusing on waste and waste management, what happens to waste when left back in the nature depending on waste types.

"Taking Others as a Model"

Another category regarding the waste management obtained through the interviews from picnickers is that people believe their personal care to waste generation will not be enough single handedly as waste management is an issue which should be equally handled by every individual in the society. Some respondents state that they somehow know that they are aware of waste generation and waste recycling in picnic areas. However, as they see thousands of people being careless about their wastes in the nature, they personally believe that how much care they pay to this issue will be useless in protecting the picnic areas. They state that there is a need for social unity regarding waste generation and environmental care in picnic areas. The following extract from respondent 5 is a good example supporting this point;

"I had been very careful about waste generation not only in picnic areas but also in every stage of my life. I used to train my family about being careful in waste generation and waste management not only in picnic areas but also in every phase of my life. However, as my family, especially my kinds observe others in picnic areas exhibit careless behaviors regarding the protection of their environments, I started to feel that my efforts regarding the protection of the environment was useless because my kids started to take others in picnic areas as models. We should be very careful about waste generation and waste management in the nature."

"Creating jobs for others"

Another category is related to creating jobs for others (who are legally responsible for cleaning the picnic areas). There are some respondents, whose number is very significant, who state that they are careful with their tax payments and they have the right to expect cleaning services from the relevant authorities (municipalities in this case). Some respondents believe that the picnic areas where they have picnic are under the responsibility of local municipality. They are responsible for keeping these areas clean. They believe that employees of local municipalities should do their jobs and clean the local picnic areas as they are paid by the central government for this. They also mention about the limited number of garbage containers around, which support their ideas claiming that local municipalities fail in fulfilling their cleaning tasks. The extract from the respondent 45 is a good example for this;

"I do not have much free time to spend with my family and friends. When I have free time, usually one day a week when weather is clean, we come to these recreational areas for picnic. It is true that picnic areas are not clean and they are not cleaned regularly. Who is responsible for that? The local municipality is responsible for that, but they do fulfil their tasks adequately and we have to have a picnic in such messy areas. If they cleaned such areas as they are supposed to do, it would be easier for us to keep them clean. Local authorities should be more careful about this. Have a look around. Can you see any garbage container for the picnickers' use?"

As can be seen from the extracts above, some respondents consider local municipality more responsible than the picnickers blaming them for not fulfilling their task of cleaning the picnic areas.

"Fast Life Style"

Another category summing up the picnickers' ideas regarding waste generation and waste management is fast life style. Respondents believe that life is too hectic for everybody. Therefore, picnickers have very limited time to have picnic and they do not have any spare time to allocate to being more careful about waste generation and waste management in the

picnic areas. Respondents state that life in modern time makes people hectic. Therefore, people cannot spare any time or can spare very limited time to environmental issues, such as waste generation and waste management in picnic areas. The following extract from respondent 64 is a good example for this;

“We do not have much time. Picnic times are the times when we have the only free times. Therefore, people spend that limited time for fun, rather than being busy with waste management and waste generation in picnic areas. Picnickers should have more time to care about waste management and waste generation. We are here to have fun. If we have more time in the future, we will be more careful about pollution levels of picnic areas.”

As can be seen from the example above, picnickers tend to rationalize the pollution in the picnic areas with having very limited time to have fun.

5.1 Waste Analysis

From 3 picnic areas 1334 pieces of waste were picked up and analyzed. Analysis of the wastes resulted in 6 main categories.

Chicken packaging:	(298 pieces)	%22.3
Bottle (of water and alcohol):	(290 pieces)	%21.7
Plastic bag:	(303 pieces)	% 22.7
Wet towel:	(268 pieces)	%20
Diaper:	(82 pieces)	%6.1
Cigarette butt:	(93 pieces)	%7.2

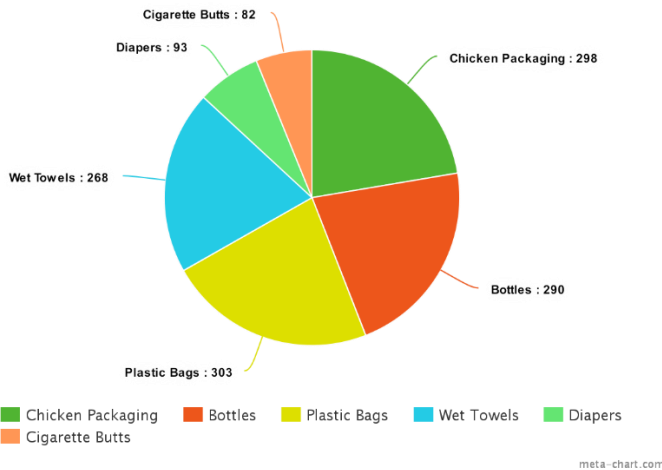


Figure 2: Waste categories in the 3 picnic areas of Eskişehir

Examining the categorization, each category indicates a certain group of consumers and producers. The highest percentage is the plastic bags which are generally given by the supermarkets. It can be concluded from this that picnickers generally bring their foods and beverages from super markets. This brings a responsibility for the super markets to involve in the waste management facilities that would be organized by the policy makers. The following category is chicken packaging. This may mean that either picnickers eat more chicken than meat or the packaging of the chicken is generating more waste than the meat packaging. Since the chicken is cheaper than meat, it may be popular among the picnickers indicating a middle class picnicker profile, which would assist while designing educational facilities. If the packaging is the

issue, then policy makers are to be in charge to take necessary precautions coordinating and cooperating with the producer and retailers.

After chicken packaging plastic and glass bottles come most. This indicates that picnickers consume great deal of alcoholic and non-alcoholic liquid when they are having a picnic. Considering this fact, the glasses must be deposited by the manufacturers and stores which would lead picnickers not to consider them as wastes but coins. The most interesting category is the wet towels because they are new to our culture but the amount is quite a lot, almost as much as the most popular ones which are plastic bags, the bottles and chicken packaging. This indicates that regardless of the economic growth of the society, the egocentrism is getting bigger and bigger within the fast living "selfie society" because wet towels are very useful and practical for personal hygiene but they threat the environmental hygiene dramatically. Therefore, raise of consciousness for consumers and some limitations and taxations for producers have to put into practice by national and local decision makers. Diapers indicate a similar case. They are quite new to the middle class. However, the users are not aware of the fact that they are a great threat to the society. Producers should take actions to illuminate their customers how to handle the diapers as they sell the product.

The least amount but quite an important category is cigarette butts. It is a worldwide known fact that smokers are a potential threat to the family budget and their personal health. The findings of this study figured out that the careless smokers' cigarette butts are a great treat to the environment by not only scattering them around polluting the forest but also causing forest fires.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

As the World Bank reports suggest, the higher the income of an individual is, the more waste s/he produces. Therefore, if the welfare of the community increases in the society, the waste generation needs a special care. If the welfare and consumption are not accompanied by an effective waste management system, the sustainability of the natural resources may be in danger. The sustainability of these resources heavily relies on the producers and consumers' sustainable behaviors which include moral values that care about the environment in which they all operate. This regulation can be adjusted by the governors and civil foundations. National governors should set up programs of ultimate waste generation analysis and management systems while the country is passing through an economic welfare program. The national governors can coordinate with local governors to lead this progress without harming the environment. Otherwise economically advanced society who has not got the intellectual and educational background for their consumption style will generate great deal of waste but fail to manage what they have generated. These nationwide programs must contain illuminating approaches for local governors, educational institutions, producers and consumers. This study can be an inspiration to design such programs since it reveals the motivation of consumers why they scatter their waste in the recreational areas. These findings will be precious in designing educational programs for the consuming society. The categories of the wastes also highlighted what consumption habits the picnickers have. Thus, these producers will learn about their responsibility in waste generation and will be expected to reform their products by the governors in both ways that their products contain less waste and their customers will know more about how to dispose the waste generated by using the product.

Suggestions

This study can be carried out in the recreational areas of each city in the country and the whole countries consuming habits of picnickers can be determined to constitute and operate a nationwide waste management program in recreational areas. Furthermore, the brands of the mostly generated wastes can be spotted and mutual negotiations can be held between them and the governors to sort out this environmental problem.

References

- Atkins, W. A., and Koth, P. (2012). Industry - Water, Effects, Environmental, Pollutants. *Pollution Issues*. Advameg, Inc., 2012. Web. 14 Feb. 2012. Last access date; June 22, 2016. <http://www.pollutionissues.com/Ho-Li/Industry.html>
- Berg, N. (2012). With Urbanization Comes Mountains of Trash. Last access Date; June 15, 2016. <http://www.citylab.com/work/2012/06/urbanization-comes-mountains-trash/2273/>
- Bouzenita, A. I. and Boulanouar, A. W. (2016). Maslow's hierarchy of needs: An Islamic critique. *Intellectual Discourse*, 24:1 (2016) 59–81 Copyright © IJUM Press ISSN 0128-4878 (Print); ISSN 2289-5639 (Online). Last access date; June 20, 2016.

<http://eds.b.ebscohost.com/eds/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=ff09fe7a-cca2-4496-894a-ccc6b6728991%40sessionmgr105&vid=2&hid=121>

Charmaz, K. (2002). *Qualitative interviewing and grounded theory analysis*. In J. F. Gubrium, and J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method* (pp. 675–694). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Coalter, F. (1999). *Leisure sciences and leisure studies: The challenge of meaning*. In E. J. Jackson, & T. L. Burton (Eds.), *Leisure studies: Prospects for the twenty-first century* (pp. 507–519). State College, PA: Venture Publishing.

Consumption and waste, (2016). Last access date; August 10, 2016.
<http://www.ncl.ac.uk/sustainability/research/challenges/consumption/>

Ehrenfeld, D. (2008). *Becoming Good Ancestors*. : Oxford University Press, USA. ProQuest Ebook Central. Web. 24 August 2016. Created from anadolu on 2016-08-24 22:57:37. Last access Date; August 10, 2016.
<https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/anadolu/reader.action?docID=457846&ppg=34>

Glaser, B. G. and Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company.

Guidelines for National Waste Management Strategies, (2016). *United Nations Institute for Training and Research*. Last Access date; August 10, 2016.
<http://www.unep.org/ietc/Portals/136/Publications/Waste%20Management/UNEP%20NWMS%20English.pdf>

Hoorweg, D.; Bhada-tata, P. And Kennedy, C. (2013). *Environment; Waste production must peak this century*. Last access date; May 15, 2016. <http://www.nature.com/news/environment-waste-production-must-peak-this-century-1.14032>

Hössli, P. (2007). As Life Situations Change, So Too Do Values. *Credit Suisse Bulletin*, 29. January 2007. Last access date; May 18, 2016. <http://www.hossli.com/articles/2007/01/29/as-life-situations-change-so-too-do-values/>

IndiaGetGreenblog, (2016). *Natural Environmentalists: 6 animals take “reduce, reuse, recycle” to the next level*. Last access date; May 11, 2016. <https://indiagetgreenblog.com/2013/06/03/natural-environmentalists-6-animals-take-reduce-reuse-recycle-to-the-next-level/>

Kirk, J. and Miller, M. L. (1986). *Reliability and validity in qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Kricher, J. (2009). *The Balance of Nature*. : Princeton University Press. ProQuest Ebook Central. Web. Last access date; August 24, 2016. <http://eds.b.ebscohost.com/eds/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=ff09fe7a-cca2-4496-894a-ccc6b6728991%40sessionmgr105&vid=2&hid=121>

Cloer, L. and Cloer, D. (2013). Manufacturing a Consumer Culture. *Society and Culture*.
<http://www.vision.org/visionmedia/society-and-culture-consumerism/74097.aspx>

Platt, J. (2002). *The history of the interview*. In J. F. Gubrium, and J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method* (pp. 33–54). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Urban Development Series, (2016). Waste Generation. Generation. Last access date;
<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTURBANDEVELOPMENT/Resources/336387-1334852610766/Chap3.pdf>

The Side Effects of Unplanned Promotion of Tourism in Rural Regions: An Analysis of Cumalıkızık Village, Turkey

Davut Uysal

PhD Cand , Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Tourism Faculty, Department of Hotel Management

Yaşar Sarı

Assoc. Prof. Dr., Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Tourism Faculty, Department of Hotel Management

Nazmi Taslacı

PhD Cand., Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Tourism Faculty, Department of Hotel Management

Abstract

Rural development is a priority in Turkey, and tourism is promoted in rural regions for that purpose. However, in Turkey's Cumalıkızık village, tourism appears to have caused some unexpected problems for the village dwellers, which is contrary to the objectives of promotion of rural tourism. The study presented here investigated the problems tourism has led in a rural village in Turkey. Using qualitative methods, data were collected and analyzed during 1 month of fieldwork by the researchers. Results of the analysis of the data collected through in-depth interviews reveal that Cumalıkızık suffers from unplanned promotion of rural tourism. The problems suffered by the local people are presented under relevant headings. The findings obtained with this study highlight the importance of planning rural tourism in a region to encourage expected targets in a rural area. Management related implications are also discussed in the study.

Keywords: Rural tourism, rural development, planning rural tourism

1- Introduction

Tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world, and it is suggested that it is a means of increasing national income, which is especially true for the developing countries. Like many other countries, Turkey has made great investments in tourism to promote its share in national income. However, tourism is claimed to lead to some problems and destructive effects in both national and local level when it is promoted in an uncontrolled way. Rural tourism in rural development is a major theme of sustainable tourism, and sustainable tourism has been a popular issue in developing countries whereas there is still a lot regarding sustainable tourism to discuss about (Carter, 1991). This study aims to examine the negative effects of unplanned promotion of tourism in a rural area within the context of an old Ottoman village in Turkey.

In this study, rural tourism in rural development will be dealt with under three main topics:

Rural tourism and the role of rural tourism in rural development.

Its economic, environmental and sociocultural impacts

Specific impacts of rural tourism considering the case of Cumalıkızık village in Turkey

2- Literature Review

2-1 What is Rural Development?

Rural development is defined as the developments benefitting those living in a certain rural area. In such a case, development is understood as the sustained improvement of the life standards of the people dwelling in that area. Rural development is actually closely related to the structural transformation of a rural area with economic diversification away from agriculture. The process of building a rural development with a diversified economy starts with the rapid agricultural

growth and the share of employment in agriculture declines by time (Johnston, 1970). Beginning from 1970s, the definition of rural development mainly focused on the delivery of social services to poor people in rural regions. Access to social services by rural people has primary significance because rapid growth in the income share from rural development does not mean that rural people of that region can benefit from the social services (Ruttan, 1984). Lacroix (1985) defines rural development suggesting a definition which primarily focuses on the poor's benefit. Thus, the distinction is made clear between pure agricultural and rural development. Agricultural development puts an emphasis on capital development, but rural development puts a focus on human capital development. Considering the definitions suggested above, it is possible to come up with a general definition regarding rural development which can be stated as the improvement of the welfare of all members of the rural population, but there is still a primary focus on the poor in the rural region.

2-2 What is Rural?

To be able to interpret rural development, there is also a need to make clear what rural is. In practice, there are two main methodologies to define rural. The first methodology is closely related to a geographical definition. First, urban is defined by law, and the rest of urban areas are defined as rural. This methodology seems to be problematic because the population living out of the geographical limit of a city is automatically counted as rural people. The second popular methodology is to use observed population agglomeration to define urban. In such a methodology, the areas where more than 2.000 people inhabit are considered to be urban and the rest is named as rural. This methodology seems to be more popular as it has a clear cut borderline between urban and rural. What differs for countries is the borderline, which is 2000 in this case, and it may change from country to country. 100 people may be a threshold in some African countries whereas 20.000 is a threshold in some European countries. Another less popular methodology is to count the agglomerations of homes in one region. For example 100 dwellings in Peru is considered to be an urban area whereas some countries consider the availability of services in defining urban such as water, electricity, education and health services (Roberts and Hall 2003; UN Demographic Year-books and Robinson, 1990)

2-3 Definition of Rural Tourism

Rural tourism, which is the main focus of this study, is not an easy term to define in one single definition. However, the term of rural tourism is often related with rural development and sustainable tourism. Webster (1975) defines rural development as a process leading to an increase in the capacity of the rural people to control their environment as they have more benefits regarding their control over their environment. There are a lot of factors affecting rural development such as economic development, humanitarian attitudes, environment, social values and knowledge (Poostchi, 1986). On the other hand, sustainable development is defined as the way of increasing living standards of people so that they can fulfil their humanitarian potential in life, enjoy the lives of dignity and to guarantee the welfare of present and future generations (Villiers, 1997). Rural tourism is another form of sustainable tourism that uses the resources in rural regions without any harmful effect. It is also important for sustainable tourism to generate benefits in increasing numbers with regards to productivity, employment opportunities, improved distribution of wealth, conservation of rural environment and culture, local people's involvement, suitable ways of adapting traditional beliefs and tourism in rural regions. However, in spite of all the positive themes or rural tourism suggested above, rural tourism may lead to many harmful consequences if adequate planning and monitoring is not done when rural tourism is promoted in a rural area at the very beginning.

2-4 Importance of Tourism in Rural Development

Tourism in rural areas creates a lot of employment opportunities and opportunities for business growth if the amount of other opportunities is limited in a rural area. Tourism may also have a function of maintaining and protecting the present job opportunities and self-employment in rural areas. Tourism offers the ability support the income opportunities of the business operating in a region. For example, agricultural practices may be diversified. Tourism also supports the economic survival skills of communities. The services delivered at a certain location, such as shops, restaurants and transport services are supported and sustained by the people visiting these places for touristic places. Tourism has the ability to contribute to the conservation of a destination's natural and built environment through businesses and visitors which benefit the rural assets in a region (ASAPFT, 2010).

2-5 Planning Tourism in Rural Development

Planning process in rural tourism starts with the choice of a qualified village to attract tourists. Then managerial operations are implemented to increase the benefit from rural tourism (Mahmoudi, Haghsetan, Meleki, 2011). If relevant plans are made regarding the promotion of rural tourism in a rural area, the benefits of tourism can increase or the negative effects of it can decrease. Therefore, it may be a starting point to help communities understand the possible impacts of the tourism to be promoted in a rural area. If communities are made aware of any consequences, it becomes easier to take relevant actions to minimize or even prevent them. Active planning helps tourism to serve the goals of the rural community helping them have a clear mind of the roles of tourism and it also helps them unite in multiple interests. Planning is not the only thing to be done. Relevant implementation and management plans need to be supported. If people of the region are aware of any emerging tourism issues, the benefits of rural tourism will be maximized and negative effects will be minimized. Monitoring the community should be an integrated part of the management effort. If a functional monitoring system can be structured, trouble areas regarding the rural tourism will be easily made clear and community leaders will be given the chance to make relevant changes before a crisis emerges. However, it should be noted here that few communities where rural tourism is promoted are as proactive as mentioned above (Kreag, 2001)

2-6 Effects of Unplanned Tourism in Rural Development

If adequate planning and monitoring is not done when rural tourism is promoted in a rural area, some drawbacks may be experienced and these drawbacks can be investigated under three headings; economic, environmental and sociocultural impacts, which are; (Rattanasuwongchai, 1998)

Economic Impact

Although rural tourism is considered to offer many benefits such as employment, higher government revenue and agricultural transformation, it is also suggested to damage the rural societies. Tourism helps people and entrepreneurs to have prosperity, but the same cannot be suggested for rural communities because of the following reasons;

Most of the facilities delivering services and products in the rural areas mainly belong to investors from cities, and they take most of the profits earned from the tourism in the area.

Food, drink and such daily necessities offered to the visitors in the region are generally imported from other regions rather than serving locally produced products.

Revenues collected through taxes and similar fees do not go to the local people's interest, but they mostly go to the central government.

Local labour force is usually employed for the positions at low levels. Employment opportunities for local people are much less than considered.

Over the past years, rural areas haven't benefitted much from the multiplier effect regarding the development of local handicrafts, or agriculture. This is considered to be mainly because of the lack of relevant linkage between tourism and local production.

Environmental Impact

The number of visitors to a rural touristic destination increases in time, and their average length of stay also increases. Having more visitors mean overuse of natural resources and more negative effects on the nature where the services and products are delivered to visitors. In addition to that, tourism may make it compulsory to build better infrastructure, transportation and other facilities which may potentially lead to more damage to the environment. Some tourism activities such as camping and etc. may cause environmental pollution through the unhygienic disposal of human waste and littering. Therefore, stricter regulations may be needed for land use, and the structuring in the region such as building new facilities for accommodation purposes may spoil the local scenery

Sociocultural Impact

As local people can earn more from visitors to a rural destination than they can from their agricultural activities, local people are generally willing to accept and engage in rural tourism without thinking about its possible negative effects on their region in the future. If tourism in rural areas is not planned well, villagers and their villages may be invaded by foreigners with different values which may in time spoil the local tissue. Then local people start to forget their traditional and cultural values, and traditional houses are transformed into modern buildings which we often see in cities. Thus local culture is spoiled. The agriculture which is generally the main means of existence for local people becomes the secondary means of existence after tourism. The higher standards of life in urban destinations attract people from rural areas, and rural people start to immigrate to urban destinations which then damage the demographic structures of rural areas. Such negative effects on rural communities have become stronger and there is a need to modify rural tourism so that it can give rural people the benefits they are supposed to have.

2-7 Focus of the Study

This study aimed to examine side effects of unplanned promotion of rural tourism in an ancient Ottoman village which has been implementing rural tourism for decades in Turkey. The name of the village where this study was carried out is Cumalıkızık. Cumalıkızık is a village in Bursa Province and located 10 kilometres in the east of Bursa. Its history goes back to the foundation period of Ottoman Empire. Cumalıkızık was founded as a wakif village. The historical texture of the village has been protected very well and the architectural structures of the early Ottoman period regarding countryside are still available for visitors. Because of this, Cumalıkızık has become a popular destination for tourists from other cities.

3- Method

Coalter (1999) suggested that over-dependence on classical quantitative methods in empirical science limits the extend of the understanding of meaning. Therefore, he suggested fragmenting, quantifying and categorising the collected data in case studies. With this regard, Coalter suggested a renewed focus on the cultural contexts of leisure's meaning with the use of qualitative methods. He defended that meaning can best be collected from individuals with a special interest in their cultures. Similarly, Samdahl (1999) also suggested that social reality is based on some different cultural and historical contexts. Therefore, the cultural-historical context gives meaning to the social processes. This study aims to examine a social transformational process, which is rural tourism. The focus of the study is a small Ottoman Village, Cumalıkızık in Turkey. As the meaning is the primary focus within the context of Cumalıkızık, qualitative methods are considered to best suit for the purpose of this study. Regarding this point, Cohen (1988) suggested that most valuable contributions to the field of tourism have been made by the researchers employing qualitative methods in their field studies. The use of qualitative methods in the studies in the field of tourism increased beginning from 1990s (Riley and Love, 2000). This increase in the use of qualitative methods matched with the interest in communities' perceptions regarding tourism and its impacts (Walle, 1997).

The aim of this study is to reveal the local experience of the people in Cumalıkızık regarding rural tourism in their region. The method of discovery is qualitative as justified above. The researchers' initial interest in Cumalıkızık is to explore rural tourism's local meaning. Preliminary investigations were conducted regarding Cumalıkızık through the researchers' former visits prior to the study. The last visits to the village were in June, 2016 and the researchers collected preliminary data from the local people through daily visits. It was during these purposeful visits that raised awareness of the researchers regarding the negative effects of unplanned rural tourism in Cumalıkızık. This awareness raised new questions which the researcher looked for answers through interviews with the locals. Active interviews were conducted with the local people. Active interviewing technique takes the advantage of interviewee's life experience accepting him/her as an authority on the issue investigated. What is important for interviewers at this point is to keep the conversation focused on the key points of interest, but they should also be ready to revise the interview questions under the light of the emerging new ideas. The interviews mainly dealt with the residents' pre-tourism interaction, Cumalıkızık's history, significant events, the values that the village have, what has changed for better or worse following the promotion of rural tourism in the village. As these issues were investigated through the active interviews, new topics emerged and the data collection expanded. Through these questions mentioned above, it was aimed that the effects of rural tourism on a region will be investigated.

As the focus of the in-depth interviews expanded, the addition of new sampling through new interviews continued. The interviewees were selected through theoretical sampling method. Theoretical sampling is a strategy in which collection of

data continues till the investigated topic has been saturated with enough information (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Therefore, the interview process went on with the local people in Cumalıkızık until no newer information emerged regarding the topic of interest. As the interviewer sampled new interviewees in the study, the researchers also revised the previous type-recorded interviews conducted before to gain newer insights regarding the emerging issues in the subsequent interviews. The number of total interviews was 26 in total when all visits were considered through a month. Genders, life stages and education backgrounds of the interviewees were disregarded as they are out of concern in the study. All the interviewees were type-recorded following the approval of the interviewees, and then they were all transcribed by the researchers. Additional data were also collected through informal chats and observations regularly recorded during the field study.

All the data collected through the field work were analysed based on a grounded theory framework (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). According to this theory, collected data are continuously analysed through the whole research process, not when all data are collected at the end of the field research. This analysis requires several steps as open coding, focused coding, categorising and theory building as (Charmaz, 2002). The codes help the researchers to compare the data from one respondent to the next. At the very beginning of the data analysis, open codes were used to highlight the content of the data by reducing record contents to single words or phrases summing up the essence of the collected data. When all the interviews were analysed, open codes were studied with great care, and the ones most frequently repeated were selected to have larger data. This is also called as focused coding. The focused codes are obtained from the constant comparison of the conducted interviews, and they represent themes in the data more explicitly than open codes. In this study, focused codes were categorized. In the end, theory is developed by the researchers to build connections between the final categories.

It is suggested that qualitative studies are considered to be reliable when the data is collected by the same individual (Kirk and Miller, 1986). Therefore, the interviews were conducted by only one individual in this study to make it reliable. However, all the coding procedures were controlled by the other researchers when the first coding finished. Validity in active interviews, as in this study, is obtained through the conversational approach for data collection in field researches (Platt, 2002). Opposed to the survey interviews, it is possible for both parties of the interaction to clarify what is said in active interviews. Validity of this study is also increased by extending the data collection into a month. The fact that the researchers are familiar with this village through their former visits in the past and they have been also familiar with the life in this village also increases the validity of the study. The following extracts from the researchers illustrate the validity of the methods used in this study;

"In one of my visits, a couple selling souvenirs in the village came to me and said that I was really keen in village life and curious the real life in the Cumalıkızık village. They also appreciated my willingness to try to speak to everybody and learn more about the life in the village. Then, they went on to say that this study would offer true information regarding the village and tourism in the village as we are getting real stories from real life in the village"

As suggested by Kirk and Miller (1986), only an insightful fieldworker who builds real communication with people in the field can help the validity of the study extending the fieldwork as much as needed to gather the amount of information for the study. No names are given in the study to protect anonymity.

4- Data Analysis

For the analysis of the data collected in this study, Qualitative Data Analysis Miner programme was used. The interviews conducted in the field work were transcribed by the researchers very carefully, and then they were all added to the relevant analysis programme in doc formats. All the transcriptions were read on the programme carefully to find what was common in them. The pieces of information in each transcription were put under a relevant category. When necessary, new categories were created and relevant pieces of information was put into relevant category. When all the transcriptions were done for categorisations, the researchers re-evaluated the obtained categories to see if there was any overlap between them, or if there was any category to be combined or deleted. Some categories were combined to reduce the number of categories to make it easy to interpret the final categories. The final categories obtained in the study are "Demand control", "Unplanned promotion of rural tourism", "Deterioration in social relationships" and "Effects on agricultural activities". These four categories were found to be the final four categories reduced from many subcategories obtained from the analysis of the data. The final four categories are justified as follows depending on the finding in the study;

5- Results

“Demand Control”

The data gathered from the local people through interviews reveal that local people in Cumalıkızık complain about the visitors' control (demand control) over their village suggesting that they shape the market and supply in the village, which, according to them, is not good for the sustainability of the tourism and touristic environment in the village. When considered that Cumalıkızık is an ancient Ottoman village with plenty of Ottoman houses and some other historical values which were the primary reasons for visitors to come there long years ago, before it became a popular rural destination, people are expected to come to this village to see them, but the findings from the field work reveal that the most common reason for visitors to come to this village is to have breakfast and to stay away from the chaos of the city life rather than exploring the ancient texture of the village. The local people want to sell their traditional, home and hand-made stuffs, but visitors do not demand for them. Therefore, villagers feel they have to meet the demands of the visitors to survive and make money, which transforms such villages into the same types whereas such touristic destinations are supposed to come to the fore with their unique values. The following statement from respondent 9 is a good example for this.

“We were very happy people at the very beginning when touristic activities started here years ago. We wanted to sell the products that my wife made and the kind of materials which are unique to this village. We have many values that make our village different from any kind of other villages. As time passed, visitors demanded for the kind of materials available in any other place rather than demanding for what makes this village unique. Therefore, almost everybody started to sell such products giving up being busy with the products that make us different. As local people, we could not become organized and take the control of the market. Visitors control and shape the market”

This example makes it clear that when rural tourism is promoted in a region, the control of the market should not be given to the demand. If it happens so, the demand makes the destination similar to any other destinations that they have visited before.

Unplanned Promotion of Rural Tourism

The second category that summed up many shared views from the interviews analysed in the study is the unplanned promotion of the rural tourism in a region. Dwellers of Cumalıkızık feel that there are strict rules set by authorities regarding the renovations of the houses or some other assets. Therefore, villagers suffer from many problems such as not being able to make necessary renovations in their houses. Because their village is in the list of UNESCO cultural heritage, it is officially prohibited to make any change or renovation in their houses. They complain that the houses in which they are delivering services or products to the visitors are not physically appropriate for such services. Therefore, there is an urgent need for re-planning of tourism in their village considering all infrastructures needed (which should have been done before the promotion of rural tourism in the region years ago). Another finding of the study is that the villages were not made aware of the pros and cons of rural tourism in their village. The following example from the respondent 3 is a good example for that;

“I had an empty house in the village as I had moved to the city centre. Seeing that tourism was developing in my village, I decided to come back and start selling local foods, such as Gözleme and tea. But I was not allowed to make the renovations that I needed for my investment in my village because it was in the list of UNESCO cultural heritage. I do not think that putting such legal limitations regarding the renovations of the old houses is not good at the beginning because we need to do it for an appropriate and comfortable service delivery to our visitors to feel happy and to make them happy.”

As seen in the example above, rural tourism needs to be planned before it started in a region not to cause any unjust treatments in the future which may hinder the functioning and sustainability of the tourism appropriately.

Deterioration in Social Relationship

The third category which stood out in the study is deterioration in social relationships. The local people interviewed claim that they had better and sincere relationships before tourism became popular in Cumalıkızık. With the development of tourism in the village, people started competing with one another to sell and earn more whereas they were very close neighbours and friends. Local people complain about that, and they miss the sincerity and truthfulness they had for one another as villagers in the past. They claim that their relationship started to deteriorate with the promotion of tourism in

their village. They are not happy with competing with their friends to earn more at the cost of losing their friendships, but they have to do it. A good example for that can be the following extract from respondent 16;

"In the past, before tourism became a means of living for villagers, we had better relationships and we had more time to help one another and to spend time together. When money started to be a matter with the start of the tourism in our village, we started to be two-faced and compete with one another to earn more, but people have lost real friends. I really miss the old days; we had less money but had more time and sincerity to one another."

As seen in the example above, people in the village are not happy with the sincerity in their relationships to one another as the villagers. They complain that they earn money through tourism, but they lose friends, sincerity.

Decrease in Agricultural Activities

The last category is about the decrease in agricultural activities. The findings obtained through field work suggest that people in this village are engaged in agriculture less when compared to the start of tourism in the region because they seem to have got used to earning money in an easier and more comfortable way through tourism. As outsiders have started to buy villagers' lands together with the increase in the popularity of the village, they had to give up being engaged in agriculture. Therefore, most of the lands which used to be valuable means of living before tourism became popular in the village are not cultivated anymore. What is worse, the ancestral lands which villagers had and had to sell to outsiders are used for housing purposes rather than farming. A good example can be the following extract from respondent 7;

"We have to sell agricultural lands where we used to farm in the past. We were expecting to produce more in agriculture and sell them to visitors when tourism started in our village. However, our lands have increased in value with the development of tourism, and villagers have started to sell their ancestral houses to foreigners who have a lot of money. We are not happy for that, we really feel sorry for selling our ancestral lands, but they cost too much for us to keep. Therefore, we cannot do agriculture; the lands sold to outsiders are used for housing purposes, which is also very upsetting"

As seen in the extract above, the touristic development in Cumalıkızık led local people to stopping agricultural activities and selling the lands that they had had for long years. As Johnston (1970) suggests, the process of building a rural development starts with the rapid agricultural growth and the share of employment in agriculture declines by time, but that does not mean that agricultural activities will stop wholly.

6- Discussion and Conclusion

Tourism has created a lot of benefits in Cumalıkızık, improved housing, increased land costs and increased accommodation opportunities. However, that does not mean that tourism has not led any deterioration in the region. The residents' reactions in the village suggest that they are happy with the development in tourism in their village, but they also complain about some problems which unplanned tourism may have led. They expect the process of rural tourism to be under supervision. This study aims to attract attention to the fact that promotion of tourism in a rural area needs to be planned well before it started in a region and the process needs to be monitored not to cause the kind of problems mentioned above through the findings of this study. The findings of this study support those suggested by Rattanasuwongchai (1998) who suggested that unplanned promotion of tourism may have some negative sociocultural and economic impacts on the rural area. The findings support what Rattanasuwongchai (1998) claims regarding economic impacts. Food, drink and daily necessities served to visitors in the region are generally imported from outside rather than producing locally. The findings of the study also support the following claim of Rattanasuwongchai (1998); rural areas haven't benefitted much from the multiplier effect on the development of local handicrafts, or agriculture. This is mainly because of the weak linkage between tourism and local production.

The findings of this study are also closely related to Rattanasuwongchai (1998) regarding sociocultural impact. The findings of this study suggest that local people start to forget their traditional and cultural values and traditional houses are transformed into commercial units to earn money. The agriculture in the rural region which is generally the main means of existence for local people becomes the secondary means of existence after tourism. Demographic structure of the village also changes dramatically with the new comers either for commercial or housing purposes. The village becomes an attraction for those foreigners with a lot of money and they buy the lands of villagers with the help of their financial powers. The findings of this study do not suggest anything regarding the environmental effects of rural tourism. That is interesting

because the reserachers personally have observed a lof of negative environmental effects of rural tourism, such as environmental pollution from unhygienic disposal of human waste, discharge of sewerage effluent into water sources and littering, but villagers seem not to complain about these. That may be because of the fact that the villagers are not adequately aware of environmental issues in where they live. It is also suggested that regulations regarding land use and structuring in the region should be reevaluated by local and central authorities within the context of the region where rural tourism is promoted. The findings obtained with this study can also be used to draw the conclusion that there is not a one-size-fit all rural tourism development plan. Local chracacteristics of rural regions should be considered and studied well before the start of rural tourism in the region.

References

- ASAPFT, 2010. *A strategic Action plan for Tourism in 2010-2010 in England*. Last access date; August 22,2016, https://www.visitengland.com/sites/default/files/downloads/finalrural_tourism_action_plan.pdf
- Carter English Tourist Board, (1991). *The Green Light, a Guide to Sustainable Tourism*. English Tourist Board, London, England. Quoted in Pamela Wight. 1994. Environmental marketing of tourism. In: Ecotourism: A Sustainable Option? Elert Cater and Gwen Lowman (Eds.). John Wiley and Sons, West Sussex, England, pp. 44-47.
- Charmaz, K. (2002). *Qualitative interviewing and grounded theory analysis*. In J. F. Gubrium, and J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method* (pp. 675–694). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cohen, E. (1988). Traditions in the qualitative sociology of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15, 29–46.
- Glaser, B. G. and Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company.
- Johnston, B.F. (1970). Agriculture and Structural Transformations in Developing Countries: A Survey of the Research, *Journal of Economic Literature*, 8(2) pp. 369-404.
- Kirk, J. and Miller, M. L. (1986). *Reliability and validity in qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Kreag, G. (2001). The Impacts of Tourism. *Minnesota Sea Grant*. Last access date: August 22, 2016, <http://www.seagrant.umn.edu/tourism/pdfs/ImpactsTourism.pdf>
- Lacroix, R. (1985). Integrated Rural Development in Latin America, *World Bank Staff Working Papers*, Nr. 716, World Bank, Washington DC.
- Mahmoudi, B., Haghsetan, A. and Meleki, R., (2011). Investigation of Obstacles and Strategies of Rural Tourism Development Using SWOT Matrix. *Journal of Sustainable Development*. Vol: 4, No: 2.
- Platt, J. (2002). *The history of the interview*. In J. F. Gubrium, and J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method* (pp. 33–54). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Poostchi, I. (1986). *Rural Development and the Developing Countries: An Interdisciplinary Introductory Approach*. The Alger Press Ltd., Ottawa, Canada.
- Rattanasuwongchai, N. (1998). Rural Tourism - the Impact on Rural Communities II. Thailand. Department of Career Sciences Kasetsart University Bangkok, Thailand. Lass access date: June 22, 2016, <http://www.agnet.org/library.php?func=view&id=20110726131206>
- Roberts, L. and Hall, D. (2003). *Rural Tourism and Recreation: Principles to Practice*. CABI Publishing. UK.
- Ruttan, V. W. (1984). Integrated Rural Development Programmes: A Historical Perspective World-Development," *World Development*, 12(4), pp. 393-401.
- UN Demographic Year-books, (1998). www.unis.unvienna.org/unis/.../pi225.html
- Villiers, D.J.D. (1997). Tourism 2000: Building a sustainable future for Asia-Pacific. Address at Asia Pacific Minister's Conference on Tourism and the Environment, and the High-level Technical Seminar on Sustainable Tourism Development. Maldives, 16-17. (Unpublished Mimeograph).
- Walle, A. H. (1997). Quantitative versus qualitative tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(3), 524–536.
- Webster, R.L. 1975. *Integrated Communication*. University of Hawaii, Honolulu, U.S.A.

The Profile of Tomorrow's School Teacher

Dr. Marta Topçiu

Department of Teaching Methodology, Faculty of Education Sciences

University "Aleksander Xhuvani", Elbasan, Albania

Abstract

Nowadays teachers are precious! The list of features that will be considered in this article is not a mere "static" description of the professional teacher we know but it is a set of attributes that should be developed in the name of tomorrow's new professionalism that raises numerous requests. Traditional competences need to be enriched and complemented (replenished) with new ones. The new form of professionalism requires teachers who want to work and have the concern to lay the foundations of lifelong learning; it requires teachers who want to cultivate creative personalities, open-minded people, individuals who worship free and deep thought and individuals who are devoted to innovation. Teaching in tomorrow's world is a challenge. The modern world does not deal with what is already known; it is interested in what we can do with what we know. Only in this way, school helps the society adapt to economic, social and technological changes. Only this way teachers fulfill their mission which regards helping the general progress. Only this way, in front of people with diplomas, the ability to think differently and to be creative will make the difference. Nowadays pupils have grown up with the internet and the numerical media, and this constitutes the point of reference for them. The whole generation is situated in a special rapport with information and the new ways of socializing. This evolution should not be put aside by teachers. The issue that rises in front of them, particularly those who are not grown up in this kind of universe, does not question whether to go towards this evolution or not, but rather use it in an effective way. New perspectives and difficulties open up to us. Only like this, teachers fulfill their mission in support of the overall progress. It will be exactly the ability to think differently and act creatively that would make the difference among graduates in the future. It remains to be seen to what extent the stakeholders, especially the teachers, will be willing to invest in the new professionalism that the school of tomorrow requires.

Keywords: profile, teacher, professionalism, modern world.

Introduction

Teachers have constituted a topic of discussion during all the times, since Socrates, Aristotels to Komenski, Pestaloci, Herbart and up to nowadays.

This profession has undergone transformations and it would be an illusion believing that it will be changeless. The majority of any society, in any time, designs for teachers the role of the "wise who will prepare future generations donating them the appropriate knowledges of the adult". Children are the citizens of the future and teaching them means precede tomorrow. The person who wishes to become a teacher should know that there are lots of roles to accomplish, such as: social assistant, psychologist, educator, conflict regulatory or the confidential figure; therefore, both, from a human and technical point of view, this figure will always be in a constant altering.

In the future, teacher's role will no longer consist in transmitting knowledge to the pupils. His main duty will be teaching them how to learn to become able to face a world that alters constantly and is full of insecurities. If we want to act on children, influence on them, define their development, it is not sufficient examining just the means that are at the disposal of the teacher. On the contrary, we should take in consideration teacher's personality, in his external light, the impression he offers, as well as, the special conditions of this action (Leif, J., et Rustin, 1984). Some individuals have features, particular

behaviours which favors them to become excellent teachers. In case they manage to succeed in this, it is indispensable for them to possess other qualities to become successful (Murati, Xh., 2004).

Constant qualities of a teacher

A question raises: what kind of qualities should a teacher have for his portrait to be lovable, attendable, notable and complete? What kind of qualities should he have in order to see the present, and moreover the future, in him?

Today's teacher, and moreover tomorrow's one, should possess *pedagogical competences*.

He should adapt his explanation to the class needs. He should explain in a clear way, without skipping steps in his reasoning; he should plainly, and without misunderstandings, show the path of thinking. He should know his pupils' way of reasoning well. He should be organized, follow a logical plan, answer pupils' questions, even when it means slowing down the class rhythm; he should illustrate his words with concrete examples, bring everything through a comprehensible language in order to avoid complicating the subject; and he should use appropriate means in the service of his goal. He should be clear to all his pupils; he should be accurate and avoid to write everything everywhere in the blackboard space. On the contrary, he should write just the essential part in it. He should be competent on the subject he explains; he should convey trust; he should not hesitate; he should make corrections.

Today's teacher, and moreover tomorrow's one, should have the ability to *present knowledge*.

He should be interesting; he should know how to attract attention; he should know how to make pupils love his subject; he should know how to transmit his passion and hit the imagination. He should be dynamic, energetic; he should have a sense of humor in order to relieve pupils from uncomfortable situations by not making a drama out of them. He should be motivated and love what he makes; he should be passionate, alive, a good speaker, dominant; he should speak out loud and in an obvious way; he should avoid being monotonous; he should be audibly reachable to everyone. He should have a good administration of the course rhythm; he should pause to allow memory to get refreshed; he should be creative with the means and methods he uses to convey knowledge. He should know how to manage the group. He should have the respect of his audience; he should be charismatic; he should show authority; his voice should be heard; he should know how to keep the class under control without being too strict in order to avoid making the pupil hesitant to ask the friend next to him (it is not always easy to listen, even when you wish you could). He should encourage collaboration among pupils. He should be fair, unbiased and non-judgmental toward his pupils.

He should be empathetic: cautious, open, comprehensible to pupils. A teacher should not rush, but rather quietly understand problems related to pupils' comprehension toward him. He should know how to repeat without getting upset, but rather show patience when any of the pupils do not understand anything. He should show interest in all of them being human and tolerant. He should know how to dialogue and joke with the pupils. The teacher should feel responsible for his pupils and their knowledge. He should not avoid pupils having difficulties and gaps in knowledge, but rather do something more for them. He should be generous and answer questions even when they arise out of the defined program. He is an educator and as such he should advice pupils on life problems, as well. He should not despise them. He should know how to place himself in their shoes and level.

As far as personality is concerned, he should be polite, jovial, smiling and funny. He should have a simple look, yet cool, precise and intelligent. Showing this kind of personality helps his desire to communicate and pupils' passion to learn. A good teacher judges in a correct way every time and he acts in a humble way. He is passionate and enthusiastic, dynamic and fair, ready to help and open-minded, attentive and creative, empathetic and auto-critical; he accepts his knowledge limits and get interested in what pupils say, think and do. He addresses his pupils the same way he addresses adults; he shows courage, feels enthusiasm for his job, encourages them to imitate him, undertakes risks, shows compassion and curiosity for the pupils, loves them and makes them work for him.

Kids are not all good-behaviour kids; they are not all perfect, thus they should be accepted as they are, with their flaws and qualities, strengths and weaknesses, eases and difficulties. Working with children is not a simple thing. School belongs to all children, including those who do not fancy learning. Teaching is a profession that holds big responsibilities.

A teacher trains and educates. His task does not include only training, but educating, socializing, cultivating values, as well. Educating means assisting a child in growing up. Teaching means being a professor, a sociologist, a psychologist, an educator, an instructor, etc. This requires not only an open mind, but skills to play with all the disciplines, as well.

Teaching is a profession that goes under constant transformation

Actually the consequences of the political and economic environment fall on children, as well. The latter reflect not only learning difficulties in school, but also the burden of their social problems. Nowadays, when lots of cultures are presented, when children with limited capacities and children facing divorce in their family get integrated, teacher's tasks within the school institution are increased. The more his tasks are increased, the more this profession develops, get modified and faces changes. Teaching world itself is a prey to continuous changes and reforms. Thus, it is always the teacher himself the one asking for some ease in adapting and improvising by breaking the routine.

Teacher in front of the "digital world born child"

Our 21st century school should educate pupils to become able to adapt themselves during their whole life to a more complex, globalized, multicultural and diverse environment which is characterized by an amazing technological progress (Allard, L., 2015).

As the main mission of the teacher is to educate citizens, he could not perform this task without the appropriate training in using digital means. A teacher should be conscious about this fact. However, even if he cannot, being in front a "digital world born child" (Capello, M., 2015), he is obliged to adapt himself continuously in order to perform in this aspect, too. Children are grown up with Google and the idea that every information is found there: "type Google and find what you want". Grown-ups type Google, as well, but they know information can be found elsewhere, too. Internet is an essential issue and the teacher should fight to transform it into a pedagogical mean and put it at the disposal of children or youngsters' civic education (Qerimi, H., 2006).

Using internet in the teaching process constitutes a priority and can make its easier. Internet is an important teaching tool and it often provides a coherent or a more updated information than teaching texts. Internet helps the teacher add knowledge and improve teaching. He finds information, knowledge, materials, guides or suggestions in internet. A teacher can make use of different computer educative programs, varying from exercise-practice programs to practical tasks, simulation and/or instructive games program. Internet provides access to a series of topics and information coming from governmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, colleges, universities, libraries, archives, companies or individuals.

Information selection constitutes the real problem

In order for the teacher to solve this problem in the best possible way, he should build bridges and connections with his pupils outside school environment, as well. This connection should be conserved continuously. How can a teacher of the obligatory school system or high school system conserve this kind of connection with the "digital world born children", thus his pupils? Online blogging activation permits him to publish documents and set up an interactive dialogue with them without a proper physical presence. This method helps collective work and strengthen the relationship between the teacher and the pupils. This constitutes a way for the pupils to face each-other, making comments, questions, reacting, making compliments or critics as regard to treating issues that relates to topics that have been discussed during the course.

This method helps the orientation toward projects that highlights and empower individualism, interaction, creativity and collaboration among pupils themselves and among pupils and the teacher.

Class conversations could be complex and they could intimidate children. Whereas, within a blog, things could flow naturally and a child possesses the word/answer without the pressure of his coevals. The teacher owes the blog and can feel the pleasure of his pupils' interaction increasing along with his role getting stronger. Various topics can be discussed in a blog, including teaching topics or other additional materials, as well. There is place for passions to be shared among the members of the blog. Pupils are able to share discoveries and support each-other. Such a collaboration equally brings academic profits as well as social ones. Blogs may function well because they are a natural continuity of the connection a teacher has with his class. This remains a connection between an individual and a group, not the classical interaction between two

individuals. Class model is a universal one; it was not born yesterday. Thus, there is no reason to change it, and internet cannot change it in a significative way either.

Albanian children in front of the present technology

Information and communication technologies have become a determining feature of our time in the Albanian society as well. This leads to a different life compared to the one we used to live before. There are teenagers, youngsters and children surrounded everywhere by digital technologies, such as: computers, internet, electronic games, mobile phones and other gadgets. It is not rare nowadays to see children holding a "smartphone" which enables them everything; it connects him with the family, close friends and a vast number of his coevals from other parts of the world. A child can hear music and download other music from his favourite musical genres; he can get informed on match results; he can interact in Facebook; he can read or watch television – under this circumstance, he can even think why could a teacher ever be necessary when he has the world in his hands with just "one touch" (F. Salliu 2004).

Thus, the teacher should show to the "digital world born child" that his presence is valuable.

He should give his contribution in order to:

Make it possible for the knowledge and truth on the world to be absorbed and applied in the future;

Ensure an ever-growing development of the critical thinking and the creating one;

Permanently increase the desire and curiosity to know more and more.

On the other hand, it is also true that the Albanian teacher does not always face a "digital world born child". We should admit that not all the children or all the schools in us are provided with computers, particularly if we speak about the remote areas.

In this case, it remains a challenge providing schools with computers and helping the children of these remote areas make use of them in an appropriate way. Teachers should find ways to integrate technology as a working means for educational needs, either by using their personal equipments, or by using the equipments of those pupils who have the possibility to have them.

Whereas, in those cases when there are computers, the teachers should fight in order to prevent pupils from spending time in front of the computers just to chat or play games. Teachers should work to transform this into an effective usage of the computer, which means they should use computers to help teaching process.

Internet and school

Nowadays, among other things, they say that with internet emerging the future school will no longer be the place where children could learn and the teacher will not be more but a simple decoder. There are other extreme opinions stating and imagining complete virtual teachers. There are numerous opinions that foresee pupils will share knowledge and will solve problems together within "a collectivity" and the teacher "will only ease this process". For the moment, this whole situation is possible only in places like Singapore, the most developed country as regard to new technologies area, where every pupil has got an ordinator in school; a pupil has got tablets and video cameras. Notwithstanding this technological hurricane, nothing is impossible!

Conclusions

Nowadays' teacher, moreover tomorrow's teacher, should get constantly trained during his whole life. Should we design his portrait, we would say this teacher should be a reflective practitioner, able to carry out researches in his field, basing and adapting his activity on needs' assessment and pupils' progress. He should continue with the pedagogical differentiation in order to fit with the pupils' diversity.

Teaching is a progressive and integrated development process as regard to knowledge, agilities and expressions on life. Being an interactive profession, and not a static one, it evolves under the influence of a permanent dynamics just like big technologies.

Appropriate and valuable technologies, as well as other teaching resources, will depend on the defined objectives and individuals who fulfill them. According to Eggen and Kauchak (2007),

Just like other teaching resources, appropriate and valuable technologies will depend on defined objectives and on individuals fulfilling them. According to Eggen and Kauchak (2007), without a connection with the teaching objectives, technology could be counterproductive and therefore it can set apart from learning. Teachers should become well aware of this fact.

Today's teacher, and moreover the future one, should not only adapt himself to the speed at which technological changes happen and to the access children have in it, but he should also adapt himself to the cultural changes and the intelligence of the children.

Every day brings new challenges

With a view to positively make use of the full capacity virtual world offers, it is important for teachers to teach pupils ethical and responsible expressions because social changes actually are and will always be the result of the technological changes.

Teachers should teach pupils to:

use online time as rationally as possible;

dedicate the necessary time to internet or other activities, thus challenging digital age;

clarify what information should/should not be delivered in internet;

understand that everything in internet is continuous, replicable and accessible to an invisible auditorium.

One should never forget that teaching resources, even the most interactive ones, such as internet, are just instruments. It is the teacher who should use them wisely. Only the teacher's wisdom will make pupils capable of understanding the world, get integrated in it, get realized and become part of it without turning into its powerless victims. As an actor of the educating community, the teacher contributes and will always contribute, along with his similars, for school designing in the social environment. Consequently, it is indispensable for him to be a humanist, a builder and a designer. Only this way will he open the door to the future for his pupils. Today's teacher, and particularly tomorrow's one, will permanently find themselves in front of challenges: the bigger and more important the challenge, the greater the satisfaction it will produce. In this big human challenge, the teacher who asks and will ask to participate with dignity, will be required to offer a lot from himself.

References

- Reboul, O., (2010), *LA PHILOSOPHIE DE L'ÉDUCATION*, Botimi i dhjetë, Paris.
- Abric, J-C., (2008), *Psychologie de la communication. Théories et méthodes*. Botimi i tretë, Paris.
- Murati, Xh., (2004), *PEDAGOGJIA E PËRGJITHSHME*. Shkup.
- Gjini, F., (2008), *Drejt edukimit të një humnizmi të ri*, Tiranë.
- Halili, S., *Gazeta Shekulli*, (2014) *Të flasim për vlerësimin e mësuesit*.
- Myftiu, J., (2013), *Psikologji edukimi, Mësimdhënia dhe të nxënësit*. Dija-Paradeci.
- Boisvert, J., *Formimi i mendimit kritik, Praktika pedagogjike*. Përkthyer Topçiu, M., (2015) Dija-Paradeci
- Bertrand Claude : Technologies d'Information et de Communication pour l'Enseignement disponible <http://recherche.aix-mrs.iufm.fr/publ/voc/n1/bertrand/index.html>
- <http://www.kohajone.com/2016/08/05/vodafone-secure-net-te-sigurte-ne-boten-dixhitale/>
- <http://femijet.gov.al/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/Broshura-F%3C%3ABmij%3C%3AB-t%3C%3AB-sigurt-n%3C%3AB-internet.pdf>
- <http://www.sciencesetavenir.fr/sante/20150212.OBS2324/generation-z-le-cerveau-des-enfants-du-numerique.html>

Understanding Implementation of Basel II and III in Albania: Obstacles and Solutions

Sokol Ndoka

PHD Cand. , European University of Tirana, Tirana, Albania

Altin Zefi

PHD. Cand. , European University of Tirana, Tirana, Albania

Ermela Kripa

Prof. Assoc. Dr , European University of Tirana, Tirana, Albania

Abstract

Banking Sector in Albania is suffering from high NPL levels, compared with historic levels of NPL in Albania, or with regional nations who have comparable economics. The 2008 crises in USA taught us the impact that the real economy can have from a crisis in Banking Sector. Thus the implementation of Basel III framework and its Capital Requirement ratios becomes crucially important for the stability of the Financial sector and stable growth of the economy. This paper firstly examines the state of Basel II implementation in Albania by the banking sector. The banking sector is primarily invested in government bonds and treasuries and lending to businesses and individuals but the high levels of NPL from both bankrupted businesses and individual poses a credit risks and wider market risks. Albanian Government has committed to speed up implementation of Basel II and Basel III on capital ratios. But questions remain: What's the status of the implementation? Can the economy absorb the costs of implementing or not implementing Basel III? Secondly we research the additional costs associated with implementation of the banking sector. Because of the expansionary policy of the Bank of Albania the lending rates have fallen but not as fast as expected. Credit growth has been mostly stagnant posing a risk to the growth of the economy. For this study we use time series on Financial Institutions in Albania from the Bank of Albania on capital ratios as well as the policies and requirements set. We find that Basel II criteria have not been met and more can be done to prepare the implementation of Basel III.

Keywords: Basel II, Basel III, Bank of Albania, Banking Sector, Implementation, Capital Requirements

Introduction

Financial sector is crucial to the development of the real economy, production and the transfer of the means of the production from the owner to entrepreneurs. But the financial sector also poses huge risks to the real economy. The 2008 sub-prime mortgage crises in the USA came to be known as the "Great Recession" a term reminiscent of the Great Depression of the 1930s.

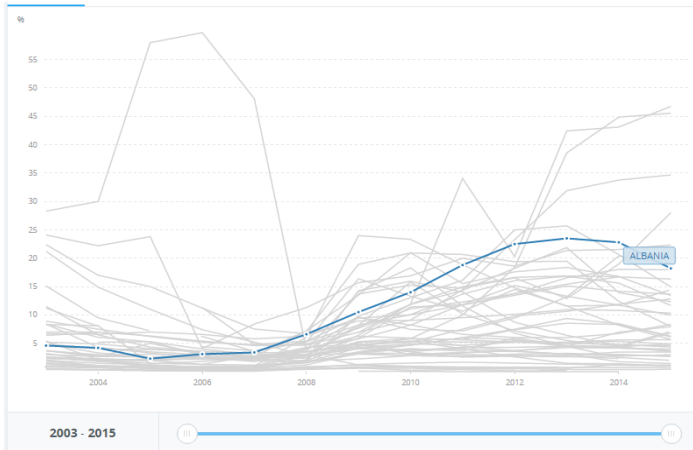
Albanian banking sector has been exposed to some of the same risks as its counterpart in the west. The NPL reached new levels risking to drag down the real economy. The causes of these NPL levels, which in September 2014 reached the level of 24,9%, are identified in the study of Meka.

Lack of economic growth

Declining remittances from emigrants

Unpaid and deferred government obligations to businesses

Loan making patterns applied by Albanian banks before and after the crises
Chart 1: Source: International Monetary Fund, Global Financial Stability Report



In 2015 NPL in Albania 18.2% with an improving trend after the write-offs from the balance sheet of the banks. Countries in the region with a NPL worse than Albania is Serbia and Greece. We would expect Greece to be in this level due to the financial crises that Greece is going through but why Serbia since they are ahead of all regional countries (list below) in implementing Basel II requirements?

According to the National Bank of Serbia the main cause is the risk coming from exchange rate (National Bank of Serbia 2012). About 75% of the loans are denominated in Euro and 90% of the savings are also in foreign currency, mostly Euro.

Despite the small improvements NPL in Albania remain at high levels and more should be done to improve the situation.

Basel II

Basel Committee was created in 1974 in response to the Bretton Woods system collapse to respond to the need for the oversight of the banking system. Out of the committee came the 1988 Accord, subsequently called the Basel I and after much critique (see Jones, 2000) was improved in its final version produced in 2006: "Basel II: International Convergence of Capital Measurement and Capital Standards: A Revised Framework - Comprehensive Version". The summary of Basel II is presented by Caruana (2004) in the chart below:

3 Pillars of Basel II

Pillar 1	Pillar 2	Pillar 3
Minimum Capital Requirements: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Risk management incentives New operational risk capital charge Risk weighted assets (RWA) for credit more risk sensitive Market risk largely unchanged 	Supervisory Review: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Solvency reports Regulatory review Capital determination Regulatory intervention Addresses risks that are not captured in Pillar 1 like concentration, interest rate, and liquidity risks 	Market Discipline: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Minimum disclosure requirements Scope Capital transparency Capital adequacy Risk measurement & management Risk profiling

Figure 1: 3 Pillars of Basel II

Source; Jaime Caruana, 2014

2.1- Basel II accord and the its integration in the Albanian regulatory system

The challenges for Albania in adopting Basel II standards were foreshadowed by then Governor of the BOA. Of the many challenges he foresees in the information disclosure criteria by the banks is the public reaction to bad news.

"However, in short run information disclosure might also have some adverse implication, say in Albania. Let me explain myself better on this issue. Public is usually more sensitive to bad news than positive developments. In countries like Albania, reactions between good or bad news are even more asymmetric than in mature market economies. Public in Albania is particularly over-reactive toward grim news on banking sector or on a certain bank while tend to ignore what falls in the positive side. This could be due to both historical factors, e.g. the crisis of financial system in 1997, and culture factors e.g. low level of bank business understanding, e.g. the overreaction of public to the introduction of the Deposit Insurance Law in 2002. This means that enhanced information disclosure required by Basle II, could be problematic if not supported by a proper public understanding." (Fullani, 2005)

Mr. Fullani concludes by partially committing to try to implement Basel II "its implementation may be a bit too ambitious and a difficult task for our countries. Therefore, it is in our interest to find ways to make it more suitable to our needs by following a gradual approach rather than jeopardizing its success through an uninformed adoption." (Fullani, 2015)

Despite the reluctant beginning by Albania's regulatory body, BOA, the Basel II framework and its policy goals became a necessity since the EU has made compliance with Basel II mandatory for countries that opt to join EU.

In its medium term policy strategy, the governing body of the Bank of Albania laid out the goals to implement the Basel II accord in the areas of Capital requirement, regulatory policy and adopting the IFRS accounting principles. (BoA – Strategjia Afatmesme e Zvhillimi 2013 – 2015). As a consequence, the Bank of Albania regulatory body released in 2013 the new policy: "The report on capital adequacy" and this report was followed with an update in 2014.

In a survey from FSI done in 2015 BOA indicated the following information:

Section One: Survey responses on Basel II implementation

Country	Elements ¹	Status ²	Year ³	Remarks
Albania	SA	4	2014	Pillar 3: Regulation "On minimum requirements for disclosure of information by banks and branches of foreign banks" was amended in the beginning of 2015, aiming the review of the regulatory framework in order to increase transparency and promote banking market discipline, through the alignment with the European directives and regulations on the activities of credit institutions and the Basel Committee standards for disclosure of information.
	FIRB	1	NA	
	AIRB	1	NA	
	BIA	4	2014	
	TSA	4	2014	
	AMA	1	NA	
	SMM	4	2014	
	IM	1	NA	
	P2	1	2015	
P3	4	2015		

Figure 2: Basel II implementation

1 The following abbreviations are used in the table: **Pillar 1** – credit risk: SA = standardised approach, FIRB = foundation internal ratings-based approach, AIRB = advanced internal ratings-based approach; **Pillar 1** – operational risk: BIA = basic indicator approach, TSA = standardised/alternative standardised approach, AMA = advanced measurement approaches; **Pillar 1** – market risk: SMM = standardised measurement method, IM = internal models; P2 = Pillar 2; P3 = Pillar 3

Status indicators are as follows: 1 = draft regulation not published, 2 = draft regulation published, 3 = final rule published, 4 = final rule in force, 5 = not applicable.

3 This column denotes the year in which the draft or final rule was or is expected to be published or when the final rule was or will be in force. NA means that the jurisdiction is not planning to implement this component or is planning to implement the component but does not know the year in which it will be implemented.

Source: BIS survey by FSI, 2015

Table 1 : Albania's Compliance with Basel II relative to regional countries

Elements ¹	Albania	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Montenegro	Macedonia	Kosovo	Serbia

SA	4	2014	1	2016	4	2008	4	2012	4	2013	4	31.Dec.11
FIRB	1	NA	1	2016	1	2015	1	2016	5	NA	4	31.Dec.11
AIRB	1	NA	1	2016	1	2015	1	2016	5	NA	4	31.Dec.11
BIA	4	2014	4	2009	4	2008	4	2012	4	2013	4	31.Dec.11
TSA	4	2014	1	2016	4	2008	4	2012	4	2013	4	31.Dec.11
AMA	1	NA	1	2016	1	2015	1	2016	5	NA	4	31.Dec.11
SMM	4	2014	1	2016			4	2009	1	NA	4	31.Dec.11
IM	1	NA	1	2016			1	2016	5	NA	4	31.Dec.11
P2	1	2015	1	2016	4	2012	4	2009	4	2013 partially	4	31.Dec.11
P3	4	2015	1	2016	4	2012	4	2007	4	2013 partially	4	31.Dec.11

1 The following abbreviations are used in the table: **Pillar 1** – credit risk: SA = standardised approach, FIRB = foundation internal ratings-based approach, AIRB = advanced internal ratings-based approach; **Pillar 1** – operational risk: BIA = basic indicator approach, TSA = standardised/alternative standardised approach, AMA = advanced measurement approaches; **Pillar 1** – market risk: SMM = standardised measurement method, IM = internal models; P2 = Pillar 2; P3 = Pillar 3

Status indicators are as follows: 1 = draft regulation not published, 2 = draft regulation published, 3 = final rule published, 4 = final rule in force, 5 = not applicable.

Source: BIS, 2015

As seen in the table above Albanian has done progress in most indicators of Basel II. BOA chose to apply the Standard Approach (SA) in Credit Risk evaluation. Progress has been made in Pillar III with the 2008 “On minimum requirements of disclosing information from banks and foreign bank branches” and the updated 2014 version.

Basel III

Little to no progress has been made in adopting the Basel III. bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers increased the urgency to improve on the Basel II framework. According to the BIS (BIS, 2015) “banks were operating with high leverage and inadequate liquidity buffers” (BIS, 2015)

Table 2 : Section Three: Survey responses on Basel III implementation

Elements	Albania				Bosnia and Herzegovina				Montenegro		Macedonia	
	1	2016	1	2016	1	2016	1	2016	1	2016	1	2016
Liq (LCR)	4	2015	1	2016	1	2016	4	2012	5	2016	1	31.12.2015
Def cap	4	2015	1	2016	1	2016	4	2012	5	2016	1	31.12.2015
Risk cov	1	2016-2017	1	2016	1	2016	1	2016	5	NA	1	31.12.2015
Conserv	1	2016-2017	2	2016	1	2016	1	2015	5	2018	4	31.Dec.11
C-cycl	1	2016-2017	2	2016	1	2016	1	2015	5	2018	1	31.12.2015
LR	1	2016-2017	2	2015	1	2016	1	2015	5	2016	1	31.12.2015
D-SIBs	1	2016-2017	2	2016	1	2016	1	2015	5	NA	1	31.12.2015
G-SIBs	1	2016-2017	5	NA	1	2016	5	NA	5	NA	1	31.12.2015

The following abbreviations are used in the table: Liq = liquidity standard; Def cap = definition of capital; Risk cov = risk coverage; Conserv = capital conservation buffer; C-cycl = countercyclical capital buffer; LR = leverage ratio.

¹ Status indicators are as follows: 1 = draft regulation not published; 2 = draft regulation published; 3 = final rule published; 4 = final rule in force; 5 = not applicable.

BIS: Survey of FSI, 2015.

In a survey by FSI (Financial Stability Institution) it was reported that: "The Supervision Department of the Bank of Albania has already begun its preparatory work for moving toward Basel III. By the beginning of 2015 BoA has started an impact study with the banking sector for assessing the level of LCR in the Albanian banking system." (FSI, 2015)

There is no report of progress done on implementing Basel III requirements. Should there be one? According to studies (see Civici, 2012) the cost of implementing Basel III is 0.15% of GDP.

Compliance of Albanian banking institutions with the BoA requirements

BoA needs to do more to formalize the ICAAP and according to reports it working with the bank of Italy. At this time there is no concern for banks to meet the requirements for the level of capital due to the weak investments by the economy. In the future Pillar 2 of Basel Accord should be formalized and procedures be formulated in accordance with EU guidelines for Banking Oversight.

The cost benefit of Basel III

As banks in the developing countries strive to implement Basel II it has become a fact that banks in the developed world have already complied with capital requirements of Basel III. Basel III strives to improve on banks' ability to absorb losses by increasing capital requirements, especially the Common Equity Tier 1 capital.

Mr. Stefan Ingves, Governor of the Sveriges Riksbank and Chairman of

the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision seems to be very excited to announce, in his 2013 speech that the banks have already complied with Basel III requirements. He states as follows:

"The good news is that the global banking industry is responding well to the new requirements and, for large parts of the industry, the transitional time may not be needed. For the 101 large internationally active banks (the so-called Group 1 banks)¹ that we survey every six months, the story is one of an industry that already on average meets the 2019 requirements. The average CET1 ratio at end-December 2012 was 9.2%, well above the basic 7% minimum". (S. Ingves, 2013)

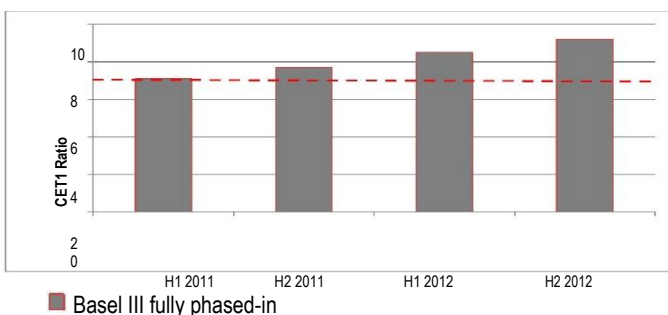


Chart 2: CET1 Capital Ratio (%), Group 1 banks

Source: Ingves, 2013

But should Mr. Ingves be so enthusiastic? Is it that large banks have complied with Basel III because of wanting to meet the standards? Implementation Basel III is associated with costs because higher ratios of capital must be kept by the banks. In capitalistic terms this doesn't make sense since banks would be affording unnecessary costs by tying up capital when they are not required.

The reason the banks have extra capital is the Europe-wide consumption crises that has forced many European banks to resort to negative interest rates as explained by Ruchir Agarwal and Miles Kimball 2015. The same point is made by Randow and Kennedy, (Jana Randow & Simon Kennedy 2016 “Negative interest rates are an act of desperation, a signal that traditional policy options have proved ineffective and new limits need to be explored. They punish banks that hoard cash instead of extending loans.”

Conclusions

Albanian banking system is healthy despite the high level of NPL and the regional and national financial crises. Banks are profitable in spite of the lowering of crediting of the economy. The capital ratios to credit are above the levels as outlined in the Basel I because of the low crediting.

BoA has adopted regulation on Pillar 1 and Pillar 3 of Basel II requirements. In Pillar BoA has chosen to adopt the SA (Standard Approach) to measuring risk and capital requirements. This is because of the size of the banks. No rating companies have been approved in Albania and receiving ratings from foreign rating companies is expensive. Because of this choice the bank has ignored FIRB and AIRB indicators.

Some studies suggest that there is a negative relationship between CAR and NPL and bank profit. We noticed that in spite the fact that Serbia has implemented Basel II requirements since 2011 the NPL is among the highest in the region. Studying this relationship, it difficult because more time is needed to see the effects.

The BoA should do more to adopt the requirements and the procedures described in the Pillar II of Basel II on procedures to assessing banks' capital adequacy to their risk profile and strategies to managing this risk. European Union has issued guidelines which should be followed.

Despite the fact that the bank has done no effort in implementing Basel III the CAR is already above the required ratio of 7%. Studies suggest that implementing Basel III may cost a national economy up to 0.15% of its GDP. Other studies should focus on the feasibility of implanting these standards and long term benefits.

References

A.Fullani, 2005, “Basel II, its implications, opportunities and challenges ahead for Albania and Southeastern Europe”, Southeastern European Financial Forum, the Second Edition, Bucharest, Romania, 11 November.

BoA – Strategjia Afatmesme e Zvhillimi 2013 – 2015.

K.Kodra, FCCA, D.Salko, Capital Adequacy In The Albanian Banking System; An Econometrical Analysis With A Focus On Credit Risk MrHead of Department of Finance and Accounting.

FSI Survey Basel II, 2.5 and III Implementation July 2015.

National Bank of Serbia, 2012.

J.Randow & S.Kennedy 2016 Negative Interest Rates, Less Than Zero Bloomberg Newspaper.

S.Ingves, 2013: Ninth High Level Meeting for the Middle East & North Africa Region.

Extradition as One of the Forms of Transfer of Detainees and Convicts. Albanian Experience

Ph.D Nikolin Hasani

University "Ismael Qemali" Vlore, Faculty of Human Sciences, Department of Law

Abstract

International mobility and migration have been increased due to the world globalization. This situation has affected international judicial cooperation, which has become of a special importance in managing issues linked to the pursuit and conviction of foreign citizens, as well as their extradition before or after a criminal sentence. Transfer of non-nationals convicted of a crime and sentenced to their home country, has become common practice. The transfer contributes to the rehabilitation of the sentenced person. The aim of this paper is to address the legal aspects of how it applies to the Albanian criminal legislation detainee and transfer of inmates, given that the Albanian society, a society in transition, has evolved and changed with quick steps while individual deprived of liberty does not concur with a fundamentally changed reality. Herein lays the purpose of the transfer as an opportunity for more steps towards re-integration of his resocialization.

Keywords: detains transfer, convicted transfer, extradition.

1. Introduction

One of the reasons of transferring the enforcement of a custodial sentence is to make it easier for the sentenced person to re-adjust to a law-abiding life in the country in which he or she will be living after release. There always are conditions during international cooperation in criminal matters and the typical one is that the process must serve only those ends that are described in a request for cooperation. Extradition, where this basic idea is found, as an instrument of the judicial international cooperation, is one form of transfer of convicted and pursued person. This condition, enable the transfer of fugitives and at the same time serve as a guaranty that the person who is going to be extracted is not going to be prosecuting offences that are not specified in the request. Extradition also strictly respect individual terms agreed between the requesting and requested state. That means it serves as a restrictive instrument not to transfer the extradited person onward to a third state..

2. Extradition as another form of transfer

Another form of cooperation between countries to transfer prisoners or detainees is extradited, which it is one of the most successful format implemented in the framework of international cooperation in criminal matters, not only under the OK, but even by the European Council. Central role in the development of this mechanism has played the Council of Europe European Convention on Extradition with two additional protocols.

This convention has been ratified by our state that is in unison on this convention about how treats Extradition¹.

¹ Hoxha, A.: *Extradition by EU legal instruments. Similarities and differences with the instruments of the Council of Europe, Tirana 2010.*

The code of the Penal procedure¹, article 488-504 establishes general rules: Submission of a person to a foreign country for the execution of a prison sentence or an act proving him for a criminal offense can be done only through extradition². Extradition shall be granted only on the basis of a request to the Ministry of Justice.

Demands for extradition are attached:

- a copy of the sentence of imprisonment or the act of proceedings;
- a report on the criminal offense charged to the person whose extradition is requested, indicating the time and place of the offense and its legal qualification;
- the text of the legal provisions to be applied, indicating whether for the offense for which extradition is provided by the law of a foreign state with the death penalty;
- personal data and any other information available which serves to establish the identity and nationality of the person subject to extradition.

When several extradition requests competing, the Ministry of Justice sets forth the order of examination. For this purpose it takes into account all the circumstances of the case and in particular the date of receipt of the request, the importance and place of the offense or nationality and residence of the person sought and the possibility of a re-extradition from the requesting state.

If for a single offense, extradition is requested simultaneously by several countries it is given to the state to which the criminal offense or to the country on whose territory the offense was committed.

Also are specified detailed conditions when can be allowed extradition. "Extradition is permitted provided expressed that the extradited can not be prosecuted, punished and not be handed over to another country for an offense that occurred before the request for extradition and which is different from that for which the extradition is given.

The above-mentioned conditions are not considered:

- a) when extraditing side gives express consent to the extradition of prosecuted even for another criminal offense and has no objection to extradition;
- b) when the extradited, although there have been opportunities, has not left the territory of the state to which it was delivered after spending forty-five days of his release or after leaving it returned voluntarily. The Ministry of Justice may impose other conditions as it considers appropriate "

3. The rejection of the extradition request

A state can not always accept extradition, there are cases that the state can not allow the extradition, and this institute is called the rejection of the extradition request. Extradition can not be granted:

- for an offense with political character or if it turns out that he is requested for political purposes;
- when there are reasons to believe that the person sought will be subjected to persecution or discrimination due to race, religion, sex, nationality, language, political beliefs, personal or social status or other cruel punishments, or inhumane or degrading actions that constitute a violation of to fundamental human right;
- when the person sought has committed a criminal offense in Albania;
- when prosecution is initiated or has been tried in Albania even though the offense is committed abroad;
- when the offense is not envisaged as such by the Albanian legislation;
- when for the offense was given amnesty by the Albanian state;
- when the person sought is an Albanian citizen and there is no agreement predicting otherwise;
- when the prosecution is predicted or the punishment under state law that requires him.

¹ Law Nr.9911, dated 05.05.2008 "On Amendments to the Law No. 7905 dated: 03.21.1995" Criminal Procedural Code of the Republic of Albania "after October 2004

² Article 488/489 of the Criminal Procedure Code

Extradition is both active and passive types.

Active extradition or for the overseas it starts with an application that comes to the Justice Ministry, which forwards the request to the competent court when the conditions are completed. To this request are attached a number of documents proving the claim and make us realize that we are within our legal framework.

4. The conditions for extradition

The conditions for active extradition are:

- Rule of specialty.
- The principle of double sentence means the offense must be provided as such by the legislation of the two countries in the relationship.
- Extradition is not permitted when the person sought to be extradited is an Albanian citizen.
- Extradition is not permitted when the fact subject to extradition is a political offense or the person is requested for political reasons.
- Extradition is not permitted when the person to be extradited is subjected to persecution or discrimination.
- Its not given when a person has committed a criminal offense in the execution place of the request.
- The request is rejected and when prosecution, punishment or criminal acts have been prescribed in the requesting country.
- Rejection of extradition and when the subject is a military.

Passive extradition or from abroad, is the case when our country is requesting, not handover like above. We are before of this extradition form in cases where an Albanian citizen commits a crime within the Albanian territory and then leave abroad.

Prosecutor initiates proceedings and when the person finds nonexistence within the Albanian state sends a request to the Ministry of Justice, which after verifying the necessary conditions transmit the application to the competent authority where the person sought is.

Together with the request the Ministry forwards and the necessary documentation.

It may happen that the state executive accepts the request, but with conditions, if we are before this hypothesis the last word is from the Ministry of Justice, and what it decided is mandatory for the judiciary.

In general this is the mechanism of extradition and now we are able to give a definition of it: "Delivery of a person to a foreign country for the execution of a sentence of imprisonment or exercise of criminal prosecution."

And can easily determine its legal nature as dualistic because it is regulated both by international law and by the internal law. So, we see that it is a complicated procedure that did not justify itself, not responding to the request for a European area of freedom and security, leaving place to his successor UEN.

5. European Prison Rules

Even the Supplement¹ of Recommendation No. R (87) 3 European Prison Rules, the European revised version of the Rules provides for minimum standards for treatment of prisoners, specifies that²: "In case of death, serious illness or serious injury of a prisoner or sending it to an institution for treatment for mental illness, the director shall immediately inform the spouse, if the prisoner is married, or his nearest cousin and will inform for each event any other person previously assigned by the prisoner.

The prisoner shall be informed immediately of the death or serious illness of his relatives.

¹ Recommendation no. R (87) 3 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on the European Prison Rules

² Notice of death, illness, transfer, etc...

In these cases and whenever that circumstances allow, the prisoner should be authorized, either accompanied or alone, to visit a sick relative or see the deceased. All prisoners shall have the right to immediately inform their families of imprisonment or transfer to another institution. "

Conclusions

System treatment of prisoners is one of the key priorities in terms of consolidating the rule of law and guaranteeing human rights. The main goal is to improve conditions for the treatment of persons sentenced to imprisonment or detainees to ensure respect for their human rights and fundamental freedoms, in accordance with the regulations of the European Union, international treaties in force and internationally accepted standards.

Need of fulfillment of obligations arising from a number of international instruments to which Albania is a party, such as the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, the European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Treatment or Punishment Inhuman or Degrading as and fulfillment of EU recommendations.

Strengthening the security in prisons, through a special regime, which decided not only to the internal security of institutions, but also for external security, which aims mainly to prevent further links with criminal world for persons serving prison sentences, for criminal offenses particularly dangerous, thus helping and their final separation from crime, reintegration, rehabilitation and further socialization.

In the criminal justice system, the execution of criminal judgments final and those with immediate execution, aimed at punishing and rehabilitating offenders who have committed offenses, the restoration of the rights of persons proceeded unfairly and rights of legal entities vulnerable to criminal acts, as well as their prevention.

Institutional viewpoint, execution of final criminal decisions is very important, but also complex. Institute of transfer aims to achieve not only a separation between convicted for various crimes in order not only to institutional security, but also social, but above all to give the opportunity of suffering the sentence near the settlement, in an environment known, familiar, to rehabilitate, economy, socialization.

References

- European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations Enhancing International Law Enforcement Co-operation, including.
- Extradition Measures. Proceedings of the workshop held at the Eleventh United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. Bangkok, Thailand, 18-25 April 2005.
- Ferraro, F.2013. EU rules on transfer of sentenced persons. Library of the European Parliament. 28.01.2013.
- Gillard, E.Ch.2008. International Review of the Red Cross. There's no place like home: states' obligations in relation to transfers of persons. Volume 90 Number 871 September 2008.
- Hoxha, A. 2010. Ekstradimi sipas instrumentave ligjore te BE. Ngjashmerite dhe ndryshimet me instrumentat e Keshillit te Europes. Tirane 2010.
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Article 10, paragraph 3.
- Kodi i procedurës Penale Shqiptare, Neni 488/489.
- Ligji Nr.9911, datë 5.5.2008 "Për disa ndryshime në ligjin nr.7905 datë:21.3.1995 "Kodi i Procedurës Penale i Republikës së Shqipërisë" i ndryshuar pas tetor 2004.
- Miettinen, S. 2013. Onward transfer under the European arrest warrant: is the EU moving towards the free movement of prisoners? New Journal of European Criminal Law, Vol. 4, Issue 1–2, 2013.
- Plachta, M. 1993. Human Rights Aspects of the Prisoner Transfer in a Comparative Perspective. Louisiana Law Review. Volume 53 | Number 4. March 199.3
- Rekomandimi Nr. R (87) 3 i Komitetit te Ministrave per shtetet anetare mbi Rregullat Evropiane te Burgut.
- United Nations Office on drugs and crime, Vienna. Cross – Cutting issues. International Cooperation Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit. United Nations New York, 2006

The Role of Career Self-Efficacy on the Effect of Parental Career Behaviors on Career Exploration: a Study on School of Tourism and Hotel Management' Students

Selahattin Kanten

Assoc. Prof. Dr. , Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University,
School of Applied Sciences at Biga, Canakkale, Turkey,

Pelin Kanten

Assoc. Prof. Dr. , Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University,
Faculty of Political Science, Canakkale, Turkey,

Murat Yeşiltaş

Assoc. Prof. Dr. , Mehmet Akif Ersoy University,
School of Tourism and Hotel Management, Burdur, Turkey,

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the impact of parental career behaviors on undergraduate student's career exploration and the mediating role of career self-efficacy. In the literature it is suggested that some social and individual factors facilitate students' career exploration. Therefore, parental career behaviors and career self-efficacy is considered as predictors of student's career exploration attitudes within the scope of the study. In this respect, data which are collected from 405 undergraduate students having an education on tourism and hotel management field by the survey method are analyzed by using the structural equation modeling. The results of the study indicate that parental career behaviors which are addressed support; interference and lack of engagement have a significant effect on student's career exploration behaviors such as intended-systematic exploration, environment exploration and self-exploration. In addition, it has been found that one of the dimensions of parental career behaviors addressed as a lack of engagement has a significant effect on career self-efficacy levels of students. However, research results indicate that student's career self-efficacy has a significant effect on only the self-exploration dimension. On the other hand, career self-efficacy has a partial mediating role between lack of engagement attitudes of parents and career exploration behaviors of students.

Keywords: Parental Career Behaviors, Career Self-Efficacy, Career Exploration

1. Introduction

During adolescence, the preparation for adulthood includes becoming concerned about and forming plans for the future occupational life. Theories of adolescence regard the process of becoming aware of one's vocational interests and making educational and vocational choices as a major developmental task of adolescence in modern industrialized societies (Kracke, 1997: 341). Several theoretical models view career development as the result of not only intrapersonal processes but also contextually constructed processes and the family context is viewed as being highly significant for adolescents (Ginevra et al., 2015: 2). Research has suggested that the family environment is an important contextual factor that shapes the study-to-work transition or the formative stages of career development. Students seek parents' emotional and instrumental involvement for their personal growth and adaptation to their career. Having parental support provides resources necessary to enable career exploration and the confidence and motivation to pursue their career goals (Guan et al., 2016: 114-115). Career exploration is a critical process for child and adolescent development leading people toward suitable work and meaningful careers. Antecedents that are known to explain variance in career exploration are motivational factors, such as self-efficacy, career interests, and achievement-orientation as well as contextual factors, such as parental behaviors (Lee et al., 2016: 125,126). The exploration stage is a crucial period in career development. During this phase individuals initiate thoughts and behaviors that will likely lead to a future career choice (Bartley and Robitschek, 2000: 63). Parents, as primary sources of social support, influence young people's career-related self-efficacy and outcome

expectations, as well as the development of their career interests, intentions, and goals (Ginevra et al., 2015: 3). Career self-efficacy plays an important role in studying the career objectives of teenagers and young people and the peculiarities of their career choices. The indicator of career self-efficacy helps determining the behavior of an individual in different situations when planning his/her career. Career self-efficacy is confidence in one's ability to perform the actions related to further career choices (Brusokas and Malinauskas, 2014: 212). Previous research has suggested that individuals' career exploration behavior correlates positively with their career self-efficacy and career growth/success (Li et al., 2015: 39). However, research has shown that youths' career development is influenced by parenting styles (Zhao et al., 2012: 620). Furthermore, recent researches have showed that these parental behaviors significantly predicted career exploration and career decision-making difficulties of adolescents, as well as the career self-efficacy of the university students (Guan et al., 2015: 96). In this context, it can be said that parental behaviors are considered as crucial which provide students some information related with their future career and facilitate their career choices and provide them to develop their career. Accordingly, this study aims to investigate the effects of parental career behaviors on student's career exploration and the mediating role of career self-efficacy between parental career behaviors and career exploration. In the literature, there are a few researches that show the relationship between parental career behaviors and career exploration. On the other hand, there is not any research existing in literature yet examining the relationships among parental career behaviors, career self-efficacy and career exploration on university students. Since the parental styles are considered as significant component on undergraduate students' career exploration behaviors and career self-efficacy, this research is conducted on this population. Thus, this study aims to investigate the antecedents of career exploration of undergraduate students so it attempts to add contribution to the literature.

2. The Theoretical Framework and Research Hypotheses

2.1. Career Exploration

Traditionally, career exploration was most commonly associated with the school-to-work transition as a critical stage in an individual's career development. More recently, scholars and practitioners have started to embrace the idea of career exploration as a lifelong pursuit occurring across life roles and as a means to cope with a variety of career transitions (Zikic and Hall, 2009: 181). Career exploration refers to individuals' activities of collecting and analyzing information on their personal characteristics, as well as information on jobs, organizations and occupations. By searching and processing career related information, individuals can better understand existing job opportunities and prepare themselves for the challenges in their career transitions (Li et al., 2015: 39). Career exploration is understood "as a process with critical lifelong and adaptive functions" rather than a stage in career development or decision making, which includes cognitive and attitudinal components, as well as planned and unplanned activities (Cheung and Arnold, 2010: 25). Career exploration is a complex psychological process of exploration of the self and of the external environment that ensures career adaptability and has a particular significance in transitional periods in which individuals are frequently challenged with new roles (Gamboia et al., 2013: 79). Career exploration includes activities of gathering information relevant to the career progress of the individual and contains self and environmental explorations. Self-exploration refers to the exploration of individuals' own interests, values, and experiences in order to reflect on their career choice and to obtain a deeper understanding of them, whereas environmental exploration involves individuals' investigation of various career choices and involves collecting information on jobs, organizations, occupations or industries that correlates with more well-informed career decisions (Sawitria and Dewia, 2015: 106). It has been established that both self-exploration and environment-exploration activities play important roles in helping individuals to identify suitable job opportunities, achieve better employment and cope with the difficulties and challenges in their career transitions (Guan et al., 2015: 96). Adolescence is an important period in the context of career development because it is the time when people prepare themselves for the world of work and develop a vocational identity. In the course of developing a vocational identity, children and adolescents learn about their personal characteristics like interests, values, and capabilities. They also contemplate on what occupations suit their personal characteristics based on direct and indirect search about the outer world, which is altogether regarded as career exploration (Lee et. al., 2016: 125). The exploration stage is a crucial period in career development. During this phase individuals initiate thoughts and behaviors that will likely lead to a future career choice. If individuals do not successfully complete the tasks of this stage, they may flounder when it comes time to enter and stabilize in an occupation (Bartley and Robitschek, 2000: 63).

2.2. Parental Career Behaviors and Career Self-Efficacy

Generally, parents' involvement includes several roles such as communication between children, managing and organizing their time, and discussing school matters being active in school functions and etc. (Herlickson et al., 2009: 194). In addition parental behavior related with career is refers to parental support includes encouragement, instrumental assistance, modeling desired behaviors, and emotional backing of children's (Sawitri et al., 2014: 553). Therefore, it can be said that parents are considered as primary sources of social support, young people's career-related self-efficacy and outcome expectations of them, as well as the development of their career interests, intentions, and goals (Ginevra et al., 2015: 3). In other words, parental career behaviors are instrumental in career development, such as concern and encouragement, expectations, interest, aspiration and role modeling (Fisher and Padmawidjaja, 1999: 136). In literature, it is suggested that there are three themes of parenting style over the past 50 years. The first one represent the centrality of parental warmth and caring to children's development, suggesting that the foundation for caregiving is love and affection; second theme is authoritarian parenting style which refers to setting clear and consistent expectations and limit setting to children and provide to internalization of rules thus facilitate development of their self-efficacy levels. A third one is addressed as autonomy support which includes providing freedom of expression or intrinsic motivation of their children's. All of these themes can be traced in various forms across decades of research examining how parents relate to their children from preschool age to late adolescence (Skinner et al., 2005: 175). For example, in this study parenting styles are examined in three different perspectives which are labeled as support, interference and lack of engagement. Support style represents how parents encourage and give advice to their children about career choices, career opportunities and career related activities. Interference refers that parents tend to impose their ideas and thoughts toward to their children which are related with career and vocation choices. However, lack of engagement indicates that parents have uninterested attitudes about their children's career related issues (Dietrich and Kracke, 2009: 113).

Existing research evidence suggests that parental support can bolster career decision-making self-efficacy and mitigate the impact of career-related challenges (Guan et al., 2016: 115). Social cognitive career theory (SCCT), which focuses on the role of parental support, proposes that the environmental support parents provide for their children can have both direct effects on career choice and indirect effects, as mediated through self-efficacy (Ginevra et al., 2015: 3). Youths' career development begins in the family context and parents play a very significant role during this process. Social cognitive career theory argues that external factors, such as parental attitudes, parenting styles and family environment, influence youths' career self-efficacy level (Zhao et al., 2012: 619-620). Career self-efficacy, can be defined as individual's judgments of their abilities to perform career behaviors in relation to career development, choice, and adjustment. In addition, career self-efficacy provides important information relevant to understanding the complex career development process (Nasta, 2007: 5). For example career self-efficacy plays an important role in studying on the career objectives of teenagers and young people and the peculiarities of their career choices. However, career self-efficacy helps determining the behavior of individuals in different situations when planning their careers. That is to say, individual who have high self-efficacy in complex situations it helps them to overcome feelings of doubt, various unpleasant occurrences and conflicts (Brusokas and Malinauskas, 2014: 212). Therefore, it is possible to express that career self-efficacy also has positive correlates with a range of career maturity variables, including career attitude, career exploration and career decidedness and it is considered as an important motivational variable which influences the focus, initiation and persistence of behaviors, including career behaviors (Creed et al., 2007: 378).

3. Research Hypotheses

In recent years, it is seen that the core concepts of the 20th century career theories and vocational support techniques must be reformulated to fit the new working conditions due to the current insufficient approaches. In other words, 21st century theories considered careers as individual scripts rather than conceptualizing careers as a meta-narrative of stages. Accordingly, new theories and techniques emphasize individuals' flexibility, adaptability, life-long learning, personal characteristics and exploration behaviors for the development of career (Tuna et al., 2014: 143). In this context, it can be said that the importance of career exploration has become more valued in recent years as the new directions of theory and researches have become prominent. Career exploration is now viewed as an essential part of career development process, and also it is considered as an important component in career decision-making (Nasta, 2007: 6-7). Due to the career exploration subject came into view as the individuals capacity to self-construct and self-determine their lives, both theorists and practitioners become concerned which factors can inhibit or facilitate career exploration process (Cheung and Arnold,

2010: 25). Therefore, it is seen that researchers focus on various social and cultural factors which are expected to influence career exploration behaviors of individuals. It is suggested that from the social and environmental context immediate environment and parents may be effective on the individual career choices. As well as these factors, it is supposed that individual characteristics such as age, gender, specific talents, interests, values and personality types may affect career exploration levels of individuals (Zikic and Hall, 2009: 181). From the scope of antecedents of career exploration attitudes, it is seen that there are some researches which have examined different components in the literature. For example, Hirsch et al. (2015) and Li et al. (2015) revealed that personality characteristics which refer to hope and big five personality types can be considered as the sources of career exploration of adolescents. Vignoli et al. (2005) studies asserted that adolescent's anxiety levels and their parents' attachment and parenting styles are significant predictors of the career exploration. However, Cheung and Arnold (2010) have suggested that university students' achievement motivation types and perception of support related with career activities from their parents, teachers and peers can be considered as the antecedents of career exploration. On the other hand, Sawitri and Dewi (2014) found that university student' career exploration levels are affected by the academic fit and congruence with their parents and also Guan et al. (2015) studies predicted that parental career behaviors are the determinant of both career adaptabilities and career exploration. From this point of view, in this research it is expected that from social context parental career behaviors and the scope of the individual antecedents' career self-efficacy have influence on students' career exploration levels and the following hypotheses are proposed:

- H₁: Parental support significantly influences intended-systematic exploration levels of students.
- H₂: Parental support significantly influences environment exploration levels of students.
- H₃: Parental support significantly influences self-exploration levels of students.
- H₄: Interference significantly influences intended-systematic exploration levels of students.
- H₅: Interference significantly influences environment exploration levels of students.
- H₆: Interference significantly influences self-exploration levels of students.
- H₇: Lack of engagement significantly influences intended-systematic exploration levels of students.
- H₈: Lack of engagement significantly influences environment exploration levels of students.
- H₉: Lack of engagement significantly influences self-exploration levels of students.
- H₁₀: Career self-efficacy significantly influences intended-systematic exploration levels of students.
- H₁₁: Career self-efficacy significantly influences environment exploration levels of students.
- H₁₂: Career self-efficacy significantly influences self-exploration levels of students.

In literature, when focusing on the role of parental behaviors for adolescents' career development, it is seen that majority of studies have addressed parent-adolescent relationship, such as attachment, individuation, parenting styles and family climate were linked to more career exploration activities lead to higher career self-efficacy (Dietrich and Kracke, 2009: 110). For example Guan et al. (2016) studies suggested that parental support significant predictors of adolescents career decision making self-efficacy. In addition, Ginevra et al. (2015) indicated that adolescents career self-efficacy levels affected from the perfection of parental support in career development stage. Moreover it is seen that Roach (2010) studies emphasized that parental styles have been found to be associated with career self-efficacy. In this context, it is possible to express that parental career behaviors are considered as the antecedents of career self-efficacy levels of university students. On the other hand, it is expected that career self-efficacy has a mediating role in this study. Thus, following hypotheses are proposed:

- H₁₃: Parental support significantly influences career self-efficacy levels of students.
- H₁₄: Interference significantly influences career self-efficacy levels of students.
- H₁₅: Lack of engagement significantly influences career self-efficacy levels of students.
- H₁₆: Career self-efficacy has a mediating role on the relationship between parental support and career exploration levels of students.
- H₁₇: Career self-efficacy has a mediating role on the relationship between interference and career exploration levels of students.
- H₁₈: Career self-efficacy has a mediating role on the relationship between lack of engagement and career exploration levels of students.

Figure 1: Direct Effects



Figure 2: Mediating Effects



4. Research Method

4.1. Sample and Procedures

The sample of the research was composed of eight tourism faculties and two of the tourism and management school from the different provinces of Turkey. The participants of the study consist of 406 students who have being education as a second class and above students that were determined via convenient sampling method. From the 550 questionnaires that have been sent out, 430 have been returned, representing a response rate of 78%. After elimination of cases having incomplete data and outliers 406 questionnaire (73%) have been accepted as valid and included in the evaluations. However, questionnaire survey method is used for data collection in this study. Questionnaire form contains three different measures related to research variables.

4.2. Measures

Measures used in the questionnaire forms have been adapted from the previous studies in the literature. All measures have been adapted to Turkish by the lecturers and pilot study has been conducted for the validity of these measures. Before the distribution of the survey to the actual sample, a pilot study was conducted in order to determine whether the questions had been understood properly and to check the reliability of the scales. As a result of the pilot study, some corrections have been conducted in the questionnaire forms. A Likert-type metric, that is, expressions with five intervals has been used for answers to the statements of survey. Anchored such; "1- strongly disagree, 2- disagree, 3- agree or not agree, 4- agree, 5- strongly agree". However, 9 demographic questions were asked in the questionnaire form. Firstly, all scales were subjected to the exploratory factor analyses to check the dimensions, and then confirmatory factor analyses were applied to all scales.

- **Parental Career Behavior Scale:** Students' perception of parental career behaviors measured with 14 items which was taken from Dietrich and Kracke (2009) studies. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with varimax rotation was applied to the adapted scale to check the dimensions. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis data related to the parental career behavior variables, one item were removed from the analysis due to the factor loadings under 0.50 and three factor solutions; (**support, interference and lack of engagement**) were obtained per theoretical structure. Factor loadings of the items ranged from .70 to .87.

- **Career Exploration:** Students career exploration behaviors measured with 28 items which was developed by Stumpf et al., (1983). Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with varimax rotation was applied to the adapted

scale to check the dimensions. As a result of the varimax rotation of the data related to the career exploration variables, twelve items were removed from the analysis due to the factor loadings under 0.50 and three factor solutions; (environment exploration, self-exploration, intended-systematic exploration) were obtained per theoretical structure. Factor loadings of the items ranged from .54 to .80.

• **Career Self-Efficacy Scale:** Students career self-efficacy levels were measured with 11 items which was taken from Kossek et al., (1998) studies. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis of the data related to the career self-efficacy variables, five items were removed from the analysis due to the factor loadings under 0.50 and one factor solution obtained per theoretical structure. Factor loadings of the item ranged from .68 to .86.

Table 1: Results of Exploratory and Reliability Analysis

Parental Career Behaviors (13 items) KMO: .848 Varyans: %68	Cron. Alpha	Career Exploration (16 items) KMO: .935 Varyans: %65	Cron. Alpha	Career Self- Efficacy (11 items) KMO: .864 Varyans: %61	Cron. Alpha
1. Factor: Support	.855	1. Factor: Intended- systematic exploration	.835	1. Factor: Career Self-Efficacy	.871
2. Factor: Interference	.759	2. Factor: Environment exploration	.916		
3. Factor: Lack of Engagement	.912	3. Factor: Self-exploration	.821		

After the exploratory factor analyses, the confirmatory factor analysis has been conducted by Lisrel 8.8 for all scales. Goodness of fit indexes is presented in Table 2. It can be seen that all of the fit indexes fall within the acceptable ranges (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003: 52; Meydan and Şeşen, 2011: 35).

Table 2. Goodness of fit indexes of the scales

D Variables	χ^2	df.	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	NNFI	RMSEA
	≤ 5		$\geq .85$	$\geq .80$	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	≤ 0.08
Parental Career Behaviors	123.74	61	2.02	0.95	0.93	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.050
Career Exploration	233.64	85	2.74	0.93	0.90	0.98	0.97	0.98	0.066
Career Self-Efficacy	18.77	8	2.34	0.98	0.96	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.058

4.3. Data Analysis

SPSS for Windows 20.0 and Lisrel 8.80 programs were used to analyze the obtained data. After the exploratory and confirmatory analysis, descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations and pearson correlation analysis of the study variables were examined. Following that, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to conduct a test of the hypotheses in the research model.

5. Research Findings

5.1. Respondent Profile

51% of the students were female and the 49% of them male. Majority of the students (77%) were between the ages 19-23, 23% of them above than 23. 42% of the students have an education in accommodation management programs, 25% of them in gastronomy and culinary arts, 24% of them in travel management, 9% of them in tourist guide bachelor's degree programs. However, majority of the students (80%) indicated that they have chosen tourism and hotel management school and tourism faculties willingly. In addition, most of the students (65%) are planning to work in the tourism industry when they have graduated, whereas 35% of them are not planning to work in the tourism industry. On the other hand, it is seen

that majority of the students (94%) parents are alive and (84%) of them parents are together. 54% of the student's only father working, 27% of them both fathers and mothers are working and 19% of them parents have retired.

5.2.Descriptive Analyses

In the scope of the descriptive analyses means, standard deviations and correlations have been conducted which are related to parental career behaviors, career exploration and career self-efficacy levels of student. The values are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Means, standard deviations and correlations of the study variables

	Mean	S.S	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Support	3.91	.95	1						
Interference	2.74	.93	-.031	1					
Lack of Engagement	2.10	.94	-.378**	.276**	1				
Intended-systematic Exp.	3.92	.82	.515**	.078	-.200**	1			
Environment Exp.	3.64	.83	.422**	.065	-.065	.626**	1		
Self-Exploration	3.92	.77	.562**	.122*	-.164*	.630**	.610**	1	
Career Self-Efficacy	3.38	.99	.110*	-.220**	-.398**	.178**	-.019	.037	1

** $p < 0.01$

As can be seen in Table 2, parental career behaviors dimension of support was positively related to students intended-systematic exploration ($r = .515$, $p < 0.01$); environment exploration ($r = .422$, $p < 0.01$) and self-exploration ($r = .562$, $p < 0.01$). Interference dimension was positively related to students self-exploration ($r = .122$, $p < 0.05$) while lack of engagement dimension were negatively related to students intended-systematic exploration ($r = -.200$, $p < 0.01$) and self-exploration levels ($r = -.164$, $p < 0.05$). In addition, while parental career behaviors support dimension was positively related to students ($r = .110$, $p < 0.05$) career self-efficacy levels; interference ($r = -.220$, $p < 0.01$) and lack of engagement ($r = -.398$, $p < 0.01$) dimensions were negatively related to students career self-efficacy levels. However, one of the dimension of career exploration which is labeled as an intended-systematic exploration was positively related to students ($r = .178$, $p < 0.01$) career self-efficacy levels. On the other hand, it is seen employees' self-exploration and intended-systematic exploration levels and the perception of parental support levels relatively high.

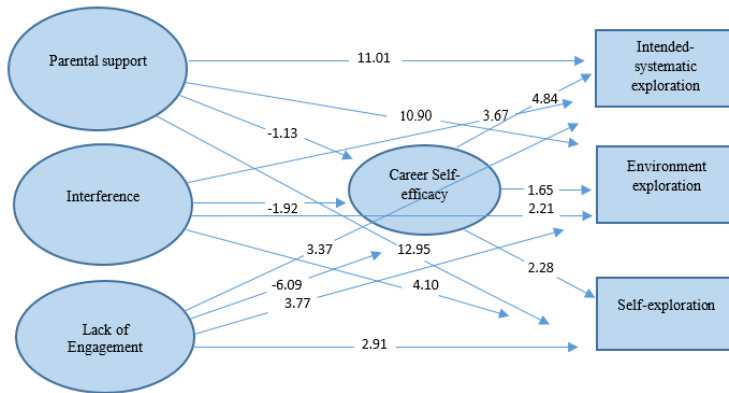
5.3. Measurement Model

For the verification of the model two step approach by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) has been used. According to this approach, prior to testing the hypothesized structural model, first the research model needs to be tested to reach a sufficient goodness of fit indexes. After obtaining acceptable indexes it can be proceed with structural model. As a result of the measurement model, 7 latent and 35 observed variables were found. Observed variables were consist of 14 items related to parental career behaviors, 15 items related to career exploration and 6 items related to career self-efficacy. The results of the measurement model were; χ^2 : 864.23; df: 501; χ^2/df : 1.72; RMSEA: 0.042; GFI: 0.89; IFI: 0.98; CFI: 0.98; NFI: 0.96; NNFI: 0.98. These values indicate that measurement model has been acceptable (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003: 52; Meydan and Şeşen, 2011: 37).

5.4. Structural Equation Model

After the measurement model was demonstrated as acceptable, the structural equation model was applied to verify hypotheses for the causal relationships in the research model. The results of the structural equation model were; χ^2 : 1171.38; df: 505; χ^2/df : 2.31; RMSEA: 0.057; CFI: 0.97; IFI: 0.97; NFI: 0.94; NNFI: 0.96. These results indicate that structural model has been acceptable (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003: 52; Meydan and Şeşen, 2011: 37).

Figure 2. Structural model and path coefficients



According to the results of structural equation model, the path parameter and significance levels show that parental career behaviors dimensions which are labeled as support ($\gamma=0.77$; $t\text{-value}=11.01$), lack of engagement ($\gamma=0.21$; $t\text{-value}=3.37$) and interference ($\gamma=0.20$; $t\text{-value}=3.67$) have positive and significant effect on students intended-systematic career exploration behaviors; so H_1 , H_4 and H_7 hypotheses were supported. However, parental support ($\gamma=0.74$; $t\text{-value}=10.90$), interference ($\gamma=0.12$; $t\text{-value}=2.21$) and lack of engagement ($\gamma=0.24$; $t\text{-value}=3.77$) have positive and significant effect on students environment exploration, thus H_2 , H_5 and H_8 hypotheses were supported. In addition, it is found out that parental support ($\gamma=0.80$; $t\text{-value}=12.95$), lack of engagement ($\gamma=0.16$; $t\text{-value}=2.91$) and interference ($\gamma=0.21$; $t\text{-value}=4.10$) have positive and significant effect on self-exploration behaviors of students, so H_3 , H_6 and H_9 hypotheses were supported. These results indicated that parental career behaviors such as support, lack of engagement and interference lead students to exhibit intended-systematic and self-exploration career attitudes. In this context, it can be said that supporting parental behaviors represent positive attitude towards to the children and facilitate them to form their career choices, career paths and etc. On the other hand, lack of engagement and interference indicating unfavorable attitudes lead to some positive consequences in terms of career-exploration. Therefore, it is possible to express that even though lack of engagement and interference are unfavorable, they lead students to more interest in their career related activities. Moreover, parental career behaviors dimensions such as support ($\gamma=-0.07$; $t\text{-value}=-1.13$) and interference ($\gamma=-0.12$; $t\text{-value}=-1.92$) have no significant effect on students career self-efficacy levels, so H_{13} and H_{14} hypotheses were not supported, while lack of engagement ($\gamma=-0.44$; $t\text{-value}=-6.09$) has negative and significant effect on students career self-efficacy levels, thus H_{15} hypothesis was supported. In this regard, it is possible to express that only one of the dimension of parental career behaviors which is called as a lack of engagement affects students career self-efficacy levels. In other words, parents lack of engagement towards to the children may lead to their career self-efficacy levels decreased. According to the results, it is found that career self-efficacy levels of students have positive effect ($\gamma=0.29$; $t\text{-value}=4.84$) on intended-systematic and self-exploration ($\gamma=0.11$; $t\text{-value}=2.28$) career behaviors, so H_{10} and H_{12} hypotheses were supported but career self-efficacy levels has no significant effects on ($\gamma=0.08$; $t\text{-value}=1.65$) environment exploration of students, H_{11} hypothesis was not supported. In addition to them, Baron and Kenny (1986) approach was used for testing mediating effect of career self-efficacy. Related to this approach, following conditions were used for the mediation analysis (Baron and Kenny, 1986):

- 1) There is a significant relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable (parental career behaviors and career exploration)
- 2) There is a significant relationship between the independent variable and the mediator variable (parental career behaviors and career self-efficacy)
- 3) There is a significant relationship between the dependent variable and the mediator variable (career self-efficacy and career exploration)

After the SEM tested in accordance with the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach, structural equation model showed that career self-efficacy has a partially mediator role between the relationships of lack of engagement dimension of parental

career behaviors and intended-systematic career exploration behaviors, thus H₁₈ hypothesis was partially supported. In this context, it is possible to express that student who perceives unfavorable attitudes that shows lack of engagement from their parents, tend to exhibit intended-systematic career exploration behaviors but if they possess a career self-efficacy at the same time, their exhibition levels of intended-systematic career exploration are affected positively. In other words, career self-efficacy increases their intended-systematic career exploration behaviors even though they perceive lack of engagement. However, it is seen that career self-efficacy has a partially mediator role between the relationships of lack of engagement dimension of parental career behaviors and self-exploration behaviors. Therefore, it can be said that students who perceive unfavorable attitudes that shows lack of engagement from their parents, tend to exhibit self-exploration behaviors but if they possesses a career self-efficacy at the same time, their exhibition levels of self- exploration are affected positively. On the other hand, parental support and interference dimensions have no significant effect on career self-efficacy levels of students, the conditions of Baron and Kenny approaches were not provided so career self-efficacy's mediating effect was not questioned, which implies that H₁₆ and H₁₇ hypothesis was not supported.

Table 4. Summary of Hypotheses Results

Hypothesized Path	Results
H ₁ : Parental Support → Intended-systematic exploration	Supported
H ₂ : Parental Support → Environment exploration	Supported
H ₃ : Parental Support → Self exploration	Supported
H ₄ : Interference → Intended-systematic exploration	Supported
H ₅ : Interference → Environment exploration	Supported
H ₆ : Interference → Self exploration	Supported
H ₇ : Lack of Engagement → Intended-systematic exploration	Supported
H ₈ : Lack of Engagement → Environment exploration	Supported
H ₉ : Lack of Engagement → Self exploration	Supported
H ₁₀ : Career self-efficacy → Intended-systematic exploration	Supported
H ₁₁ : Career self-efficacy → Environment exploration	Not Supported
H ₁₂ : Career self-efficacy → Self exploration	Supported
H ₁₃ : Parental Support → Career self-efficacy	Not Supported
H ₁₄ : Interference → Career self-efficacy	Not Supported
H ₁₅ : Lack of Engagement → Career self-efficacy	Supported

Hypothesized Path	Mediator	Results
H ₁₆ : Parental Support → Career Exploration	Career Self-efficacy	Not Supported
H ₁₇ : Interference → Career Exploration	Career Self-efficacy	Not Supported
H ₁₈ : Lack of Engagement → Career Exploration	Career Self-efficacy	Partially Supported

6. Conclusion

In the current era, due to the emerging of social and technological changes in working world, it is seen that the ability of adolescents' to seek career opportunities, to recognize their concerns and interests related with their career have become an important topic. In other words, today's working conditions requires adolescents to have flexibility, adaptability, life-long learning approaches, possess specific personality characteristics and tend to exhibit exploration behaviors for the development of their career. Career exploration considered as one of the important activities which refers to adolescents' collecting and analyzing information on jobs, organizations, occupations and themselves. These activities facilitate adolescents to recognize existing job opportunities, prepare them for the future career transitions and provide their adaptability towards to the unpredictable conditions. In addition, by the career exploration behaviors, adolescents can be aware of their weakness, goals, strengths, interests, desires and opportunities. Therefore, it can be said that career exploration are considered vital component for young adolescents' career planning, career decidedness and career development process. However, there is a growing question about what lead or trigger adolescents to exhibit career exploration behaviors. In literature, it is seen that researchers focus on various individual, social and cultural factors which are expected to influence career exploration behaviors of university students. For example, these studies suggested that adolescent's age, gender, abilities, competencies; interest and personality characteristics can be considered effective factors on their career exploration activities. On the other hand, it is expected that adolescent's immediate environment, parents attitudes and behaviors have significant effect on their career exploration levels. Particularly, it is seen that parental

and family factors have become an important component for the adolescent success, academic achievement, academic engagement, career choices and career development stages. These factors include family characteristics such as socioeconomic status, family structure, parents' demographic traits and parental education, parenting styles etc.

Parenting styles which refers to the attitudes and behaviors of parents towards to the children's are considered as crucial for the university students career development process. Parenting styles shows the role modeling manner of parents that are expected to be effective on students career concern, career interest, career aspiration, and career self-efficacy and career exploration levels. Due to the parenting styles have accepted by the researchers as a social antecedent which is possible to affect or trigger young adult's career exploration attitudes and their career self-efficacy levels, it is seen that investigating these factors role important. Accordingly, this study aims to investigate some individual and social antecedents of university students' career exploration attitudes. From the individual perspective career self-efficacy is examined as one of the specific personality trait which is expected to effect of career exploration levels of university students'. On the other hand, parental career behaviors have been included in this study within the scope of social antecedents. As a result of the research findings, it has been obtained that parental support which indicates the positive dimension of parental career behaviors positively affects the students' intended-systematic career exploration, environment career exploration and self-career exploration levels, thus H₁, H₂, and H₃ hypotheses were supported. In addition, the other dimensions that represent the negative aspect of parental career behaviors which are labeled as interference and lack of engagement have both positive effect on student's intended-systematic career exploration, environment career exploration and self-career exploration levels so; H₄, H₅, H₆, H₇, H₈, H₉ hypotheses were supported. Therefore, all parental career behaviors can be considered as an individual antecedent of career exploration levels of students within the scope of the universities. In this context, it is possible to express that parental career behaviors which includes both positive and negative aspects although facilitates students setting specific career goals for themselves, lead them to recognize career opportunities, aware of their abilities, weakness and strengths and increase of their career decidedness.

According to the results of the study, career self-efficacy was examined as an individual antecedent of career exploration of university students and it has been found that career exploration dimensions of intended-systematic career exploration and self-exploration were affected positively by the career self-efficacy, thus H₁₀ and H₁₂ hypotheses were supported. From these results, it can be inferred that due to the students have possess career self-efficacy, it is expected them to more concerned with the career related activities. However, it can be said that career self-efficacy lead students to explore themselves and the career opportunities effectively. On the other hand, research results revealed that parental career behaviors one of the dimension which is labeled as a lack of engagement affect students career self-efficacy levels negatively, so H₁₅ hypothesis was supported, while interference and parental support dimensions have no significant effect on career exploration thus H₁₃ and H₁₄ hypotheses were not supported. Therefore, students' career self-efficacy levels which represent their confidence, decidedness and having responsibilities related with their future career choices can be affected positively by the parents' negative attitudes within the scope of this research. In this regard, it can be said that parents attitudes like lack of engagement to their children's may lead creating adverse effect on their attitudes related with career activities. For example, due to the ignorance of their parents, students go into the career activities wholeheartedly. Based on the findings, it has been obtained that career self-efficacy mediates the effect of parental career behaviors on students' career exploration so H₁₈ hypotheses partially was supported. According to these results, it is expected that students although perceive lack of engagement from their parents, due to the possess career self-efficacy at the same time, their willingness tend to participate career related activities can be increased. Therefore, career self-efficacy has a partially mediating role which increases the students career exploration levels even though they believe that their parents disregard themselves. Concordantly, the research results indicate that perception of parental career behaviors and the students' career self-efficacy levels which are considered in scope of the antecedents have significant effect on students' career exploration levels.

In the literature, there are some studies related to individual, social and cultural antecedents of students' career exploration. However, it is seen that studies on parental career behaviors and career exploration are relatively scant on the university students. Therefore, this study aims to add several contributions to the theory by exploring the relationships among these variables and determining the antecedents of career exploration. Moreover, this study reveals the importance of career exploration attitudes of the university students and it shows which factors can be considered to provide students to more concern with career related activities. The results of the study are significant for the education of the university students in terms of emphasizing the role of parental career behaviors and career related behaviors. Since the career exploration and

career self-efficacy play important roles for students to recognize job and career opportunities, and awake their positive and negative aspects or what they want to do in the future, it is needed to consider parental effects. In this context, it can be said that parents have to be interested in their child's education and career development process and help them increasing of their self-efficacy levels. This study had some limitations. First, data was gathered only eight faculties and two of the tourism and management school in some of the cities of Turkey. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be judged to be representative of all universities of Turkey. Second, the results are based on the perception of only the students who had a vocational education in tourism field. For future studies, it is recommended that the research model can be tested different samples that have different vocational education. In addition, the research model can be designed by adding some individual variables of students like personality, self-esteem, achievement orientation and some demographic variables such as gender, age, education grade or etc. In addition, from the social and cultural perspective students living place, income status of family, family togetherness and ethical values of family may be examined in the future studies.

References

- Baron, R. M. and D. A. Kenny (1986) . The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), p. 1173–1182.
- Bartley, D.F. and Robitschek, C. (2000). "Career Exploration: A Multivariate Analysis of Predictors", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56, p.63-81.
- Brusokas, A. and Malinauskas, R. (2014). "Career Self-Efficacy Among Lithuanian Adolescents in Sports Schools", *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, p. 212-216.
- Cheung, R. and Arnold, J. (2010). "Antecedents of Career Exploration among Hong Kong Chinese University Students: Testing Contextual and Developmental Variables", 76, p.25-36.
- Creed, P.A., Patton, W. and Prideaux, L. (2007). "Predicting change over time in career planning and career exploration for high school students", *Journal of Adolescence*, Vol. 30, No. 3, pp. 377-392.
- Dietrich, J. and Kracke, B. (2009). "Career-Specific Parental Behaviors in Adolescents' Development", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 75, p.109–119.
- Fisher, T. A. and Padmawidjaja, I. (1999). "Parental Influences on Career Development Perceived by African American and Mexican American College Students", Vol. 27, p.136-152.
- Gamboa, V., Paixão, M.P. and Jesus, S.N. (2013). "Internship Quality Predicts Career Exploration of High School Students", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83, p.78-87.
- Ginevra, M.C., Nota, L. and Ferrari, L. (2015). "Parental Support in Adolescents' Career Development: Parents' and Children's Perceptions", *The Career Development Quarterly*, Vol.63, p.2-15.
- Guan, Y., Wang, F., Liu, H., Ji, Y., Jia, X., Fang, Z., Li, Y., Hua, H. and Li, C. (2015). "Career-Specific Parental Behaviors, Career Exploration and Career Adaptability: A Three-Wave Investigation Among Chinese Undergraduates", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 86, p.95-103.
- Guan, M., Capezio, A., Restubog, S. L. D., Read, S., Lajom, J. A. L. and Li, M. (2016). "The Role of Traditionality in the Relationships Among Parental Support, Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy and Career Adaptability", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 94, p.114-123.
- Herlickson, A.B., Wettersten, K.B., Herrick, C.G., Kim, G.Y., Hunter, P.J., Guilmino, A., Faul, K., Jagow-France, D., Mach, B., Napton, S., Beecher, T., Hölzer, K. and Rudolph, S.E. (2009). "Initial Development and Psychometric Properties of the Adolescent Perceptions of Parental Pro-Educational Attitudes and Behaviors Scale", *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 41, p. 194-208.
- Hirschi, A., Abessolo, M. and Froideva, A. (2015). "Hope as a resource for career exploration: Examining incremental and cross-lagged effects", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 86, p. 38–47.
- Kossek, E.E., Roberts, K., Fisher, S. and Demarr, B. (1998). "Career Self-Management: A Quasi-Experimental Assessment of the Effects of a Training Intervention", *Personnel Psychology*, 51, p. 935-962.
- Kracke, B. (1997). "Parental Behaviors and Adolescents' Career Exploration", *The Career Development Quarterly*, Vol.45, p.341-350.
- Lee, B, Porfeli, E.J. and Hirschi, A. (2016). "Between- and within- Person Level Motivational Precursors Associated with Career Exploration", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 92, p.125-134.
- Li, Y, Guan, Y., Wang, F., Zhou, X., Guo, K., Jiang, P., Mo, Z., Li, Y. and Fang, Z. (2015), "Big-Five Personality and BIS/BAS Traits as Predictors of Career Exploration: The Mediation Role of Career Adaptability", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 89, p.39-45.

- Meydan, C.H. & Şeşen, H. (2011). *Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi AMOS Uygulamaları*, Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Nasta, K. A. (2007). "Influence of Career Self-Efficacy Beliefs on Career Exploration Behaviors", Master thesis of Science in Mental Health Counseling, The State University of New York.
- Roach, K.L. (2010). "The Role of Perceived Parental Influences on the Career Self-Efficacy of College Students", Counselor Education Master's Theses. Paper 88, The College at Brockport, State University of New York.
- Sawitri, D. R., Creed, P. A. and Zimmer-Gembeck, M. J. (2014). "Longitudinal Relations of Parental Influences and Adolescent Career Aspirations and Actions in a Collectivist Society", *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, Vol. 25, No. 3, p.551-563.
- Sawitria, D. R. and Dewia, K. S. (2015). "Academic Fit, Adolescent-Parent Career Congruence, and Career Exploration in University Students", 23, p.105-109.
- Skinner, E., Johnson, S. and Snyder, T. (2005). "Six Dimensions of Parenting: A Motivational Model", Vol. 5, No. 2, p.175-25.
- Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., and Müller, H. (2003). "Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures", *Methods of Psychological Research*, 8 (2), pp. 23-74.
- Stumpf, S.A., Colarelli, S.M. and Hartma, K. (1983). "Development of the Career Exploration Survey (CES)", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 191-226.
- Tuna M., Kanten P., Yeşiltaş M., Kanten S. and Alparslan A.M. (2014). "The Effect of Academic Advising on Career Adaptabilities: A Study on Tourism and Hotel Management' Students", *The Macrotheme Review*, Vol.3, p.139-155.
- Vignoli, E., Croity-Belz, S.A., Chapeland, V., Fillipis, A. and Garcia, M. (2005). "Career exploration in adolescents: The role of anxiety, attachment, and parenting style", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, p. 153-168.
- Zhao, X., Lim, V.K.G. and Teo, T.S.H. (2012). "The Long Arm of Job Insecurity: Its Impact on Career-Specific Parenting Behaviors and Youths' Career Self-Efficacy", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80, p.619-628.
- Zikic, J. and Hall, D. T. (2009). "Toward a More Complex View of Career Exploration", *The Career Development Quarterly*, Vol. 58, p.181-191.

The Effect of Organizational Virtuosity on Front Line Employees' Customer Orientation: Role of Perfectionism

Pelin Kanten

Assoc. Prof. Dr. , Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Political Science, Canakkale, Turkey

Selahattin Kanten

Assoc. Prof. Dr. , Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, School of Applied Sciences at Biga, Canakkale, Turkey

Muhteşem Baran

Assoc. Prof. Dr. , Istanbul University, Faculty of Business Administration, Istanbul, Turkey

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the effects of organizational virtuosity on front line employees' customer orientation and the mediating role of perfectionism. Within the literature, studies suggest that some individual and organizational factors lead front line employees to adopt customer orientated approaches and behaviors. Therefore, positive and negative perfectionism and organizational virtuosity are considered as predictors' of front line employees' customer orientation within the scope of the study. For the purpose of the research, the data which are collected from 385 hotel employees by the survey method are analyzed by using hierarchical regression analysis. According to the results of study it is found out that organizational virtuosity dimensions which are addressed as optimism, trust & compassion and integrity have positive and significant effect on employees' customer orientation levels. However, positive perfectionism has positive and significant effect on employees' customer orientation, while negative perfectionism has no significant effect on employees' customer orientation. In addition to this, organizational virtuosity dimensions such as optimism trust & compassion and integrity have positive and significant effect on employees' positive perfectionism levels. Moreover, positive perfectionism has a partial mediating role between organizational virtuosity and customer orientation, whereas negative perfectionism has no mediating role among variables.

Keywords: Organizational Virtuosity, Perfectionism, Customer Orientation, Front Line Employees

Introduction

In times of increasing competition and evolving customer demands and needs, responsiveness to environmental changes has become a crucial success component for organizations. Due to the changing conditions in the global market place, organizations have to quickly fulfill customer demands and need to effectively coordinate and deploy their internal competencies (Mei, 2012: 3). The internal competencies of the organization make up vital sources for competitive advantages of the service firms (Ghorbani et al., 2012: 58). Human resources in front-line services is considered as one of the internal competencies that is not as easy to copy as price or technology and believed to be the key to service organization's success or failure in responding to increasing competition and various external conditions (Gronfeldt, 2000: 1). Front-line employees are defined as service workers who personally interact with customers and regarded as the face of the service organizations in the eyes of the customer (Stock, 2016: 4259). In other words, front-line employees are the first and only representation of the service organization that has a large impact on both customer satisfaction and the service quality (Olsen and Sky, 2013: 1). As to the front-line employees become crucial to the organizations, it is needed to employ front-liners who are able to deliver good quality of service to customers and provide them to adopt customer-orientation approach. (Noor et al., 2012: 62). Customer orientation approach consists of needs and enjoyment indicating employees' ability to fulfill customer needs and the degree employees enjoy interacting with customers (Kassim et al., 2012: 132). However, customer orientation of the front-line employees reflects their attitudes and predispositions to meet

customer needs on the job and it has been identified as a key driver of customer outcomes, such as satisfaction, commitment and loyalty (Brach et al., 2015: 292). As employees and customers become the centerpiece of organizations with different needs, wants, and demands, it is needed to establish customer-oriented strategies and provide employees to exhibit customer-oriented behaviors for the excellent service. In this context, it can be said that customer orientation influences the level of customers' satisfaction and commitment and it is considered as an important element in organizational success. Therefore, modern business world requires organizations that focus on customer-oriented approaches and improve employees' customer-oriented behaviors (Gazzoli et al., 2012: 2).

Uncertain, fluctuant and complicated conditions have led many service organizations to implement new strategies to improve service quality. To implement new strategies successfully, it is necessary to develop and maintain a culture within which customer-oriented behaviors should be recognized, communicated, and rewarded in organizations (Huang and Chen, 2013: 181). Due to the customer orientation as a critical element for the success of almost every organization it is needed to establish or maintain a competitive position in the marketplace, to develop long term satisfactory relationships with customers and to emphasize an understanding of the factors that influences customer orientation of front line employees (Kılıç, 2004: 1). However, it is seen that a review of work in the field of customer-orientation indicates that only limited researches have examined the underlying factors that contribute to this type of behavior, particularly service organizations. (Noor, 2007: 1). In this context, this study aims to examine some of the individual and organizational antecedents of customer orientation of front line employees in service sector. From the scope of the individual antecedents; perfectionism which is considered as a crucial personality trait has been evaluated. On the other hand, organizational virtuousness is taken into the consideration as an organizational antecedent of customer orientation. It is seen that there are some researches investigating the antecedents of front-line employees' customer orientation in literature. However, there is not any research in existing literature yet examining the relationships among perfectionism, organizational virtuousness and customer orientation in service organizations. In addition, due to the front-line employees' customer orientation has crucial effects on hotel industry; this research has been tested in this population. Consequently, this study aims to investigate these relationships and the mediating role of in perfectionism in the effect of organizational virtuousness on customer orientation. Thus, this study aims to investigate the individual and organizational antecedents of customer orientation of front line employees so it attempts to add contribution to the literature.

Literature Review

Perfectionism

Due to the humans' competitions in workplaces have become higher and people are striving in a high level to attain resources, the term of perfectionism is being rooted in people's life. Accordingly, it is seen that organizations have a tendency to employ individuals who possess specific personality characteristics such as perfectionism (Kanten and Yeşiltaş, 2015: 1367). Perfectionism is a common personality characteristic that refers to strive for flawlessness, to set excessively high performance standards and sometimes resulting in overly critical self-evaluations or responses to external evaluations (Chang et al., 2016: 260). In other words, perfectionism can be defined as an "extreme or obsessive striving for perfection, as in one's work" (Dykstra, 2006:1). In the literature, there is no existing consensus relating to a single definition of perfectionism, but it is generally considered as a multidimensional personality style characterized by imposing high standards on oneself combined with the tendency to engage in overly and unrealistic critical evaluations of one's achievement (Cumming and Duda, 2012: 729). However, perfectionism is considered as a multidimensional personality trait comprising both positive and negative aspects (Butt, 2010: 126). Positive perfectionism was considered to be the cognition and behavior related to approach goals such as pursuit of success, approval from others and obtaining favorable outcomes. In contrast, negative perfectionism was considered to be the cognition and behavior related to approaches such as avoidance of failure, adverse consequences and rejection from others (Kobori and Tanno, 2005: 557). Moreover, positive perfectionism represents the setting of high goals and personal standards, striving for the rewards associated with achievement and satisfied with one's performance. On the other hand, negative perfectionism is characterized by the setting of unattainably high standards, feeling inability to take pleasure in one's performance and having an uncertainty or anxiety about one's capabilities (Bousman, 2007: 11). Consequently, when perfectionism is being investigated it is important that to take in consideration perfectionism have a two different dimensions; one of them is labeled as positive, normal, healthy, or adaptive perfectionism while the other is described as negative, neurotic, unhealthy, or maladaptive perfectionism (Besharat and Shahidi, 2010: 428).

Positive and negative perfectionism are characterized as one of the most important features and emotional states which differentiate individuals from each other and bring about some changes in their lives. Positive and negative perfectionism require employees to have high personal standards or goals in their work life, but it suggested that they respond differently when they face with a failure to achieve those standards. For example, positive perfectionists may have low levels of distress when they perceive discrepancy between their personal standards and their performance, while negative perfectionists experience high levels of distress in the same boat (Kanten and Yeşiltaş, 2015: 1368). In addition to this, persistence and hard work which are valued in organizations require positive perfectionism. Employees of such organizations feel that they must avoid from mistakes, keep track of everything, work long hours to attain narrowly-defined objectives and feel that they must do things perfectly (Nekoie-Moghadam et al., 4660). In this case, perfectionism may be beneficial for both the individual and the organization due to the individual gains recognition and promotion in the organization, and the organization has the benefit of the hard work of the employee. On the other hand, while employees' experience of failure or mistakes, their behavior becomes unremitting and compulsive, it leads to negative outcomes such as distress, anxiety and depression (Leonard and Harvey, 2008: 586). Therefore, it can be said that perfectionism has positive and negative outcomes, depending on how it is channeled (Nekoie-Moghadam et al., 4660). In literature, researchers suggest that positive perfectionism has been linked to various positive outcomes including hopefulness, greater levels of satisfaction in life, higher self-efficacy and self-esteem, and more positive family relationships. Contrary to the benefits related with positive perfectionism, there are various negative outcomes which have been connected with negative perfectionism such as unhealthy coping processes, increased procrastination, increased levels of depression and diminished satisfaction in life (Moate et al., 2014: 162). Moreover, it is asserted that positive perfectionism has been linked to positive outcomes such as higher performance, job satisfaction, workaholism, work engagement, positive affect, endurance, extroversion, and conscientiousness while negative perfectionism is also correlated with negative constructs such as stress, hopelessness, psychosomatic disorders, neuroticism, suicide ideation and etc. (Blackler, 2011: 6).

Organizational Virtuousness

Since human resources is assumed as the most valuable asset and the most competitive advantage source in organizations, studies performed in the realm of positivism became prevalent in the organizational fields (Ziapour et al., 2015: 1442). However, by the growing attention paid to the emotions and emotional processes by psychologists in recent years, there has been a great deal of interest in the experience, expression, and management of emotions, moods, and feelings at work which lead to emerge movements such as positive psychology and positive organizational scholarship that focus on positive emotional experiences and their implications for organizations (Khorakian et al, 2016: 46). In other words, for many years it is seen that psychologists had focused on different aspects of abnormal human behavior and considered the positive features less. But recently, there has been a movement occurring in this area that focuses on the positive aspects of behavior in the field of management and organizational behavior literature. Positive organizational behavior is a new area in organizational behavior that has been described as the study and application of positive aspects of human resources. Organizational virtuousness is one of the important new concepts of positive psychology field. Virtuousness represents the habits, desires and actions that lead to personal and social benefit (Kooshki and Zeinabadi, 2015: 563). Virtuousness is rooted in Latin word "virtus" which means strength or excellence. Plato and Aristo described virtuousness as the desires and actions that produce personal and social goods. Therefore, virtuousness is referred as the best of the human condition, the excellence and essence of humankind (Cameron, 2003: 48). Additionally, virtue can be defined as an attribute of personal character which possesses cognitive, affective, volitional, and behavioral characteristics and represents a connection with meaningful life purpose and personal flourishing, which leads to health, happiness and resilience in suffering (Zamahani et al., 2012: 2890). On the other hand, virtuousness in organizational settings refers to organizational virtuousness which implies inherent excellence and the moral goals of an organization (Nikandrou and Tsachouridi, 2015: 1825).

Organizational virtuousness shows positive interpersonal treatment at work and is associated with the behavior of individuals in organizational settings that helps individuals flourish as human beings (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2016: 32). Organizational virtues are the ones that are formed in the atmosphere of organizations and become source of identity and pride for the members of an organization (Ziapour et al., 2015: 1442). Organizational virtuousness refers to the attributes characterizing the best of a human resource and provides individuals internalization of moral rules that produces social harmony (Shekari, 2014: 4165). In literature, it is suggested that there are three crucial features of organizational virtuousness such as human impact, moral goodness and social betterment. According to human impact characteristics, virtuousness is associated with flourishing and moral character, human strength, self-control, resilience, meaningful

purpose, and transcendent principles. Moral goodness representing what is good, right and worthy while social betterment represents virtuousness extends beyond mere self-interested benefit, creating social value that transcends the instrumental desires (Ribeiro and Rego, 2009: 1406). In addition to these characteristics, it is seen that Cameroon et al. (2004) has provided a five-factor model of organizational virtuousness, including organizational optimism, organizational trust, organizational compassion, organizational integrity and organizational forgiveness dimensions (Kooshki and Zeinabadi, 2015: 563). Organizational optimism refers to employees feeling profound sense of the purpose that leads reactions, to expect success and good performance in the face of challenges. Organizational trust represents the organization respect and attention level to their employees. Organizational compassion shows that employees attention to each other and sympathy among them. Organizational integrity's meaning is the widespread sense of honesty and integrity in the organization while organizational forgiveness means that mistakes or faults are accepted by apologizing sincerely and seen as an opportunity to learn about the high standards of performance (Hamrahi et al., 2015: 4774).

Today's organizations are concerned not only with profits now but also concerned about values. In other words, they are becoming more sensitive to the good jobs for employees, environmental sustainability, healthy community relations, and great products for customers. For providing these conditions, virtuousness serves as a crucial role which differentiates organizations from others and facilitates them to gain competitive advantage and protecting them against the turbulent changes. Virtuous organization should possess attributes and demonstrate behaviors that extend beyond a consistent moral or ethical code; it should possess more than just a strong values-based culture (Shekari, 2014: 4165). Due to the organizational virtuousness directs individuals to become better citizens, more responsible and civilized and helps them in having better work ethics, it is seen that organizations and the managers consider virtuousness significance. In literature, it is suggested that virtuousness fosters the feeling of goodness and respect of the human, creates cooperation and balance in the communications, reinforces the deviations in organization (Abedi et al., 2014: 119-120). Thus, organizational virtuousness provides positive emotions among individuals, which in turn, lead to increasing of organizational performance, enjoyment in work, and more helpful and respectful behaviors in employees (Cameron et al., 2004: 771). In addition to these, virtuousness is the main intention of the organizations which leads to increasing well-being and health of employees and subsequently facilitating organizational improvement (Hamrahi, 2015: 4773). Consequently, it is possible to express that organizational virtuousness provides positive outcomes both individual and organizations. That is, virtuousness strengthened organizations by providing a clear representation of what was desirable, aspirational, and honorable in the organization. Therefore, it helped to renew organizations through its association with positive affect, social capital, and prosocial activity (Caza, 2004: 175). From the individual perspective it is seen empirical studies indicated that organizational virtuousness lead to some positive behaviors and mutual relationships, help them to strive for excellence and make them feel satisfied on their work and social life (Nikandrou and Tschouridi, 2015: 1825).

Customer Orientation

The fundamental principle of marketing is that all of today's organizations activities should be directed toward ensuring customer satisfaction and creates mutually beneficial, long-term relationships with the market. That is to say, organizations should and will benefit by providing customers with satisfactory services and products that contribute to long-term relationships with them. It is suggested that there is one way to facilitate this condition which is labeled as customer orientation. In this context, it is possible to express that it is needed to create a customer oriented approach and business culture which lead to organization get success in the market (Kim, 2009: 153-154). Customer-orientation concept was introduced in the early 1950s and tried to be measured by Saxe and Weitz in 1982. According to Saxe and Weitz customer orientation is viewed as customer oriented behaviors exhibited by the front line employees in service organizations or shows how an employee serve customers (Ping et al., 2016: 2579). However, over the past 30 years, it is seen that the importance of developing a strong customer orientation among all employees of a service organization has been emphasized in the management, quality and customer care literature by the researchers. While its importance, scholars have not reached a consensus on how the phenomenon should be defined, operationalized and applied. For example some researchers Saxe and Weitz (1982); Schlesinger and Heskett (1991); Peccei and Rosenthal (1997) defined customer orientation as "positive service attitudes or behaviors of employees to the customers (Grönfeldt, 2000: 2). On the other hand in following the work of Brown et al. (2000) and Donovan (1999) studies, customer orientation was considered as a surface level personality trait (Harris, 2001: 49). Surface trait refers to "focal" behaviors such as number of calls taken, frequency of smiling and response time. However, surface traits are specific context and result from interactions between basic traits and situational contexts. In other words, basic personality traits are enduring dispositions which are indicative of employees' behavior in diverse situations that surface traits. (Prentice, 2012: 2). Therefore, it is possible to express that customer orientation can be

considered as both a positive attitude and a surface trait which depends on employees' basic personality traits and the working conditions.

From the organizational perspective, customer orientation refers to a business philosophy or policy statement which holds that an organization should strive to satisfy the needs of customers through coordinated set of activities which allows the organization to achieve its objectives. Individual perspective, it represents customer oriented skills, motivation to serve and authority to make decisions, pampering customers, ability to read the customer's mind, need for personal relationship, need to deliver and lastly, to communicate with customers effectively (Kassim et al., 2012: 132). In other words, customer orientation has a five basic dimensions which are labelled as a pamper, read the customer facet, ability to deliver service, keeping the customer informed and personal relationships. These dimensions represent an attitude, behavior or belief which held by an employee concerning the importance of satisfying customer (Olsen and Sky, 2013: 5). Therefore, customer orientation at the employee level is the extent to which an employee seeks to increase long-term customer satisfaction and on overall service satisfaction (Kim, 2009: 154). Due to the, customer-oriented employee helps customers to identify their needs, offers services that fulfill those needs, and delivers the service that matches customers' needs, whilst avoiding the use of high pressure and also deceptive or manipulative information and influence tactics, it is possible that organizations to reach customer satisfaction in the long term (Sousa and Coelho, 2013: 1654-1655). In the literature, it is seen studies indicate that customer orientation decreases frontline employees burnout and turnover intentions and the negative effects of job demands on job performance. (Douri, 2012: 11). In addition to these, it is found out that employees' customer orientation levels has a positive and direct effect on their self-evaluation of job satisfaction, job commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (Gazzoli et al., 2012:6). Except the individual benefits, it is excepted that customer orientation of employees lead to positive organizational results such as increasing of organizational performance, organizational effectiveness and organizational profit, lead to customer loyalty, organizational success and etc.

Research Hypotheses

In modern age, when effective productivity in the workplace is the key to the success of companies, optimal utilization of human resources becomes a major factor in the achievement of the goals of organizations. However, it is needed to provide congruency between the needs of the organization and its employees for the effectiveness of today's organizations. Accordingly, in order to achieve a high level of congruency, organizations must consider the personality characteristics of their employees and evaluate personality type's suitability to the job descriptions and organizational conditions. Due to the employees demonstrate a variety of working patterns, some of them are advantageous to both the employee and the organization and some, may be both harmful to either the employee or the organization, it is required to identify what personality characteristics tend to strengthen productivity and which traits have negative effects (Tziner and Tanami, 2013: 65-66). In other words, personality traits represent the innate characteristics of employees and predict human attitudes and behaviors such as job performance, job satisfaction, safety behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors and customer-oriented behaviors (Ping et al., 2016: 2580). Particularly, it is seen that service organizations give personality traits prominence than the other companies because of the service sector characteristics. Therefore, for these organizations recruiting employees who have suitable personality traits and intrinsic interests to serve customers become a central task (He et al., 2015: 1752). Accordingly, it is seen there are some studies Davis (1983); Hogan et al., (1984); Hurley (1998); Williams and Sanchez (1998); Brown et al., (2002); Hee and Abidin (2016); Ping et al. (2016) suggested that various types of personality factors influence customer-orientation behavior of employees in service organizations. Perfectionism is one of the personality characteristics which are preferred by the organizations due to disposition to impose a standard that demands flawlessly executed performances and superior achievements. In literature, it is accepted that positive perfectionism may well contribute to the development of effective organizational citizenship behaviors, such as helping others, promoting the organization's services and objectives. In addition to these, it is suggested that perfectionist employees more likely engage in behaviors that require going above and beyond the task-related requirements of the job role and have willingness to perform their work roles. On the other hand, it is expected that negative perfectionism would exert undesirable consequences in organizations. (Beauregard, 2012: 592-593). From this point of view, in this research it is supposed that perfectionism may influence front line employees' customer orientation in hotel establishments and the following hypotheses are proposed:

H₁: Positive perfectionism significantly influences customer orientation levels of front-line employees.

H₂: Negative perfectionism significantly influences customer orientation levels of front-line employees.

Due to the success of service organizations crucially depends on the interaction between frontline employees and customers, it is seen that previous research focus on the determinants of customer orientation. To date, few studies have examined possible determinants of customer orientation such as role ambiguity, role conflict, job satisfaction, job involvement, and internalization of service excellence, job competence, job autonomy, organizational commitment, sales training, sales skills and job tenure (Dursun and Kilic, 2011: 55-56). In other words, it is possible to express that previous researches on the determinants of customer orientation classified them according to characteristics of either the person or the situation on which is focused. From the personal perspective, it is seen that mainly big five personality traits, emotional stability, need for activity, job resourcefulness, cognitive style and emotional intelligence have been examined (Wieseke et al., 2007: 266). On the other hand, from situational perspective there is amount of research explore the organizational factors which promote employees customer orientation. These include organizational controls, task clarity, firm's market orientation, supervisor organizational commitment, centralization of organization, supportive work environment, pay satisfaction, service climate, supportive and customer-oriented supervision etc. (Sousa and Coelho, 2013: 1655). In addition to these, while Olsen and Sky (2013) suggested that team service climate, employee empowerment, employee participation and organizational identification influence the front line employees' customer orientation; Kelly (1992), Siguaw et al. (1994) and Bennett (1999) asserted that the overall organizational climate of the organization impacts employees' customer orientation level. Accordingly, it is expected that organizational virtuousness may have a significant effect on the employees' customer orientation which is one of the representative property of organizational climate. In literature, it is emphasized that organizational virtuousness leads to positive individual treatment at work that includes interpersonal positivity such as having others treat feelings as important and treat them with respect and dignity. Indeed, these positive experiences emerge positive emotions that can rebound interpersonal transactions and positive attitudes towards them (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2016: 31). Therefore, when employees experience more positive emotions, it is expected them to be more helpful, more creative, and more empathetic and respectful to the customers (Cameron et al., 2003: 771). When employees perceive their organization as virtuous, they may also form positive image about the organization, increase their organizational identification, develop trust and a sense of loyalty, and make efforts to perform better and to benefit the whole organization (Rego, 2010: 4). Consequently, in case of feeling gratitude for working in a virtuous organization, employees feel themselves compelled to reciprocate with acts that benefit the organization, colleagues and customers (Ribeiro and Rego, 2009: 1405). From this point of view, it is possible to expect that organizational virtuousness dimensions may influence front line employees' customer orientation in hotel establishments and the following hypotheses are proposed:

H₃: Optimism significantly influences customer orientation levels of front-line employees.

H₄: Trust and compassion significantly influences customer orientation levels of front-line employees.

H₅: Integrity significantly influences customer orientation levels of front-line employees.

Perfectionism which is construed as a constant striving for perfection leads to some individual and organizational positive and negative consequences. However, it is needed to distinguish positive and negative perfectionism concepts and their effects (Tziner and Tanami, 2013: 66). For example, while positive perfectionists represent employees who are sociable and like to communicate with others and their positive feelings reinforce their self-confidence and also increase their activities, negative perfectionists have fear of failure, not being excellent and they aren't satisfied with their activities and with themselves (Forghani et al., 2013: 53). In this context, it can be said that positive perfectionism leads to positive consequences such as work engagement, job satisfaction, increased job performance, psychological well-being and etc. However, it is possible to express that employee positive perfectionism levels are affected by the organizational values such as organizational virtuousness. In other words, it is expected while organizations and their activities include values such as altruism, honesty, forgiveness and trust employees may have more tend to positive perfectionist characteristics. Moreover, if they perceive that there is positive relationship prevalence in their organizations and all of the organizational actions it leads them to possess positive characteristics. Therefore, in this research it is supposed that organizational virtuousness dimensions may influence positive and negative perfectionism levels of employees and the following hypotheses are proposed:

H₆: Optimism significantly influences positive perfectionism levels of front-line employees.

H₇: Trust and compassion significantly influences positive perfectionism levels of front-line employees.

H₈: Integrity significantly influences positive perfectionism levels of front-line employees.

H₉: Optimism significantly influences negative perfectionism levels of front-line employees.

H₁₀: Trust and compassion significantly influences negative perfectionism levels of front-line employees.

H₁₁: Integrity significantly influences negative perfectionism levels of front-line employees.

H₁₂: Positive perfectionism has a mediating role on the relationship between optimism and customer orientation of front-line employees.

H₁₃: Positive perfectionism has a mediating role on the relationship between trust&compassion and customer orientation of front-line employees.

H₁₄: Positive perfectionism has a mediating role on the relationship between integrity and customer orientation of front-line employees.

H₁₅: Negative perfectionism has a mediating role on the relationship between optimism and customer orientation of front-line employees.

H₁₆: Negative perfectionism has a mediating role on the relationship between trust&compassion and customer orientation of front-line employees.

H₁₇: Negative perfectionism has a mediating role on the relationship between integrity and customer orientation of front-line employees.

Figure 1. Direct Effects

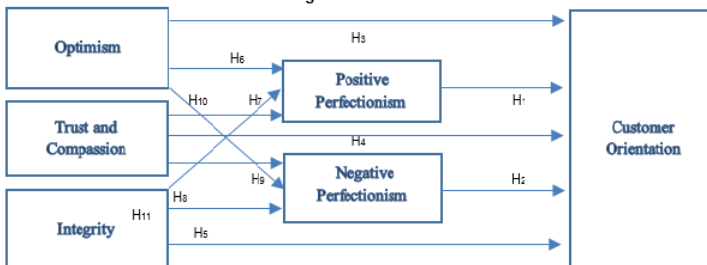
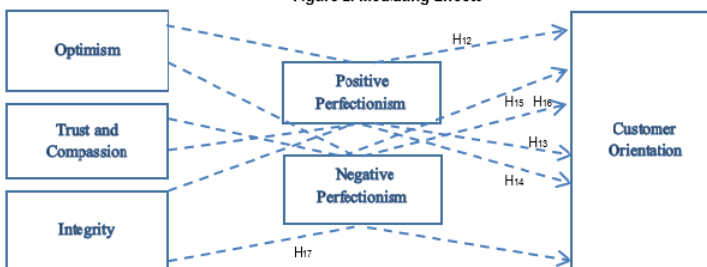


Figure 2. Mediating Effects



4. Research Method

4.1. Sample and Procedures

The sample of the research was composed of five-star hotels which are located in Antalya. The participants of the study consisted of 385 employees who are working in nine different hotels which are determined via convenient sampling method. From the 450 questionnaires that have been sent out, 400 have been returned, representing a response rate of 88%. After

elimination of cases having incomplete data and outliers 385 questionnaire (85%) have been accepted as valid and included in the evaluations. However, questionnaire survey method is used for data collection in this study. Questionnaire form contains three different measures related to research variables.

4.2. Measures

Measures used in the questionnaire forms have been adapted from the previous studies in the literature. All measures have been adapted to Turkish by the lecturers and pilot study has been conducted for the validity of these measures. Before the distribution of the survey to the actual sample, a pilot study was conducted in order to determine whether the questions had been understood properly and to check the reliability of the scales. As a result of the pilot study, some corrections have been conducted in the questionnaire forms. A Likert-type metric, that is, expressions with five intervals has been used for answers to the statements of survey. Anchored such; "1- strongly disagree, 2- disagree, 3- agree or not agree, 4- agree, 5- strongly agree". However, 6 demographic questions were asked in the questionnaire form. Firstly, all scales were subjected to the exploratory factor analyses to check the dimensions, and then confirmatory factor analyses were applied to all scales.

Organizational Virtuousness Scale: Employees' perception of organizational virtuousness measured with 16 items which was taken from Cameron et al. (2003) studies. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with varimax rotation was applied to the adapted scale to check the dimensions. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis data related to the organizational virtuousness variables, four items were removed from the analysis due to the factor loadings under 0.50 and three factor solutions; (**optimism, trust&compassion and integrity**) were obtained per theoretical structure. Factor loadings of the items ranged from .61 to .83. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the organizational virtuousness scale items is .89.

• **Perfectionism Scale:** Employees' positive and negative perfectionism characteristics measured with 22 items which was taken from Haase and Prapavessis's (2004) study. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis with varimax rotation was applied to the adapted scale to check the dimensions. As a result of the varimax rotation of the data related to the perfectionism variables, six items were removed from the analysis due to the factor loadings under 0.50 and two factor solutions; (**positive perfectionism and negative perfectionism**) were obtained per theoretical structure. Factor loadings of the items ranged from .60 to .80. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the perfectionism scale items is .79

• **Customer Orientation Scale:** Employees' customer orientation levels were measured with 21 items which was developed by Churchill (1979). As a result of the exploratory factor analysis of the data related to the customer orientation five factor solution; (**pamper, read the customer, ability to deliver, keeping the customer informed, personal relationship**) obtained per theoretical structure. Factor loadings of the item ranged from .52 to .78. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the customer orientation scale items is .92.

After the exploratory factor analyses, the confirmatory factor analysis has been conducted by Lisrel 8.8 for all scales. Goodness of fit indexes is presented in Table 1. It can be seen that all of the fit indexes fall within the acceptable ranges (Schermele-Engel et al., 2003: 52; Meydan and Şeşen, 2011: 35).

Table 1. Goodness of fit indexes of the scales

D Variables	χ^2	df.	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	NNFI	RMSEA
			≤ 5	$\geq .85$	$\geq .80$	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	≤ 0.08
Organizational Virtuousness	144.39	44	3.28	0.94	0.91	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.071
Perfectionism	224	74	3.02	0.92	0.89	0.96	0.95	0.94	0.073
Customer Orientation	498.51	178	2.80	0.89	0.86	0.97	0.96	0.97	0.068

4.3. Data Analysis

SPSS for Windows 20.0 and Lisrel 8.80 programs were used to analyze the obtained data. After the exploratory and confirmatory analysis, descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations and pearson correlation analysis of the study variables were examined. Following that, hierarchical regression analysis was used to test of the hypotheses in the research model.

5. Research Findings

5.1. Respondent Profile

Majorities (63%) of the employees were male and 37% were female. 34% of the employees were between the ages 26-33, 30% of them were under 26 and 36% of them older than 34. In terms of education level, 41% had a high school education, 21% of them had a bachelor's degree and, %21 of them had a primary school and 17% of the employees had a vocational school education. From the working unit perspective, 45% of the employees were working in food and beverage department, 20% of them were working in housekeeping department, %22 of them were working in other units such as technical, human resource and accounting and the 13% of the participants from the front office department. 40% of the participants have been working for between 1-3 years and 34% of them have been working for less than 1 years, while 26% of them have been working more or than 3 years in the same hotel.

5.2.Descriptive Analyses

In the scope of the descriptive analyses means, standard deviations and correlations have been conducted which are related to organizational virtuousness, perfectionism and customer orientation behavior of employees. The values are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Means, standard deviations and correlations of the study variables

	Mean	S.S	1	2	3	4	5	6
Optimism	3.98	.90	1					
Trust & Compassion	3.84	.85	.590**	1				
Integrity	3.80	.94	.385**	.527**	1			
Positive Perfectionism	4.17	.73	.389**	.355**	.293**	1		
Negative Perfectionism	3.11	.94	-.025	.034	.113*	.010	1	
Customer Orientation	3.95	.67	.479**	.521**	.372**	.666**	.053	1

** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

As can be seen in Table 2, organizational virtuousness dimension of optimism were positively related to employees positive perfectionism ($r = .389$, $p < 0.01$) and customer orientation levels ($r = .479$, $p < 0.01$). However, trust & compassion dimension were positively related to employees positive perfectionism ($r = .355$, $p < 0.01$) and customer orientation levels ($r = .521$, $p < 0.01$) and integrity also were positively related to employees positive perfectionism ($r = .293$, $p < 0.01$); negative perfectionism ($r = .113$, $p < 0.05$); and customer orientation levels ($r = .372$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, employees positive perfectionism levels were positively related to their customer orientation levels ($r = .666$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the results of correlation analysis shows that trust & compassion dimension of organizational virtuousness much more related with the employees customer orientation levels than the other dimensions.

5.3. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results

For verifying hypotheses, in this study it used the testing approach of Baron and Kenny (1986) to examine whether positive and negative perfectionism were mediating variables or not. According to this approach, the procedures for regression analyses are as follows: (1) regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable; (2) regressing the mediator on the independent variable; and (3) regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable and mediator (Baron and Kenny, 1986). In this context, to determine the mediating effects of positive and negative perfectionism between organizational virtuousness and customer orientation; the relationships among independent variable (organizational virtuousness), mediator variables (positive and negative perfectionism) and dependent variable (customer orientation) have been examined with hierarchical regression analysis and Sobel test conducted, results with mediator test have been presented in table 3, 4 and 5.

Table 3. Mediating Role of Perfectionism on the Effect of Optimism on Customer Orientation

	β		Sobel Test
	Positive Perfectionism	Customer Orientation	
Optimism	Test 1		z=7.383 p=0.000
	Optimism	.479***	
	R ²	.229	
	Adj. R ²	.227	
		(F=114.045***)	
	Test 2		
	Optimism	.389***	
	R ²	.151	
	Adj. R ²	.149	
		(F=68.086***)	
	Test 3		
	Optimism	.259***	
	Positive Perfectionism	.565	
	R ²	.501	
	Adj. R ²	.498	
	(F=191.477***)		

p< 0.001***

According to table 3, in the first step, it is seen that optimism has a positive and significant effect $\beta=.479$ ($p< 0.001$) on customer orientation and H_3 hypothesis was supported. In the second step, it is determined the effect of optimism on the mediator variable which is labeled as positive perfectionism and it is found that optimism has a positive and significant effect $\beta=.389$ ($p< 0.001$) on employees positive perfectionism levels so H_6 hypothesis was supported. However, it is determined that positive perfectionism has a positive and significant effect $\beta=.666$ ($p< 0.001$) on employees customer orientation levels thus H_1 hypothesis was supported. In the last step, independent variable and mediator variable have analyzed together and investigated these variables effect on customer orientation. In this context, it is seen that effects of optimism on customer orientation levels of employees has been continued but decreased $\beta=.259$ ($p< 0.001$) and it is seen that positive perfectionism significant effects has been continued $\beta=.565$ ($p< 0.001$) on customer orientation levels of employees.

Due to the Baron and Kenny (1996)'s conditions were provided, it is found that positive perfectionism has a partially mediator role between the relationships of optimism and customer orientation thus H_{12} hypothesis was supported. Therefore, it is possible to express that employees who have a perception of their organization has a optimism characteristic it lead them to exhibit customer oriented behaviors but if they possesses a positive perfectionism at the same time, their customer orientation levels are affected positively. In other words, positive perfectionism increases front-line employees customer orientation levels while they have a perception of optimism.

Table 4. Mediating Role of Perfectionism on the Effect of Trust & Compassion on Customer Orientation

	β		Sobel Test
	Positive Perfectionism	Customer Orientation	
Trust & Compassion	Test 1		z=6.896 p=0.000
	Trust & Compassion	.521***	
	R ²	.272	
	Adj. R ²	.270	
		(F=142.792***)	
	Test 2		
	Trust & Compassion	.355***	
	R ²	.126	
	Adj. R ²	.124	
		(F=55.367***)	
	Test 3		
	Trust & Compassion	.326***	
	Positive Perfectionism	.550	
	R ²	.536	
	Adj. R ²	.534	
	(F=220.715***)		

According to table 4, in the first test, it is seen that trust&compassion has a positive and significant effect $\beta=.521$ ($p < 0.001$) on customer orientation and H₄ hypothesis was supported. In the second test, it is determined the effect of trust&compassion on the mediator variable which is labeled as positive perfectionism and it is found that trust&compassion has a positive and significant effect $\beta=.355$ ($p < 0.001$) on employees positive perfectionism levels so H₇ hypothesis was supported. In the third test, independent variable and mediator variable have analyzed together and investigated these variables effect on customer orientation. In this context, it is seen that effect of trust&compassion on customer orientation levels of employees has been continued but decreased $\beta=.326$ ($p < 0.001$) and it is seen that positive perfectionism significant effects has been continued $\beta=.550$ ($p < 0.001$) on customer orientation levels of employees, therefore positive perfectionism has a partially mediator role between the relationships of trust&compassion and customer orientation so H₁₃ hypothesis was supported. However, it can be said that due to the employees has a positive perfectionism characteristics and believe that their organizations have a trust &compassion; they lead them to exhibit customer orientated behaviors. In addition to this, it can be inferred that employees positive perfectionism levels increase their customer orientated behaviors while they have a perception of their organizations has trust &compassion property.

Table 5. Mediating Role of Perfectionism on the Effect of Integrity on Customer Orientation

	β		Sobel Test
	Positive Perfectionism	Customer Orientation	
Integrity	Test 1		z=7.049 p=0.001
	Integrity	.372***	
	R ²	.138	
	Adj. R ²	.136	
		(F=61.451***)	
	Test 2		
	Integrity	.293***	
	R ²	.086	
	Adj. R ²	.083	
		(F=35.868***)	
	Test 3		
	Integrity	.194***	
	Positive Perfectionism	.609***	
	R ²	.478	
	Adj. R ²	.475	
	(F=174.705***)		

As can be seen in table 5, integrity has a positive and significant effect $\beta=.372$ ($p < 0.001$) on customer orientation and H₅ hypothesis was supported. Second test, it is determined the effect of integrity on the mediator variable which is labeled as positive perfectionism and it is found that integrity has a positive and significant effect $\beta=.293$ ($p < 0.001$) on employees positive perfectionism levels so H₈ hypothesis was supported. In the third test, considering the mediator role of positive perfectionism, it has been seen that the effects of integrity on customer orientation levels of employees has been continued but decreased ($\beta=.194$ ($p < 0.001$)) and also positive perfectionism significant effects has been continued $\beta=.609$ ($p < 0.001$) on customer orientation levels of employees. In this regard, it can be said that conditions of Baron and Kenny approaches were provided and positive perfectionism has a partially mediator role between the relationships of integrity and customer orientation so H₁₄ hypothesis was supported. Therefore, it is possible to express that employees who have a perception of organizations has a integrity may exhibit customer oriented behaviors but if they possesses a positive perfectionism at the same time, their customer orientation levels are affected positively. In other words, positive perfectionism increases front-line employees customer orientation levels while they have a perception of integrity. On the other hand, it is found that negative perfectionism has no significant effects on employees' customer orientation levels so H₂ hypothesis was not supported. In addition to this, one of the dimension of organizational virtuousness which is labeled as an integrity has a positive and significant effect $\beta=.113$ ($p < 0.001$) on employees negative perfectionism levels so H₁₁ hypothesis was supported. Therefore, since negative perfectionism has no significant effect on effects on employees' customer orientation levels, the conditions of Baron and Kenny approaches were not provided so its mediating effect were not questioned, which implies that H₁₇ hypothesis was not supported.

Table 6. Summary of Hypotheses Results

Hypothesized Path	Results	
H ₁ : Positive Perfectionism → Customer Orientation	Supported	
H ₂ : Negative Perfectionism → Customer Orientation	Not Supported	
H ₃ : Optimism → Customer Orientation	Supported	
H ₄ : Trust & Compassion → Customer Orientation	Supported	
H ₅ : Integrity → Customer Orientation	Supported	
H ₆ : Optimism → Positive Perfectionism	Supported	
H ₇ : Trust & Compassion → Positive Perfectionism	Supported	
H ₈ : Integrity → Positive Perfectionism	Supported	
H ₉ : Optimism → Negative Perfectionism	Not Supported	
H ₁₀ : Trust & Compassion → Negative Perfectionism	Not Supported	
H ₁₁ : Integrity → Negative Perfectionism	Supported	
Hypothesized Path	Mediator	Results
H ₁₂ : Optimism → Customer Orientation	Positive Perfectionism	Supported
H ₁₃ : Trust & Compassion → Customer Orientation	Positive Perfectionism	Supported
H ₁₄ : Integrity → Customer Orientation	Positive Perfectionism	Supported
H ₁₅ : Optimism → Customer Orientation	Negative Perfectionism	Not Supported
H ₁₆ : Trust & Compassion → Customer Orientation	Negative Perfectionism	Not Supported
H ₁₇ : Integrity → Customer Orientation	Negative Perfectionism	Not Supported

6. Conclusion and Implications

Due to the today's working conditions have become more uncertain, fluctuant and competitive than ever before, organizations need to quickly fulfill customer demands and need to employ qualified employees who are able to deliver good quality of service to the customers. In other words, it is seen that unpredictable and variable conditions have changed the nature of organizations activities and employees requirements. Working area needs organizations have to adopt customer-oriented approaches and employ people who possess superior skills and characteristics that facilitate to fulfill their duties and overcome their responsibilities. However, in modern age, organizational effectiveness and productivity depend on providing a culture which focuses on customer oriented attitudes and behaviors and also maintaining congruence between the needs of the organization and their employees. In order to achieve a high level of congruence, organizations have to take in consideration employees' personality characteristics suitability to their job descriptions and

working conditions. Particularly, the nature of work in the hotel industry requires employees some specific personality characteristics such as dynamism, flexibility and hardworking due to long working hours, stressful roles, immediate and rapidly changing customer demands. Therefore, organizations need to attain and retain employees who possess characteristics that hotel industry required and to provide their harmony with the service conditions. For example, since the customer orientation is a key component of some expected outcomes such as excellent service, customer satisfaction, commitment and loyalty at service organizations, employees have to exhibit customer oriented behaviors towards the customers while delivering service and satisfying their needs. In this context, due to the customer orientated attitudes and behaviors are crucial in the hotel industry; organizations need to give an importance how it can be performed.

In literature, it is seen that scholars and researchers focus on investigating the individual and organizational antecedents of customer orientation of front-line employees in service sector. These previous studies indicated that from the individual perspectives some personality characteristics such as big five personality traits, emotional stability, need for success, job resourcefulness, cognitive style and emotional intelligence are crucial predictors of customer orientation levels of employees. In addition, it is possible to express studies suggested that, there are also some organizational determinants of customer orientation of employees like organizational structure, task clarity, organization's market orientation, supportive work environment, employee empowerment, employee participation, organizational climate and etc. Accordingly, this study aims to investigate some individual and organizational antecedents of customer orientation of front-line employees. From the individual perspective perfectionism is examined as one of the specific personality trait which is expected to effect of customer orientation levels of employees. On the other hand, organizational virtuousness that represents the climate of organization has been included in this study within the scope of organizational antecedent. As a result of the research findings, it has been obtained that positive perfectionism which indicates the healthy dimension of perfectionism positively affects the front-line employees' customer orientation, thus H₁ hypothesis was supported. But, it is found that the other dimension which is labelled as a negative perfectionism has no significant effect of customer orientation so H₂ hypothesis was not supported. Therefore, positive perfectionism can be considered as a one of the individual antecedent of customer orientation within the scope of hotel establishments. Besides, it has been observed that the perfectionism level of employees were relatively high, which shows that they have striven to reach high goals and personal standards, satisfaction with their capability that lead to perform work roles effectively and take on more tasks. In this context, it is possible to express that hotel employees need to possess positive perfectionism which facilitates them to overcome higher working conditions of service sector.

According to the results of the study, organizational virtuousness was examined as an organizational antecedent of customer orientation of front-line employees, it has been found that dimensions of organizational virtuousness such as optimism, trust& compassion and integrity affect positively customer orientation levels of employees, Thus H₃, H₄ and H₅ hypotheses were supported. From these results, it can be inferred that due to the hotel establishments provide climate which represents trust, honesty, integrity, goodness, and moral rules, maintaining harmony and sympathy among individuals; it is expected employees to have a tendency to behave customer orientated. However, it can be said that these organizational characteristics lead employees to perform their work roles effectively and facilitate them to comply with the changing nature of jobs and working conditions regarding to the customer demands. In other words, when hotel employees perceive goodness, excellence, respect, forgiveness from their colleagues and managers, tend to exhibit customer orientated attitudes and behavior more willingly. Moreover, research results revealed that organizational virtuousness dimensions which are labeled optimism, trust&compassion and integrity affect employees positive perfectionism levels positively, so H₆, H₇ and H₈ hypotheses were supported. In this context, it can be expected that perception of characteristics related with organization's values, prevalence climate and belief can bring about changes in employees positive perfectionism levels. In other words, employees' attitudes, emotions and feelings which represent their perfectionism can be affected by the organizations positive, ethical and moral characteristics within the scope of this research. On the other hand, only organizational virtuousness as one of the dimensions that are addressed as integrity has a significant effect on employees negative perfectionism levels so H₁₁ was supported but H₉ and H₁₀ was not supported.

Based on the findings, it has been obtained that positive perfectionism mediates the effect of organizational virtuousness on front-line employees' customer orientation, thus H₁₂, H₁₃ and H₁₄ hypotheses were supported. According to these results, it can be said that employees who have perception of their organization possess optimism, integrity and trust & compassion and believe that they own positive perfectionism at the same time, their willingness to show customer orientated behaviors increased. Therefore, positive perfectionism has a partially mediating role which increases the employees customer orientation levels even though they believe that their organizations have virtues characteristics. In addition to these results,

it has been obtained that negative perfectionism has no mediator role in the effect of organizational virtuousness on front-line employees' customer orientation so H₁₅, H₁₆ and H₁₇ hypotheses were not supported. Concordantly, the research results indicate that perception of organizational virtuousness which is considered in scope of the organizational factors has significant effect on both employees' positive perfectionism and customer orientation levels. However, positive perfectionism which refers to individual characteristic has significant effects on customer orientation levels of employees. In this context, it is possible to express that within the scope of the sample, front-line employees' customer orientation levels depend on their personality traits and the perception of organizational conditions. Furthermore, it is possible to express that since the working conditions, job roles, requirements of service delivery process are more complex, changeable and instantaneous in the hotel industry compared to the other work groups, employees and organizations have to equip with qualified characteristics.

Theoretical Implications

In the literature, there are some studies related to individual and organizational antecedents of front-line employees' customer orientation. However, there are not any researches existing in the literature investigating the relationships among organizational virtuousness, perfectionism and customer orientation within the scope of research all together. Accordingly, it is seen that studies on organizational virtuousness and perfectionism are relatively scant in the hospitality industry. Therefore, this study aims to add several contributions to the theory by exploring the relationships among these variables and determining the antecedents of customer orientation. Moreover, this study reveals the importance of customer orientation of front-line employees in the hotel industry and it shows which factors can be considered to provide employees to behave customer oriented in the hotel establishments.

Managerial Implications

The results of the study are significant for the management of the hotels in terms of emphasizing the role of front-line employees' customer orientation. Since the customer orientated behaviors, organizational conditions and specific personality characteristics play important roles in fulfilling customers' demands and needs, managers have to employ individuals who can behave to deliver excellent service to the customers and have to maintain virtuousness in organizations. In this context, it can be said that hotel establishments or managers need to attract and retain employees who can behave customer oriented and possess personality characteristics such as positive perfectionism and provide positive and ethical climate. However, according to the results of the study, it is needed to employ individuals who have positive perfectionism in the hotel industry. Due to the positive perfectionism and organizational virtuousness fosters employees to behave customer oriented; it becomes an important factor for managers to pay attention to personality traits and working conditions in organizations. Therefore, it is possible to express that providing employees to adopt a customer oriented approach depends on individual traits and organization's characteristics. The other implication of this study is presenting the necessity of designing and implementing organizational conditions which represent excellence, moral rules and values such as trust, honesty, integrity etc. Accordingly, managements of the hotel establishments have to give an importance to the recruitment process and human resource and policies to provide employees to behave customer oriented.

Limitations and Future Research

One of the limitations is that this study includes only nine hotels located in one of the city of Turkey. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be judged as representative of all establishments in the hospitality industry of Turkey. Accordingly, the results of the study are valid only for the hotel establishments included in this study. For future studies, it is recommended that the research model can be tested with larger samples or in other service sectors such as travel agencies, health or logistics and the results can be compared. However, since the customer orientation is considered as important component in service industry, the research model can be designed by adding some other individual and organizational variables within the scope of antecedents. For example, from the individual perspective some antecedents such as proactive personality, big five personality traits, self-efficacy, positive and negative affects can be investigated. In addition, from the organizational perspective ethical climate, ethical culture, organizational commitment, organizational identification and human resource management practices may be examined in the future studies.

References

- Abedi, S. H., Eslami, H. and Amrolahi, N. (2014). "The Role of Organizational Virtuousness on the Organizational Commitment of Employees (Case Study: Islamic Azad University)", *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, Vol.5, No.10, p.118-130.
- Baron, R. M. and D. A. Kenny (1986) . The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), p. 1173–1182.
- Beauregard, T.A. (2012). "Perfectionism, self-efficacy and OCB: the moderating role of gender", *Personnel Review*, 41 (5), p. 590-608.
- Bennett, J.B., Lehman, W.E.K. and Forst, J.K. (1999). "Change, Transfer Climate, and Customer Orientation, A Contextual Model and Analysis of Change-Driven Training", *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 24 No. 2, p. 188-216
- Besharat, M.A. and Shahidi, S. (2010). "Perfectionism, anger, and anger rumination", *International Journal of Psychology*, 45 (6), p. 427-434.
- Bousman, L. A. (2007). "The Fine Line of Perfectionism: Is It Strength or a Weakness in the Workplace?", Doctorate Thesis in the Faculty of The Graduate College at the University of Nebraska, Major: Psychology, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- Brach, S., Walsh, G., Hennig-Thurau, T. and Groth, M. (2015). "A Dyadic Model of Customer Orientation: Mediation and Moderation Effects", *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 26, p.292–309.
- Brown, T.J., Churchill, G.A., Jr., and Peter, J.P. (1993). "Improving the Measurement of Service Quality", *Journal of Retailing*, 69, p. 127-139.
- Butt, F. M. (2010). "The role of perfectionism in psychological health: A study of adolescents in Pakistan", *Europe's Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 4, p.125-147.
- Cameron, K.S. (2003). "Organizational Virtuousness and Performance", Inside Positive Organizational Scholarship Foundations of a New Discipline, Cameron, K.S., Dutton, J.E. and Quinn, R.E. (Eds), Berrett-Koehler Publisher, California.
- Cameron, K. S., Bright, D. and Caza, A. (2004). "Exploring the Relationships between Organizational Virtuousness and Performance", *American Behavioral Scientist*, Vol. 47 No. 6, p.766-790.
- Caza, A., Barker, B. A. and Cameron K. S. (2004). "Ethics and Ethos: The Buffering and Amplifying Effects of Ethical Behavior and Virtuousness", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 52, p.169-178.
- Chang, H.T., Chou, Y.J., Liou, J.W. and Tu, Y.T. (2016). "The Effects of Perfectionism on Innovative Behavior and Job Burnout: Team Workplace Friendship as a Moderator", *Personality and Individual Differences*, Vol.96, p.260-265.
- Churchill, G.A. Jr. (1979). "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs", *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16, 64-73.
- Cumming, J., and Duda, J.L. (2012). "Profiles of perfectionism, body-related concerns, and indicators of psychological health in vocational dance students: An investigation of the 2x2 model of perfectionism", *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 13, p. 729-738.
- Davis, M.H. (1983). "The effects of dispositional empathy on emotional reactions and helping: A multi dimensional approach", *Journal of Personality*, 51, p. 167-184.
- Donavan, D.T. (1999). Antecedents and Consequences of the Contact Employee's Service Orientation: From Personality Traits to Service Behaviors, Doctor of Philosophy, Graduate College of Oklahoma State University, U.S.A.
- Douri, B.G.B. (2011). The Effects of Job Resourcefulness and Customer Orientation on Hotel Employee Outcomes: An Empirical Study in Iran, Master of Science in Tourism Management, Eastern Mediterranean University Gazimağusa, North Cyprus.
- Dursun, T. and Kilic, C. (2011). "Exploring Occupational and Strategic Drivers of Individual Customer Orientation", *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, Vol 9, No.5, p.55-66.
- Dykstra, E. E. (2006). "Relationship of Perfectionism and Gender to Academic Performance and Social Functioning in Adolescents", Doctorate Thesis in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology, UMI Number: 3243775.
- Forghani, M.H., Ghafari, M., Shirangi, S.Y., Ghandehari, F. and Emadzadeh, M.K. (2013). "The role of personality traits in perfectionism orientation", (Isfahan Melli Bank employees as case study), *International Journal of Academic Research in Accounting, Finance and Management Sciences*, 3 (1), p. 52-59.
- Gazzoli, G., Hancer, M. and Park, Y. (2012). "Employee Empowerment and Customer Orientation: Effects on Workers' Attitudes in Restaurant Organizations", *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, Vol.13, p.1–25.
- Ghorbani, H., Demneh, S.M.A. and Khorsandnejad, A. (2012). "An Empirical Investigation of the Relationship between Organizational Culture and Customer Orientation: The Mediating Effect of Knowledge Management (An Empirical Study in the Household Appliance Industry in Iran)", *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, Vol. 4, No. 3, p.58-67.
- Grönfeldt, S. (2000). "The Nature, Impact and Development of Customer-Oriented Behavior: A Case Study in an Icelandic Service Context", Degree of Doctor of Department of Industrial Relations, London School of Economics and Political Science, London.

- Haase, A.M., Prapavessis, H. and Owens, R.G. (2013). "Domain-specificity in perfectionism: Variations across domains of life", *Personality and Individual Differences*, 55, 711-715.
- Hamrahi, M., Najafbagy, R., Musakhani, M., Daneshfard, K. and Delavar, A. (2015). Factors Effecting on Promoting Organizational Virtuousness in Iran State Agencies, *Indian Journal of Fundamental and Applied Life Sciences*, Vol.5, No.1, p.4772-4779.
- Harris, E.G. (2001). Is Customer Orientation Enough? Personality Influences and Critical Outcomes, Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Faculty of the Graduate College of the Oklahoma State University.
- He, H., Wang, W., Zhu, W. and Harris, L. (2015). "Service workers' job performance, The roles of personality traits, organizational identification, and customer orientation", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 49, No. 11/12, p.1751-1776.
- Hee, O.C. and Abidin, A.B.Z. (2016). "The Moderating Effects of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Personality Traits and Customer-oriented Behavior in the Malaysian Health Tourism Industry", *International Business Research*, Vol. 9, No. 6, p. 72-79.
- Hogan, J., Hogan, R. and Busch, C.M. (1984). "How to measure service orientation", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 1, p. 167-173.
- Huang, M. and Chen, M.Y. (2013). "Internal Marketing, Customer Orientation and Organizational Commitment: Moderating Effects of Work Status", *Psychological Reports: Employment Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 113, No. 1, p.180-198.
- Hurley, R.F. (1998). "A customer service behavior in retail settings: A study of the effect of service provider personality", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Sciences*, 26(2), p. 115-227.
- Kanten, P. and Yesiltas, M. (2015). "The Effects of Positive and Negative Perfectionism on Work Engagement, Psychological Well-Being and Emotional Exhaustion", *Procedia Economics and Finance*, Vol.23, p.1367-1375.
- Kassim, Z. A., Yusoff, I. Y. Md. and Fong, N. L. (2012). "Job Empowerment and Customer Orientation of Bank Employees in Kuching, Malaysia", *Contemporary Management Research*, Vol. 8, No. 2, p.131-140.
- Kelley, S.W. (1992). "Developing Customer Orientation among Service Employees", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 20, p. 27-36.
- Khorakian, A., Maharati, Y. and Lorestany, H. Z. (2016). "Virtuousness and Effectiveness in Hospitals: The Moderating Role of Organizational Culture", *Advances in Management & Applied Economics*, vol. 6, no. 4, P.45-66.
- Kılıç, C. (2004). "An Investigation of the Antecedents and Consequences of Individual-Level Customer Orientation a Comprehensive Approach", Doctorate Thesis in Business Administration, Old Dominion University, UMI Number: 3163526.
- Kim, W. (2009). "Customers' Responses to Customer Orientation of Service Employees in Full-Service Restaurants: A Relational Benefits Perspective", *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 10, p. 153-174.
- Kobori, O. and Tanno, Y. (2005). "Self-Oriented Perfectionism and its Relationship to Positive and Negative Affect: The Mediation of Positive and Negative Perfectionism Cognitions", *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, Vol. 29, No. 5, p. 555-567.
- Kooshki, S. A. and Zeinabadi, H. (2015). "An Investigation Into the Role of Organizational Virtuousness in the Job Attitudes of Teachers", *Jurnal UMP Social Sciences and Technology Management*, Vol. 3, No. 1, p.563-570.
- Kristen Blackler, K. (2011). "The Effect of Adaptive Perfectionism, Maladaptive Perfectionism, and Feedback on Procrastination Behaviour", Master thesis in Psychology, Queen's University Kingston, Ontario, Canada.
- Leonard, N.H. and Harvey, M. (2008). "Negative Perfectionism: Examining Negative Excessive Behavior in the Workplace", *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 38, No. 3, p. 585-610.
- Lutgen-Sandvik, P., Hood, J.N., Jacobson, R.P. (2016). "The Impact of Positive Organizational Phenomena and Workplace Bullying on Individual Outcomes", *Journal of Managerial Issues*, Vol. XXVIII Number 1 - 2 Spring/Summer, p. 30-49.
- Mei, M.Q. (2012). "Customer Orientation and Organizational Responsiveness", DRUID Academy 2012 Conference, University of Cambridge/The Moeller Centre, p.1-35, druid8.sit.aau.dk/acc..de0brgxcfcpr727o9v63jic71sfm.pdf.
- Meydan, C.H. & Şeşen, H. (2011). Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi AMOS Uygulamaları, Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Moate, R. M., Gnilka, P. B., West, E. M. and Bruns, K. L. (2016). "Stress and Burnout Among Counselor Educators: Differences Between Adaptive Perfectionists, Maladaptive Perfectionists, and Nonperfectionists", *Journal of Counseling & Development*, Vol.94, p.161-171.
- Nekoie-Moghadam, M., Beheshtifar, M. and Mazrae-Sefidi, F. (2012). "Relationship between employees' perfectionism and their creativity", *African Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 6(12), pp. 4659-4665.
- Nikandrou, I. and Tschouridi, I. (2015). "Towards a Better Understanding of the "Buffering Effects" of Organizational Virtuousness' Perceptions on Employee Outcomes", *Management Decision*, Vol. 53 No. 8, p.1823-1842.
- Noor, N.A.M. (2007). "The Influence of Front Liner's Personality Types on Developing Customer Orientation Behaviour: A look at Malaysian Hotel Industry", *Journal of Global Business Management*, Vol. 3, No. 2, p. 1-7.
- Noor, N. A. M., Kasim, A., Scarlat, C. and Muhamad, A. (2012). "The Role of Individual Differences in Promoting Front Liners to Become Customer-Oriented: A Case of the Hotel Industry in Malaysia", *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, Vol.13, p.61-79.
- Olsen, E.M. and Sky, A. (2013). "How can service organizations improve the customer orientation of frontline employees? A cross cultural study", Master thesis in Marketing and Brand Management, Norwegian School of Economics, Bergen.

- Peccei, R. and Rosenthal, P. (1997). "The Antecedents of Employee Commitment to Customer Service: Evidence from a UK Service Context", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8, p. 66-86.
- Ping, L.L., Ahmad, U.N.U. and Hee, O.C. (2016). "Personality Traits and Customer-Oriented Behavior of the Malaysian Nurses", *International Business Management*, 10, 13, p. 2579-2584.
- Prentice, C. (2012). "Trait EI, Customer Orientation and Service Performance", *Scientific Reports*, Vol 1., No. 7, p. 1-6.
- Rego, A., Ribeiro, N. and Cunha, M.P. (2010). "Perceptions of Organizational Virtuousness and Happiness as Predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol 93, No. 2, p. 215-235.
- Ribeiro, N. and Rego, A. (2009). "Does Perceived Organizational Virtuousness Explain Organizational Citizenship Behaviors", *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*, Vol.30, p.1406-1413.
- Saxe, R. and Weitz, B.A. (1982). "The SOCO Scale: A Measure of the Customer Orientation of Salespeople", *Journal of Marketing Research*, XIX, p. 343-351.
- Schlesinger, L.A. and Heskett, J.L. (1991). "Breaking the Cycle of Failure in Service", *Sloan Management Review*, 32(3), p. 17-29.
- Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., and Müller, H. (2003). "Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures", *Methods of Psychological Research*, 8 (2), pp. 23-74.
- Siguaw, Judy A., Gene Brown and Robert E. Widing, II (1994). "The Influence of the Market Orientation of the Firm on Sales Force Behavior and Attitudes", *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31, p. 106-116.
- Sousa, C.M.P. and Coelho, F. (2013). "Exploring the relationship between individual values and the customer orientation of front-line employees", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 29, No. 15-16, p. 1653-1679.
- Stock, R.M. (2016). "Understanding the relationship between frontline employee boreout and customer orientation", *Journal of Business Research*, 69, p.4259-4268.
- Shekari, H. (2014). "Can Organizational Virtuousness Promote Employees' Citizenship Behaviors in Organizations?", *International Journal of Management and Humanity Sciences*, Vol.4, p.4164-4172.
- Tziner, A. and Tanami, M. (2013). "Examining the links between attachment, perfectionism, and job motivation potential with job engagement and workaholism", *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 29, p. 65-74
- [Williams, M.](#) and [Sanchez, J. I.](#), (1998). "Customer service-oriented behavior: Person and situational antecedents", *Journal of Quality Management*, Volume 3, No. 1, p. 101-116.
- Wieseke, J., Ullrich, J., Christ, O. and Van Dick, R. (2007). "Organizational identification as a determinant of customer orientation in service organizations", *Market Lett*, 18, p. 265-278.
- Ziapour, A., Molavibistoni, S. and Davood Afsari, D. "A Study of the Relationship between Organizational Virtuousness and Employee Engagement (A Case Study of Employees of Kermanshah-Based Branches of Keshavarzi Bank, Iran in 2015)", *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, Vol, 9, No. 8, p.1442-1447.
- Zamahani, M., Ahmadi, A. A., Sarlak, M. A. and Shekari, H. (2012). "Moving towards Virtuousness in Organization: An Analysis of Factors Affecting Virtuous Organizations", *Management Science Letters*, Vol. 2, p.2889-2902.

Agricultural Sector and Economic Development in Albania

Dr. Eva Dhimitri

"Fan S. Noli" University, Faculty of Economy, Department of Management, Korca, Albania,

Prof. Assoc. Dr. Aida Gabeta

"Fan S. Noli" University, Faculty of Economy, Department of Management, Korca, Albania,

Abstract

This study was carried out to provide empirical information on the relationship between agricultural production and the growth of economy in Albania. The focus is the agricultural and agro processing sector in Albania since the beginning of transition till nowadays. Being a developing economy has made Albania faces with different rates of growth from one year to another without maintaining a linear form of development sectors. This study gives clear information about the performance of the sector and how they can contribute more efficiently utilized the country's potential resources. This study examines the contribution of agriculture and agro industry sectors to the economic growth in Albania by using time series data from 1990 to 2015.

Keywords: economic growth, agricultural sector, new model of economic growth, GDP, FDI.

Introduction

The economy of a country can be analyzed in two sectors, public and private sector. The public sector includes all the institutions that provide administrative services, military, health, education and investing in public infrastructure. The public sector relies heavily on the income generated from the private sector because public revenues are insufficient to cover costs. Therefore greater weight to the economic development of a country holds the private sector according to Fischer (1930), and later by Clark and Fourastié, is divided into three main categories: Primary sector of the economy, which includes processes that ensure raw food products and those dealing with the extraction of raw materials from the ground. Secondary economy sector, which transforms raw materials into intermediate or final products. Tertiary sector of the economy, which provides consumer and business services. In this article we will discuss about of agricultural and agro processing sector in Albania and their impact on economic development. The term 'growth' can be defined as an increase a worker's productivity (Ray, 1989). To be successful, needs to be a relation between agricultural output and the growth in GDP. "Rostow (1960), based on the experiences of different countries it comes in the conclusion that economic growth generally goes through these five phases: The first phase of the economy is based on agriculture and mining, then it modernizes agricultural processes, develops infrastructure and initiate industrial production. In the third phase of the industrial sector is increased further by attracting large investments and contributing to sustainable development. Further economy achieves competitive advantages through technological progress and diversified workforce, and on the fifth stage of the latter it becomes a mature economy and experiencing what is known as "revolution of services". Agriculture sector has often been touted crucial in the economic development of most transition countries.

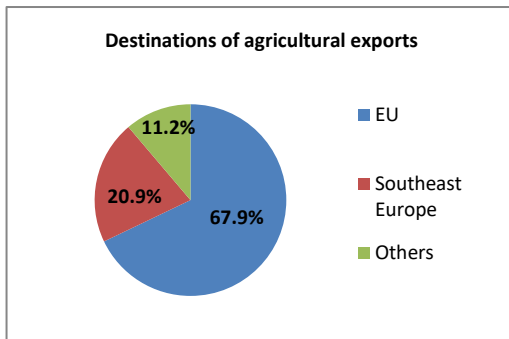
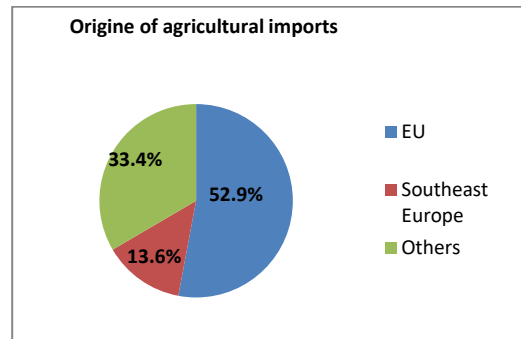
Situation of agricultural sector in Albania

The Republic of Albania is situated in the South East region of Europe, South-West of the Balkan Peninsula, along the Adriatic and the Ionian Seas. Albania is a small country with a population of 3.1 million inhabitants. Agricultural land accounts for 24% of the total land, with forests accounting for 36%, pastures and meadows 15% and others 25%. Out of the total agricultural land, 43% is lowland, 34% hilly and 23% mountains. Agriculture is dominated by small farms (less than 1.2 ha), fragmented in 3 to 4 plots. This fragmentation is an important obstacle to an efficient and sustainable development of Albanian agriculture. Agriculture is still the biggest contributing sector for income generation for the largest part of the population, as well as a source of employment. Rural population makes 54% of total population, and 71 % of

the working force is employed in agriculture or agriculture related activities.(National Rural Strategy). Agriculture accounts for about 23% of gross domestic value added and have been growing at about 3% per year, in real terms. However, given that growth of non-agriculture sectors has been significant, agriculture's share of GDP has declined. According to official data, livestock accounts for 45% of total agriculture value added, crops 44%, and fruit-culture 11%. Over the past five years, fruits have shown the highest growth rate (at nearly 7% per year), with vineyards growing particularly strongly. Fruits and grape have high potential for further growth. Livestock has been growing at about 3%. The land used for agriculture is often quite sloping, with only about 44% of the agricultural land having a slope of less than 5%. Agriculture provides the income basis for most of the population and serves as an employment safety net. More than 60% of the population is somehow involved in herding and rearing livestock, mostly very small scale and livestock plays an essential role in the smallholder farming systems, as well as serving an important social security function. Most livestock is kept for milk production, mainly for home consumption. Milk production suffers from problems of low levels of quality standard. Livestock also serve as a means of transport and are used for land preparation. The main crops are fodder and cereals and production has shown little growth over the last five years. Agriculture in Albania suffers from low competitiveness and local producers are often forced to accept very low incomes, in order to compete with imported products. Official statistics probably reflect the situation in the larger farms and may therefore understate the problems with efficiency. According to these official statistics, cereal yields are between 3 and 3.5 t/ha, which is similar to the yields achieved in other Eastern European countries, and about 65% of the average yields in EU member states. Crop yields have increased steadily and significantly over the last five years, while crop area has declined, suggesting that there is a trend towards concentration of production in more efficient farms. The exception to this trend is with forage crops, where yields have declined but area changed only slightly. In addition, the area planted to orchards and vineyards has increased, at the same time as improvements in orchard yields. Agriculture is one of the most determinative sectors of the Albanian national economy. Its contribution has been decreasing over years and it is estimated at 17% of the GDP. The real mean growth rate of agriculture production during the last five years is estimated to about 4 percent per year.

Relationship between agricultural sector and economic development.

Agriculture is one of the leading sectors of the economy. According to INSTAT (2014) 54% of the population resides in rural areas and is associated with the agricultural sector because they have to use as much land and natural resources where they live. About 40% of the total area of Albania classified as agricultural land (WB, 2007). For this reason, agriculture is an important source of income in rural areas and to develop agribusiness is running out farm boundaries and including the food industry. Activity in the agricultural sector in the last quarter of 2014 increased by 0.67% compared to its previous quarter and by 1.23% compared with the last quarter of 2013 (INSTAT, 2014). One of the biggest challenges of agriculture in the future is the transition from traditional to production with higher standards, thus providing quality and competitive products to the market. Average growth in agriculture during the past five years is estimated to be around 3-3.5% per year (Ministry of Agriculture, 2014). However, the growth of this sector is far behind the actual potential. Some of these problems are related to land ownership, population moves to cities, infrastructure, technology and the use of improper marketing of products. These adversely affect investment and contribution to this sector in economic growth and in the relationship with the banks and credit. Last years were about 1.25% of total loans for businesses, but this is a low percentage, given that agriculture contributes 1/5 of GDP (BSH, 2014). Agriculture plays an important role as a source of income for a large part of the population. However only 20% of gross value added comes from this sector, where the number of population that are involved in it shows a low level of productivity (BSH, 2014). The agricultural sector is likely to develop further exploiting potential sources for Albania. So this sector can bring in future greater impact on economic growth compared with other sectors and competing in markets abroad. According to recent data, it appears that the export of food products, beverages and tobacco accounted for 6.2% of total exports, agro-industry sector cover 3%. These data show private initiative and efforts to further develop this sector. For 2014 the level of export increased by 11.9% compared with a year earlier, and imports 2.8%. EU countries are the main destination with about 67.9% of exports and the source of 52.9% of imports and 20.9% of exports go to the countries of Southeastern Europe and 11.2% of imports come from these countries (EU-Albania Subcommittee on Agriculture and Fisheries, 2015). Exports of processed agricultural products that go straight distance to frontier EU level remain lower than imports, covering only 0.77% of them. In 2014 there was an increase in exports to the EU by 59.7% compare with a year earlier, while imports rise by 6.2%. The reason is the agro-processing sector is still small and focused on the demand of the domestic market (EU-Albania Subcommittee on Agriculture and Fisheries, 2015).

Figure 1: Agricultural exports**Figure 2: Agricultural imports**

Source: EU-Albania Subcommittee on Agriculture and Fisheries, 2015

Agro-processing industry and economic development.

Agro processing industry occupies about 24.4% of total estimated production from agriculture and agro-industry. The dominant activities are those of dairy, meat, bread and flour processing. The situation in the sector varies. The enterprises especially in dairy and meat processing have made large investments to assure compliance with standards. Food processing accounts for about 40% of agro-industry and is composed of: small private enterprises; privatized former state enterprises (mainly involved in bread, flour, milk, and drinks); and private initiatives with new investments. Before 90's, food industry collected and processed around 50-80% of all agriculture production, commercializing all produce from the state farms and employing about 47,000 workers. There are now 2060 food enterprises (of which 46% are for bread-making and flour making) employing about 9900 people. Food processing is growing rapidly, at about 10% per year in terms of production and now is equivalent to over 20% of agricultural value added. Milk and meat processing are showing particularly strong growth. Some modern food processing (frozen vegetables) is undertaken based on imported raw materials. Exports of processed food products amount to about 10% of the value of imports of processed food products. Food processing industry has got a stable development in recent years provided an average annual growth of above 12% for 2014. In the period 2010-2014 productivity in industry increased by 7.5%, by 4.7 million measured value output per worker, to 5 million. While employment has positively changed from 10300 to 11300 job vacancies. Finally, production in food processing industry since 2000 has reached a level of 48 billion and 11.6% average annual growth of industry sector. (EU-Albania Subcommittee on Agriculture and Fisheries, 2015). Two-thirds of the work force in this sector is under 30 years old, out of which 70% are women. This ensures various needs are addressed, including marketing strategy, product development, packaging, labeling, branding, and access to national and international markets. Some directions to increase the production are: • Developing quality business services, in particular marketing; • Supporting the banking system to offer better financial products for agro-processors; • Encouraging Foreign Direct Investments in the agro-processing sector; • Strengthening capacities of stakeholders in improving their business environment. jobs for young women and men. Developing quality business services, in particular marketing; • Supporting the banking system to offer better financial products for agro-processors; • Encouraging Foreign Direct Investments in the agro-processing sector; • Strengthening capacities of stakeholders in improving their business environment.

Conclusions

To reach a sustainable economic development, firstly we should take into consideration that exports is a very important factor on this development. Export opportunities in Albania for the agricultural products and also for the processed products have been increasing significantly, but still they are far from their real capacity. This is mainly due to some factors: a) Lack of marketing facilities (storage, processing, and packaging of products); b) Low standards related to food safety; c) Low level of competitiveness in the market of agricultural products due to low quality and relatively high cost of products. The importance of increasing export is not only seen for reducing the trade balance, but also for improving quality of the product and increasing production capability, opening new jobs, improving the welfare and also for the economic development of the country. Increasing the quality of our products will have a positive impact on export growth and will increase the rate of imports with the locally produced products. The main steps that the Albanian economy can pursue to further progress

would be: creation of a stable relationship between sectors, increasing investments for each sector and support economic sector that is based in the development of human capital. Strengthening the last sector would be the starting point for sustainable development for the primary sectors for which Albania has adequate physical capital, but could not manage it in the absence of adequate human capital.

Reference

- World Bank Report (2012), "Albania: Strategic policy in agricultural sector", fq. 10-24. World Bank (2014), "Albania Public Finance Review".
http://www.wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2014/03/12/000442464_20140312104023/Rendered/PDF/820130ESW0P1430C0disclosed030100140.pdf,
- BE-Shqipëri Nënkomiteti mbi Bujqësinë dhe Peshkimin (2013), "Marrdhëniet tregtare në sektorin e Bujqësisë", fq. 1-15. Gjendet në: http://www.bujqesia.gov.al/files/userfiles/integrimi_evropian/Nenkomiteti_i_BE-Shqiperi_per_Bujqesine_2013.pdf.
- Greco, N., Mastromarco, C. (2008), "Sources and Determinants of Output Growth in Albania and Other Transition Economies": 33.
- Statistic Institute of Albania http://www.instat.gov.al/media/234692/vshb_t4_2013.pdf.
- Kota, V. (2009): "Determinants of Economic Growth in Albania", Economic Bulletin 12(4).
- Memedovic, O. & Lapadre, L. & Hokins, J. (2010), "Structural Change in the World Economy: Main Features and Trends", *United Nations Industrial Development Organization*.
http://www.unido.org/fileadmin/user_media/Publications/Pub_free/Structural_change_in_the_world_economy.pdf,
- Ministry of Agricultural in Albania (2007), "Strategjia Sektoriale e Bujqësisë dhe Ushqimit (SSBU) 2007-2013", Tirane, fq. 5-30. Gjendet në: <http://www.scribd.com/doc/58613928/Strategjia-Sektoriale-e-Bujqesise-Dhe-Ushqimit-SSBU..>
- Schautzer, A (2005), "Focus on European Economic Integration", *Albania: Country Profile and Recent Economic Developments*, 107-126.

Mental Health Protection and Health Policy Towards People with Mental Illnesses. the Case of Poland

Małgorzata Dobrowolska

Assistant Professor, Institute of Psychology, University of Silesia in Katowice

Bernadetta Izydorczyk

Assistant Professor, Institute of Applied Psychology, Jagiellonian University in Cracow

Summary

The aim of the article is to present basic data on the health policy in Poland for the years 2016-2020 in the context of current standards and developmental goals for mental health promotion in the European Union countries. The article is also aimed at adumbrating standards and directions in mental health protection. It also sets out to present guidelines for helping people with mental illnesses that are based on the results of our research. This work presents selected results of a study which was carried out within the "Diagnosing the aid and social support system for people with mental illnesses in the Mazovia Province" research project. The project was co-financed from the resources of the Human Capital Operational Programme (as part of European Union's European Social Fund).

Keywords: mental health protection, health policy towards people with mental illnesses

Introduction

Mental health protection and the health policy towards Poles that is planned for the upcoming years are closely linked with a need to diagnose the aids and social support system, also for people with mental illnesses.

The aim of the article is to present basic data on health policy in Poland for the years 2016-2020 in the context of current standards and developmental goals for mental health promotion in the European Union countries. The article is also aimed at adumbrating standards and directions in mental health protection. It also sets out to present guidelines for helping people with mental illnesses that are based on the results of our research.

The epidemiological and demographic analyses for Poland that can be found in subject literature indicate that the number of people in the working and pre-working age groups will decrease in the upcoming years, while the number of people in the post-productive age group will systematically increase (2008-2035 population projection for Poland, Central Statistical Office of Poland, 2008; National Strategic Framework. Policy Paper for the protection of health for the period 2014-2020, 2015.) Epidemiological analyses reveal that Polish people's health state is worse than the European Union average. This is true for both males and females. A higher fatality level results from the risks of circulatory diseases and cancer. Incapacity for work is most often linked with diseases such as: circulatory (16.2%), mental and behavioral disorders (15.9%), nervous system diseases (9.5%) and others. The analyses above underline the significance of the development of mental disorders in the future Polish populace.

The cohesion policy that embraces health policy and mental health protection in all European Union states imposes a necessity to support standards that stimulate an all-encompassing and coordinated approach to mental health protection. These standards were listed in the "Europe 2020" strategy. They were also adopted by the Coordinating Committee on Development Policy and approved by the Ministry of Health on 8 July 2015 in the form of the "National Strategic Framework: Policy Paper for the protection of health for the period 2014-2020" document. It was approved by the Ministry of Health on 8 July 2015.

Apart from the mentioned document, the Regulation of the Council of Ministers of 5 January 2015 on the National Programme for the Protection of Mental Health also regulates protecting the rights of people with mental illnesses and the

rules of looking after them. On the grounds of article 2, paragraph 6 of the Act on Mental Health Protection (Polish Journal of Laws 2011, No. 231, item 1375 and Polish Journal of Laws 2015, item 1916), § 1. 1. establishes the National Programme for the Protection of Mental Health for 2016-2020. The National Programme for the Protection of Mental Health outlines basic standards for actions taken in the process of prophylaxis and dealing with people with mental disorders and various emotional difficulties. The program also maps out a strategy for taking actions aimed at providing people with mental disorders with a complex, multisided and publicly available assistance that is fitted for health needs and located near the people's place of residence. Apart from the mentioned documents that protect the rights of patients with mental illnesses, those rights and rules for dealing with people with mental disorders are also outlined in the Act on Mental Health Protection of 1994.

All the documents and programs mentioned in this article point out a necessity to respect developmental goals. In order to enable meeting these goals, specialized psychology professionals, both from the field of adult and child psychology, need to be included in the process of attaining them.

A diagnosis of the aid and social support system for people with mental illnesses: A selection of conclusions from empirical research. The case of Poland.

The study was carried out among representatives of institutions that provide help and social support for people with mental illnesses, namely: medical personnel of mental health protection service providers in the Mazovia Province, heads of communal homes of mutual aid and occupational therapy workshop centers, therapists employed in communal homes of mutual aid and occupational therapy workshop centers who perform tasks related to supporting people with disorders, people with mental illnesses, people from the environments of patients with mental illnesses, psychiatrists employed in hospitals and psychiatric wards, directors and heads of communal homes of mutual aid that provide support to people with mental illnesses as well as therapists employed in communal homes of mutual aid who work directly with people with mental illnesses.

The research employed both qualitative (desk research and 52 individual in-depth interviews) and quantitative methods (369 telephone-based computer-aided interviews).

People with mental illnesses and their families have relatively sufficient possibilities to utilize specialist medical and paramedical support in most provinces. As for the twenty-four-hour and interim (interventional) care service providers for various types and causes of disorders (ranging from decompensated addicts to patients going through disease episodes and people in remission who visit health resorts), they are relatively diverse and numerous, offering a relatively high number of beds available to both current and awaiting patients as well as the presence of collaborating institutions in a given institution's surroundings. Offering such care is a convenience to families of people with mental illnesses—they can expect institutional care for their charges. Institutional care is extended to the family member who suffers from an illness for numerous reasons, among others—to their family's convenience.

Blanket registration of people with mental illnesses, in compliance with DSM IV (ICD 10 in Poland) hinders the possibility to carry out thorough analyses and aggregate data for each county. Introducing an additional system of monitoring the issue of mental disorders should be considered. Such a system would allow obtaining plausible statistic results in compliance with the prerequisite to protect sensitive data. According to most recent statistics, over 70% of the people with mental disorders who are treated within outpatient care are patients of mental health outpatient clinics. In the period between 1997 and 2010 the total number of patients and the number of patients treated for the first time within outpatient care almost doubled (in both cases there was a growth of over 70%) in all Polish provinces. The number of cases diagnosed with mental disorders has been systematically growing in each year from the period of 2010-2012 up to now. The most commonly diagnosed groups among the treated patients are neurotic and schizophrenic disorders, followed by mood disorders and organic mental disorders. Patients treated for alcohol disorders make up the fourth most numerous group.

According to the *Diagnosis of the social support system for people with mental disorders within support and social integration services in Mazovia*, the most prevalent groups of specialist care services for people with mental disorders are, namely: teaching and shaping skills that are essential for unassisted functioning, interventions and help targeted at functioning within a family, helping with official errands, supporting and helping with finding employment, assisting with dealing with money, treating the disordered body functions and housing aid.

The study allowed the identification of most significant barriers and problems for providing social support, including social and vocational support for people with mental illnesses. These barriers can be divided into several domains:

Economic barrier—i.e., a lack of sufficient financial resources, which resources would enable offering more effective support to people with illnesses and their caretakers: limited amounts of time at the support-providers' disposal; few institutions/units that provide environmental support; a lack of supervised apartments; limited access to specialists (e.g., psychotherapists);

Barrier of specialist care providers—i.e., it is related with proper training on behalf of the staff employed in institutions that provide support to people with illnesses and their caretakers; medical and social care staff frequently lack the knowledge, competences or skills of these institutions' employees.

Barrier of social stereotypes—i.e., low level of knowledge about mental illnesses within the population; stereotypical approach to people with illnesses; lack of understanding combined with anxiety and reluctance in the society towards people with illnesses and their caretakers;

Barrier of lacking employment and permanent employee benefits—i.e., lack of job positions for the people with mental illnesses who are able to work;

Barrier of lacking access to information—i.e., lack of informational and educational support for caretakers of people with illnesses (low effectiveness of the system that provides information about possible aid sources and forms available for people with illnesses and their caretakers);

Barriers related with the patients' environment—i.e., caretakers' health problems that hinder looking after their close ones with illnesses and the possibilities to make use of aid; impeded contact with the patients' families; shame and anxiety on behalf of the patients' nearest environment towards making use of aid and a lack of motivation for seeking sources of support;

Barriers related with the patient's current health state—i.e., patients health state that may hinder social and vocational activities; lack of motivation among people with mental illnesses; problems with communicating with people with diseases; patients' fear of seeking and using help.

Legal and administrative barriers—i.e., limitations resulting from the existing law; difficulties with inter-institutional and inter-organizational collaboration.

Based on the conducted interviews, in order to remove the mentioned barriers we suggest the following measures:

Providing more funding for the mental health protection system, which would lead to offering more effective help to people with illnesses and their caretakers; involving volunteers, interns, apprentices and the patients' environments in actions carried out by the institutions; seeking various forms of funding and subsidizing the services; shortening the time during which patients wait for support; setting up centers that provide help for people with illnesses and their caretakers;

Educating competent employees of the healthcare and social care systems, improving qualifications and providing further training; increasing the access to free trainings for the employees of institutions that provide support for people with illnesses; supervising one's own work and analyzing cases together with other staff members in a given institution;

Carrying out information and awareness campaigns targeted at the whole society; holding events, meetings, exhibitions, cultural outings and visiting nature—i.e., creating opportunities for meeting healthy people;

Organizing actions aimed at informing employers; providing people with illnesses with internship possibilities; holding training sessions on running official errands and preparing application documents; providing people with mental illnesses with support from an assistant or trainer, who would support them in their workplaces; organizing job fairs; holding workshops aimed at developing skills;

Providing information and educating the environments of people with mental illnesses;

Maintaining contact with patients' families, explaining and justifying the need for support and its validity; providing aid from qualified caretakers/assistants for caretakers who are unable to look after the patients themselves

Providing psychological and psychiatric support for people with mental illnesses; organizing collaboration between people with mental illnesses in the form of meetings (group therapy); working with patients on their long-term plans; creating long-term therapeutic programs;

Creating a system of ties between the various institutions and organizations that provide support for people with mental illnesses, thus, expanding the range of services provided in each province; fostering intra-team collaboration within each institution; enabling collaboration between individual specialists and external institutions; improving communication between units.

Establishing task forces that work together to the benefit of people with mental illnesses and their families; this would allow adjusting treatment methods and therapy to patients' social situations. A possibility to consult within a task force allows a more precise and accurate diagnosis and monitoring the progress made by patients and their environment, which translates into a higher treatment effectivity. Moreover, the interdisciplinary nature of these teams would enable making full use of the potential of various institutions and organizations, whose actions are aimed at people with mental illnesses.

The study also allowed the identification of training needs that were raised by employees of institutions providing support for people with mental illnesses. Those needs concerned trainings aimed at acquiring knowledge and skills with respect to providing support for such people and for their caretakers in order to allow people with mental illnesses function independently within the local community.

People with mental illnesses identified increasing the understanding and awareness in their environments and being provided with more intense therapeutic support as their biggest needs with regard to the social support that is provided to them. People who look after their loved ones pointed to such needs as a possibility to acquire the skills of supporting people with illnesses, receiving help from a third party who would support them with their skills and knowledge, and obtaining psychological and motivational support. As for the needs concerning qualifications improvement with regard to providing support, also in the form of social and professional activation, that are raised by caretakers of people with mental illnesses, the obtained data suggests highest prominence of the following: expanding knowledge on the ailments that people with mental illnesses suffer from, acquiring the skill of communicating with people with illnesses as well as obtaining informational support concerning the available sources and types of help. An equally important factor that enables people with mental illnesses and their families to function properly is being aware of their own rights. The regulations in force are aimed at enabling people with mental illnesses and people from their environments to participate in social life as actively as possible. The implementation of these tenets requires increasing the accessibility of information on the prerogatives of people with mental illnesses and their families. It is a fundamental task in the context of utilizing the already existent forms of support available for the described social group. The prerogatives of people with mental illnesses and their families are often not exercised due to a lack of awareness of their existence.

The presented study has revealed that people with mental illnesses often times hold negative perceptions of their situation with regard to maintaining social relationships due to a low level of acceptance which is faced by people with illnesses within the society. People with mental illnesses frequently feel rejected and misunderstood by their environments. Consequently, they shut themselves and often times begin to withdraw from contacts. The social activity of people with mental illnesses depends on the type and stage of illness. People with illnesses mostly care about maintaining social relationships. However, in most cases those relationships are limited to their closest environments (i.e., family and closest friends). In case of some illnesses people who suffer from them face periods of higher or lower social activity. Subjects of the presented study evaluated interpersonal contacts higher in the situation of being in communal homes of mutual aid due to the fact that it is possible to meet specialists and other people with illnesses there.

The situation is slightly better for caretakers of people with mental illnesses. Those caretakers are usually satisfied with their social relationships. They strive to maintain contacts with others, even though it is often times difficult due to a multitude of obligations. Looking after a person with a mental illness translates in a certain way into the caretaker's social relationships. As a result, these people frequently feel alienated and misunderstood by their environments. They are ashamed of their situation and problems; sometimes they even withdraw from contacts and avoid them. It also happens that caretakers are isolated by their environments.

In order to increase the level of people with mental diseases and their caretakers' satisfaction with their social relationships, the following measures should be taken: increasing the access to healthcare, i.e. diagnostic and therapeutic support; support should be provided by people with proper qualifications and predispositions

the topic of mental illnesses and the living conditions of people who suffer from them should be addressed in widely available media (i.e., increasing the level of knowledge and awareness in the whole society as well as conveying information about aid available to people with mental illnesses;

holding integration meetings and special events that activate people with illnesses and their families, acquaintances and the local community; taking more community measures and establishing community treatment centers; establishing supervised apartments.

The described research has identified that the amount and range of sources and types of support that is offered to people with mental illnesses was evaluated positively by the vast majority of subjects representing all the researched groups. A problematic issue is the low accessibility of professional support, which stems from the mental health protection system being underfunded. This translates into lower effectivity of health promotion, diagnostics and treatment. The society also represents a very low level of knowledge regarding mental disorders. This hinders social and professional activation of people with illnesses. Another huge problem is the underinformation of caretakers of people with mental illnesses. These people hardly ever seek help. They usually possess very limited knowledge regarding possibilities to obtain help, nor do they usually report training needs. Thus, targetting educational and information activities at this group is essential as it would translate directly into the situation of people with illnesses.

An equally important task that needs to be carried out is increasing the society's awareness with regard to mental illnesses and people who suffer from them as well as their families. Taking actions of this kind enables increasing people's awareness of disease identification and, at the same time, the probability of early diagnosis and treatment onset, which, in turn, inhibits results of the illness. At the same time, informing the society and improving knowledge on mental illnesses allows changing attitudes towards people who suffer from them. This is an action that, in the long term, allows people with mental illnesses and their families to function in a fuller manner. It is especially important in the context of such people's treatment and social rehabilitation. People with mental illnesses often struggle with their problems for a long time, for some illnesses—even their whole lives. Through increasing the awareness of this type of illnesses it is possible to improve the situation of people who suffer from them (with respect to, e.g., labor market). Moreover, people's social environments play a crucial role in identifying mental illnesses. The increase in knowledge regarding illnesses' prevalence and symptoms is a crucial element of prevention, which may enable psychiatric intervention at a very early stage of the illness, and, thus, reduce its' results.

Standards and change directions in mental health protection and guidelines for helping people with mental disorders

Psychiatry and clinical psychology, as applied disciplines of mental health protection that are also concerned with specialist education of psychiatrists and clinical psychologists, need to accommodate the current general developmental goals for mental health protection in European Union countries. Improving psychologists' professional qualifications translates into increasing the quality of services provided to people with mental illnesses. The measures that can be taken by specialist psychiatrists or psychologists support the goals that are pursued in the environments of people with illnesses through non-institutional structures (i.e., non-governmental organizations or local influences in the environments of people with illnesses). The phenomenon of deinstitutionalization points to a necessity of including alternative (environmental) forms of help, along with institutional psychiatry, in the treatment of people with mental disorders.

One of the priorities of health policy towards people with illnesses (not only mental ones) is supporting their social inclusion (as opposed to exclusion). This translates into supporting economy that represents high levels of employment, which ensures social and territorial coherence. It is assumed that by 2020 the number of people facing social risks (i.e., poverty and social exclusion) will have decreased by 20 million, while the employment rate in the EU will have increased, reaching 75%. Poland has posited increasing the employment rate for people aged between 20 and 64 to a level of at least 71% and reducing the number of people at risk of poverty and social exclusion by 1.5 million. Meeting this challenge requires an all-encompassing, coordinated approach to protecting health, also the mental one. Interventions within the area of health

protection are key for reducing the risk of falling into poverty due to professional deactivation caused by loss of health and illnesses (Policy Paper for the protection of health for the period 2014-2020).

In 2014 the Agency for Health Technology Assessment and Tariff System began preparations for working on the valuation of the publicly funded health services. Valuation of psychiatric services was pronounced to be a priority action, obligatory to be taken in 2015. In July 2015 the Coordination Committee for Development Policy adopted the mentioned "National Strategic Framework: Policy Paper for the protection of health for the period 2014-2020". It was approved by the Ministry of Health on 8 July 2015. This document is aimed at fostering the implementation of strategic guidelines for programs co-financed from European Union funds. In its "Health 2020. A European policy framework and strategy for the 21st century", the WHO Regional Office for Europe points out that good health is essential for economic and social growth. The abovementioned documents point to a necessity to provide proper national strategic frameworks for carrying out the topic areas concerned with health protection.

Mental health protection is an important goal within health policy. The basic goals for mental health protection that were defined within the "Policy Paper for the protection of health for the period 2014-2020" (2015) are, namely:

- promoting mental health and preventing mental disorders (developing health prophylaxis, diagnostics and corrective medicine directed towards the main epidemiological problems in Poland; preventing mental disorders, namely: suicides, depression (formulating programs for preventing depression); increasing the social integration of people with mental disorders,
- ensuring all-encompassing and commonly accessible health care and other care and aid forms essential for people with mental disorders in order to function within a family and social environment,
- counteracting negative demographic trends through developing care for mothers, children and elderly people,
- improving the effectiveness and organization of the healthcare system in the context of a changing demographic and epidemiological situation, and providing support for scientific research, technological advances and innovations within healthcare,
- supporting the system of medical personnel education in the context of tailoring resources to changing social needs,
- developing scientific research and the information system on mental health.

The National Programme for the Protection of Mental Health for 2016-2020 also points to a necessity of pursuing the abovementioned goals.

Having analyzed the mentioned documents that confirm the necessity to promote mental health in the Polish population, mutual directions of seeking solutions for health policy can be identified. These areas are adumbrated below.

- (1) Relating the mental health protection oriented measures taken to local communities of a certain territorial level (i.e., region, city, borough, municipality etc.); acknowledging the importance of the manner of perceiving the tasks and obligations of psychiatry and clinical psychology that includes the environments of people with illnesses,
- (2) Introducing split responsibility through working in teams of differing professional competences and collaborating with various social ecology agents and social support networks,
- (3) Providing all-encompassing services and taking multidirectional measures (diverse methods, different people, various institutions); supporting the establishment of institutional models of professional behaviors that foster implementing the ideas of psychiatry in a so-called "friendly local community"; accommodating the need to educate people who shape public opinion and cultural values,
- (4) Relating the measures taken to the integrated model of solving health problems (i.e., multidirectional and multispecialist effort coordination that ensures continuity of psychiatric and psychological care for people with mental disorders),
- (5) Accommodating the promotion of education and popularization of good therapy and social rehabilitation tools in order to reduce the sense of professional helplessness and passiveness of people with mental illnesses and their environments.

Environmental ideas, systems and methods (including non-institutional ones that provide support for environmental psychiatry and the local community) have a lot in common with regard to carrying out a cohesive health policy towards people with diverse mental disorders. Caring for people who face crises or mental disorders is not solely a task of psychiatry or clinical psychology—it is a task of the whole community in which these people and their families function.

People who face various mental disorders that require medical and social (i.e., school, workplace or other community) interventions have mutual types of social (environmental) bonds. Those are, firstly, family bonds—these people are members of a primary support group. Secondly, bonds tie them with a given state (people with mental illnesses are citizens and members of a law-regulated community of local or supralocal interests.) Thirdly, people with illnesses are participants within a cultural community, i.e. a certain system of beliefs and meanings that denote shared views, behaviors and values (Wciórka, 2000).

Thus, carrying out health policy towards people with mental disorders would require including both therapeutic and social aspects of offering aid within mental health protection.

Summary

Pursuing the aims of health policy should involve the diversity of patients' social bonds. The National Programme for the Protection of Mental Health, the Act on Mental Health Protection and the "National Strategic Framework: Policy Paper for the protection of health for the period 2014-2020" accommodate mutual (similar) goals that implicate prognoses for improving healthcare for people with mental illnesses. As it is asserted in these documents, prophylaxis and healthcare in the upcoming years will form a system oriented towards a necessity to accommodate living longer in full health and respect the varying psychosocial needs of today's and future people (i.e., clients, patients). All investments in health policy and infrastructure ought to be made with regard to the diagnosed deficits. They should also provide support for improving the effectiveness of the whole health system. Thus, the diagnosis of the aid and social support system for people with mental disorders may constitute a vital element for improving the effectiveness of the health system for this group of people with illnesses.

Literature

Information on the implementation of actions stemming from the National Programme for the Protection of Mental Health in 2014. Ministry of Health, Warsaw, 2015.

National Strategic Framework: Policy Paper for the protection of health for the period 2014-2020. Warsaw, July 2015. Ministry of Health.

2008-2035 population projection for Poland, Central Statistical Office of Poland, Warsaw

2008, 3. http://stat.gov.pl/cps/rde/xbcr/gus/L_prognoza_ludnosci_PL_2008-2035.pdf.

Act on Mental Health Protection of 1994. Polish Journal of Laws 2016, item 546

Wciórka J. Psychiatria środowiskowa: idea, system, metoda i tło (Environmental psychiatry: The idea, system, method and background). *Postępy Psychiatrii i Neurologii*, 2000, 9, 319-337.

Sytuacja zdrowotna ludności Polski i jej uwarunkowania (The health situation of the Polish population and its determinants), editors: Bogdan Wojtyński, Paweł Goryński, Bożena Moskalewicz, National Institute of Public Health – National Institute of Hygiene, Warsaw, 2012.

The Program for Counteracting Selected Health Problems in the Mazovia Province and the Mazovian Program for Mental Health Protection.

Piotr Nowak-Skyrpan, Agnieszka Patrzałek, Tomasz Błacha, Ireneusz Lemański, Danuta Książek, Marek Siwecki, *Diagnosis of the social support system for people with mental disorders within services for helping and social integration in Mazovia*, Observatory of Social Integration.

Report for the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy for I-XII on the biannual and annual social benefits—in cash, in kind and in services, by Anna Kasperska.

Summary of the "Diagnosing the help and social support system for people with mental illnesses in the Mazovia Province" research project carried out by EU-CONSULT Sp. z o.o. as commissioned by the Mazovian Center for Social Welfare Policy. The project was co-financed from the resources of the Human Capital Operational Programme (as part of European Union's European Social Fund).

The Principle of Indemnity in Valued Marine Policies

Aboutaleb Bazvand

Ph.D. scholar, Law Department, Osmania University, India

Abstract

To consider people are encountering many perils that threat their health, life and property as such people interested to insure their belonging and get rid of risk and danger to live and work tranquility. As stated that marine insurance is the oldest branch of insurance and now days most of trade is by sea transportation and economic of countries are rely on export and import which are strongly depend on marine insurance, because the marine insurance plays an important role in the world and has high position. And how marine insurance includes the loss and which losses are not included considering one of the most important subjects for that person who wants to insure their life and property. The paper intends to give a wide-ranging account of the principal of indemnity in a marine insurance and analyses which losses are not included by a marine insurance contract. A policy of assurance has long held is not perfect contract of indemnity. This paper attempt is to examine this truism in the context of value policies.

Keywords: Marine insurance, Indemnity, Marine policy

Introduction

The fundamental principles of insurance law are a distinctive admixture of contract, law and practice. The base of marine insurance shows how the contract embodied in the policy of assurance is privileged and is advanced by the Marine Insurance Act 1906 and market practice. The parties to the policy, the assured and the insured, are given comparative freedom to case of the agreement to their particularity. Yet, this freedom is not without restriction and constrain. Compulsory rules of public policy have significant roles. These rules work for binding this freedom and bring a sense of homogeneity to what could if not be a many different kinds of contracts. In insurance practice conspicuous public policy concerns against take advantage of centered on the forbiddance of gaming and wagering, illegal adventure and cheating act prevent any policy arrangements which are regarded too illicit to be certified.

In a context which signally notifies that it is overseen by the concept of indemnity, public policy efforts are servants to this governance generating clashes with the independence of the parties to contract. The theorist and practitioner are and so demonstrated with different microcosms in which this battle between the contracting parties and public policy is functional in this article the conflict between the marine insurance law's broader concern of join to the concept of indemnity as rely on public policy and the freedom to contract assumed in the appreciated policies will be defined and studied. In the context of appreciated policies, where the parties reach agreement the indemnity to be paid between themselves faith often false is gratuity of their agreement on this matter. The law offers to support such agreements so long as they do not approach any of the public policy stimulant set forth above. Hence, the principle of indemnity takes a backseat in attribute of the parties' freedom of contract. Given the main concern in which the concept is regarded seemingly surprising. Yet, the law of marine insurance has a situation toward sensibility and in this meaning it is documented that the objective to strictly append to the indemnity principle is incongruous with the urgency of practice. The result has been that the assurance policy is regarded as an incomplete contract of indemnity (D Rose 783).

Marine insurance is an episode of insurance with a long history. The purpose of insurance is not just ship, cargoes and other ambulatory property on the sea, but also the freight, rate, commission, estimated interests and third party liabilities because of the maritime perils.

Marine insurance began early in Western countries, but its contents changed fast along with its appliance. The studies of marine insurance commonly concern its juristic perspective (Martine Remond-Gouilloud 2).

History of Marianne Insurance:

Marine Insurance is not a new concept. Its existence can be traced back to more than a few centuries. Demands concerning it have naturally been about to happen for many years and the law in relation to it had taken a definite form much prior to 1906 when the English Marine Insurance Act was passed with an observation to codify that law.

Opposing to general opinion, Lloyds' of London was not considered the first group of people to propose insurance for maritime commerce. The first kind of marine insurance goes back to the year 3000 BC when Chinese merchants send out their shipments amongst quite a lot of ships in order that to abridge the risk of damage to the products. The most basic account of insurance came in the form of "bottomry", a monetary payment that watch over merchants from dues if merchandise is lost or damaged.

Another form of initial insurance was the "general average". Throughout cargo shipments in 916 BC, a merchant would go along with his cargo to understand that it was not jettisoned, or voluntarily thrown overboard by the sailor in times of a storm or sink age. To protect against this mutual interest of safety and quarreling among merchants, the Rhodium's began the 'general average', which in theory signify that a person would be reimbursed throughout pro rata contributions of other merchants if their goods were jettisoned during shipment.

From the 11th century to 18th century, a few more breakthroughs happened in marine insurance. In 1132, the Danish began to reimburse those who practiced loss at sea. In 1255, 'insurance premiums' were practiced for the first time as the Merchant State of Venice coalesce these premiums to indemnify loss because of portray, spoilage, or pillage. The prime marine insurance policy was commenced in 1384 in an effort to include bales of fabric traveling to Savona from Pisa, Italy. Within the next century, merchants from Lombard started the first insurance operation in London. Finally, in 1688, Lloyd's of London, named after Edward Lloyd, initiated the risky business of insurance underwriting. From a Coffee house in London, it has currently grown to become the main marine insurance underwriters in the world (3).

Marine insurance:

Marine insurance include the loss or damage of ships, cargo, terminals, and any transport or cargo by which property is transported, obtain or held between the points of origin and ultimate objective. Cargo insurance —argued here is a subbranch of marine insurance, even though Marine also involves Onshore and Offshore exposed property, (container terminals, ports, oil platforms, pipelines), Hull, Marine Calamity, and Marine Liability, When post or nuncio transports goods, shipping insurance is practiced instead (Franklin 273-278).

Marine insurance contract:

A number of the law of marine insurance is in nature pure commentary of the contract included in the usual form of marine policy. The basic norm of a contract of insurance is that the indemnity recoverable from the insurer is the monetary loss suffered by the assured under the contract. Hence, as per the approval, a contract of marine insurance is a contract whereby the insurer pledges to indemnify the assured, in style and to a degree thus agreed, against marine losses, that is to say, the losses event to marine adventure (Cases and Materials on Marine Insurance Law By Susan Hodges).

A contract of marine insurance my, by its express terms, or by use of trade, be expanded so as to protect the assured against losses on inland waters or any land risk that may be accidental to any sea voyage. Where a ship in period of building, or the commissioning of a ship, or any adventure resembling a marine adventure, is included by a policy in the shape of a marine policy, the provisions of this Act, in so far as enforceable, shall apply thereto; but, except as by this section arranged, nothing in this Act shall moderate or influence any rule of law enforceable to any contract of insurance other than a contract of marine insurance as defined, by the Act (Cases and Materials on Marine Insurance Law By Susan Hodges).

The formal instrument incorporating the contract of marine insurance is called " the policy"; and " the slid" or "covering note", is the informal memo that is settle when the contract is got involved. The subject insured and the consideration for

the insurance are in that order identified as “the interest insured” and “the premium”. The one who is covered is “the assured” and the other party is called “the insurer” or “the underwriter” so called since he pledges or underwrites the policy.

“Loss” comprises damage or detriment along with actual loss of property gets up from maritime perils. “Maritime perils” indicates the perils consequent on, or incidental to, the avigation of the sea, that is, perils of the sea, fire, war perils, pirates, rovers, thieves, captures, usurpation, restraints, and detentions of princes and peoples, jettisons, barratry, and any other perils (War, Terror and Carriage by Sea By Keith Michel 105).

Marine insurance losses will be included as follow:

General average: Concerning on The law of General Average shows it is relevant to a legal principle of maritime law to all parties in a sea venture, relatively share any losses bring about a voluntary victim of part of the ship cargo to protect the whole in an emergency. The fundamental principles of General Average is that a party who has suffered some huge expenses or loss to save property belonging to others has the right of compensation for its loss from all parties to the voyage who have profited from it.

Marine Insurance Considerations:

Total Loss

Within marine insurance a total loss can take one of two forms, either actual total loss or constructive total loss. In both situations the subject matter insured is regarded completely lost to the assured and over that loss the assured is authorized to the full-agreed value under the policy. As indicated the agreed value in the policy is representative of the insurable value of the subject matter under the policy. It is this to which the assured is authorized in face of a total loss regardless of whether the policy is valued or unvalued. The conclusiveness of the agreed value in this situation estops the assured or insurer from disputing ([Jonathan Gilman](#), [Robert Merkin](#), [Claire Blanchard](#), [Mark Templeman](#)) said value. So long as the value agreed has been paid to the assured in this condition it cannot be denied that a full indemnity has been given under the policy (Gilman, John, Robert Merkin and Claire Blanchard)

Particular Loss

Marine insurance supply under which damages or expenditure incurred by a shipper (whose cargo is uncovered to a danger) are borne by that shipper only. Such damages or expenditures happen by direct hurt to the ship and/or cargo, or in a course of action to avoid primary or further hurt to them. Specific average, like general-average is independent of the insurance cover bought for the cargo. In its place, it gets up out of the contract between the cargo-owner and the ship-owner. Nowadays, greatly is substituted by the linked institute cargo clause.

Particular average loss

A specific average loss is a partial loss of the subject-matter insured, led by a risk insured against, and which is not a general average loss.

Expenses incurred by or on regard of the assured for the safety or protection of the subject-matter insured, other than general average and recue charges, are called certain charges. Specific charges are not involved in specific average ([Francis Rose](#) 345).

Actual total loss

Actual total Loss is clarified in section 57(1) of the Marine Insurance Act 1906. This provides: Where the subject-matter insured is demolished, or so damaged as to stop to be a thing of the type insured, or where the assured is irretrievably divested thereof, there is an actual total loss. Templeman on Marine Insurance (Lambent 1986) arranges for different examples, involving destruction by fire, sinking in a storm by sea, and sinking in deep water after a collision. With continuous developments in technology, it turn out to be ever more problematic to state with certainty that, in the lack of complete and absolute destruction, a subject-matter does indeed constitute an actual total loss; it has turned into more problematic to distinguish between an actual and a constructive total loss in cases where the subject-matter is demolished but there is a technical risk of rebuilding. The example of irretrievable privation is almost certainly even more problematic. Templeman

(Lambent 1986) states that: “irretrievable deprivation involves capture or usurpation, and connote that although the subject-matter insured may be actually in existence, the assured will never again recapture possession of it: for example, capture by enemy in time of war and condemnation as lawful reward.” The Court of Appeal in the recent case of *Masefield AG v Amylin Corporate Member* asked whether a loss by piracy could lead to an actual total loss (Gotthard Gauci 118)

Constructive total losses: is The introduction to the Marine Insurance Act 1906 gives that the objective of the legislators was to codify the law with regard to marine insurance, and in Section 60 designate a constructive total loss in the following words: (1) Depending on any express provision in the policy, there is a constructive total loss where the subject-matter insured wisely abandoned due to its actual total loss rising to be expected, or since it could not 22 See *Masefield (John Dunt 566)* total losses and risk of piracy in English marine insurance 119 be immune from actual total loss without an expenditure, which would transcend its value when the expenses had been incurred. (2) Specifically, there is a constructive total loss – (i) Where the assured is divested of the possession of his ship or goods by a peril insured against, and (a) it is unseemly that he can recover the ship or goods, as the case may be, or (b) the charge of recovering the ship or goods, as the case may be, would transcend their value when recovered; or (ii) In the case of damage to a ship, where ship is so damaged by a peril insured against, that the charge of repairing the damage would transcend the value of the ship when repair. In calculating the cost of repairs, no fraction is to be made regarding general average share to those repairs payable by other revenues, but account is to be taken of the expenditure of future rescue operations and of any future general average contributions to whom the ship would be pledge if remade; or (iii) concerning damage to goods, where the expense of repairing the damage and transportation of the goods to their endpoint would trespass their value on arrival. Details about the process for claiming a constructive total loss, specially the general obligation of providing a announcement of quit, are given in section 62 of the Marine Insurance Act 1906.²⁷ It is sturdily arguable that the section 60(2)(1)(a) regard to dissonance of recovery [within a reasonable time] does not sit comfortably with the situation of reasonable quit due to an actual total loss appearing to be inevitable. Yet, this view can be avoided by giving the term “unavoidable” an expansive commentary (G Gauci)

In case of total loss of actual loss and constructive loss of the entire sum insured or the insurer is obliged to pay the price completely.

Before talking about F.P.I and W.A that it has to be indicated very significant issue that when insured practice each condition, insurance coverage is not restricted to loss in the marine insurance agreement but insured and insurer by former agreement or placed in the particular conditions of the insurance police, are able to meet their obligation to adjust (lessen, or enhance) them.

Free particular average (F P I)

Marine insurance provision which restricts the liability of an insurance company to only those losses that transcend a designated percentage of the value of the goods. It is similar to the deductible clause involved in other types of insurance, but is not valid where a cover for total loss is in force. FPA conditions are applied where the goods are exceedingly subject to damage, or are rendered in effect worthless from exposure to water or heat (David, P., Stewart)

FPA conditions loss coverage

Harsh weather, lightning, barratry of the mariners or masters, assailing thieves	Cover only for total loss
Stranding, burning, sinking, collision, fire while on deck	Covered
Stranding, burning, collision while under deck	Covered
Explosion or fire	Covered
Stranding, sinking or burning of the ship or the craft	Covered
Collision or crash of a land or air conveyance	Covered
Collision or a marine conveyance with any external object like ice-berg other than water	Covered

Free of particular average (FPA) indicates a marine insurance term meaning that the assurer will not permit payment for partial loss or damage to cargo shipments except in certain position, such as stranding, sinking, collision or fire (Thomas A. Cook 310).

There are two different types of Total Loss defined in the Marine Insurance 1906 Act (16) while it includes only partial losses in some situation. The central issue is whether the policy is a Free of Particular Average—English Conditions policy or a Free of Particular Average—American Conditions policy. Under an American Conditions policy, partial losses are included only if they out come directly from a fire, a stranding, a sinking, or a collision. Under an English Conditions policy, the partial losses are included if they occur on the same voyage that a fire, a stranding, a sinking, or a collision happens, without this risk having directly led to the loss (International logistics152).

Damage insurance outside of the commitment of the insurance policy (F PA)

In the FPA insurance some damages are outside and exception of insurance contract such as: particular damages

Deduct or lack of handovers from one pallet, boxes, packages, damage led to the delay in the shipment insurance even though insurance might be postponed because of a risk that is stated in insurance contract, inherent defect goods, for instance compactness weight fraction damages the event of normal ordinary, damages caused by the action of vermin such as mice, insects and damages that overtly are due of war, strikes, riots and civil strife have caused.

With Average or WA coverage:

This policy plays a role of an extension of the FPA to include the damages happened by harsh weather. Eventually in a number of cases the FPA and WA may be expanded to include non-delivery, theft and pilferage.

Comparisons:

LOSSES	FPA	WA	ALL-RISK
Sinking	Covered	Covered	Covered
Stranding	Covered	Covered	Covered
Collision	Covered	Covered	Covered
Burning	Covered	Covered	Covered
Bursting of boilers	Covered	Covered	Covered
Vessel Management Errors	Covered	Covered	Covered
Defects machinery or hull	Covered	Covered	Covered
Jettison	Covered	Covered	Covered
Perils or harsh weather	Covered	Covered	Covered
Seawater	Covered	Covered	Covered
Fresh water	Uncovered	Uncovered	Covered
Mud, grease or hook damage	Uncovered	Uncovered	Covered
Fault storage by the carrier	Uncovered	Uncovered	Covered
Non-delivery of the entire package	Uncovered	Uncovered	Covered
If the entire consignment is stolen	Uncovered	Uncovered	Covered

Leakage	Uncovered	Uncovered	Covered
Pilferage	Uncovered	Uncovered	Covered
Breakage	Uncovered	Uncovered	Covered

* Only total losses and not partial losses -*Certain deprivation and alterations may happen in coverage polices depending upon the nature of the shipment.*

Freight

Freight insurance is a policy that looks after the policyholder from the loss of goods all through shipment. It is also identified as cargo insurance. Freight insurance preserves the owner or consignor of goods for feasible physical loss or damage from outside factors within shipping. The insurer would repay the policyholder for the value of the goods if they incur damage or demolish while in the hands of the shipper. It is often available from the shipping company itself, or it may be bargained from a third party insurer too.

Goods

Under the MIA 1906, partial loss of goods is regulated by section 71. As is the case regarding freight, the indemnity payable to the guaranteed is also dividing respecting to the agreed value. Under the section 71 a modification is made between goods which are to some extent lost due to part of a whole shipment being totally lost or due to apart or the whole of the goods being damaged but not a total loss. Where on earth a part of the goods turns into a total loss, the measure of compensation under a valued policy is identified by taking the insurable value of the part of the goods lost agreed against the insurable value of the whole of the goods. This sum is then contrasted to the agreed value put in the policy and a right proportion of the agreed value turns into the indemnity payable to the assured. Concerning a partial loss incurred by damage to a part or whole of the goods the measure of compensation is worked out by taking a proportion of the agreed value that is harmonious corresponds with sum of the damaged value of the goods decreased from the gross value the goods would have possessed in their undamaged state.

It was held that the assured in such a situation would be legal to the devaluation in value of the ship caused by the damaged incurred. Moreover, in comparison to section 75 of the MIA the assured in this case is not to be legal indemnified beyond the expected charges of repairing the ship. As to be observed with the exclusion of the first condition, the measure of indemnity concerning partial loss of a vessel is estimated in order to the amortization in value of the ship considering the degree of repairs pledged. Depreciation in the context marine insurance is identified by reducing the damaged value of the ship from the sound value of the ship as these figures stood at the end of the risk.

Protection and indemnity insurance, more commonly documented as "P&I" insurance, does a P&I Club give a form of mutual marine insurance (P Anderson).

While a [marine insurance](#) company provides "hull and machinery" include for vessel owners, and cargo include for cargo owners, a P&I Club provides cover for open-ended hazard that traditional insurers are unwilling to insure. Typical P&I cover holds: a carrier's third-party risks for damage lead to cargo during carriage; (John Dunt) war risks; (Michael D Miller) and danger of environmental damage like oil spills and pollution. In the UK, both traditional insurer and P&I clubs are depending on the [Marine Insurance Act 1906](#).

A P&I Club is a [mutual insurance](#) association that provides [risk pooling](#), information and depiction for its members. Contrasting a marine insurance company, which presented to its stockholder, a P&I club reports only to its members. At first, P&I Club members were typically [vessel-owners](#), [ship-operators](#) or [demise charterers](#), but more in recent times bar forwarders and tank operators have been able to unite.

Whiles the assured pays a premium to an insurer for cover, which takes a particular time (say, a year, or a voyage), a P&I Club member instead pays a "call". This is an amount of money that is put into the Club's [pool](#), a type of "kitty". If, at the end of the year, there are still capitals in the pool, each member will pay a decreased call the following year; but if the Club has made a major payout (say, after an oil spillage) club members will at once have to pay a further call to refill the pool.

These Clubs collaborate to give funds in the event of huge claims using a complex system to indicate liability.

War risk insurance is a kind of [insurance](#), which includes damage because of acts of [war](#), that containing [invasion](#), insurgency, revolt and snatch. Some policies also include damage because of weapons. It is most commonly practiced in the [shipping](#) and [aviation](#) industries. War risk insurance generally has two ingredients: War Risk Liability, which includes people and items inside the craft and is computed rely on the indemnity amount; and War Risk Hull, which includes the craft itself and is computed based on the value of the craft. The premium differs rely on the expected stability of the countries to which the ship will travel.

Private war risk insurance policies for aircraft were in the short term made void following the attacks and later reinstated with substantially lower compensations. Following this cancellation, the US federal government starts a terror insurance plan to include commercial airlines. The [International Air Transport Association](#) has claimed that airlines operating in states that do not arranged for war risk insurance are at a competitive disadvantage in this ground.

Breaking Down 'War Risk Insurance

War risk insurance marks the furthestmost sense for entities that are mostly depending on the risk of abrupt and violent political changes. For instance, companies operational in politically fickle parts of the world are opened to a high risk of loss from acts of war. War risk insurance can include perils like kidnapping and ransom, emergency discharge, worker hurt, long-term disability and loss or damage of property and cargo. Some war insurance policies also include acts of terrorism, but others consider terrorism and war to be two separate categories of danger.

The insurance does not include:

(A) Insolvency

(B) Perils included by the RACE II clause which are as following:

Ionizing radiations from or contamination with radioactivity from any nuclear fuel or from any nuclear waste or from the combustion of nuclear fuel,

The radioactive, toxic, explosive or other hazardous or contaminating properties of every nuclear installation, reactor or other nuclear assembly or nuclear component thereof,

Every weapon or device employing atomic or nuclear fission and/or fusion or other same as reaction or radioactive force or matter,

The radioactive, toxic, explosive or other hazardous or contaminating properties of any radioactive matter,

Every chemical, biological, bio-chemical, or electromagnetic weapon.

Conclusion

The purpose of marine insurance has been to empower the ship owner and the buyer and seller of goods to drive their individual business while get rid of themselves, at least partly, of the burdensome financial consequences of their property's being lost or damaged due to the various risks of the high seas. Hence, in other words, marine insurance enhances the essential element of financial security so that the risk of an accident occurring during the transport is not an inhibiting issue in the conduct of international trade. The significance of marine insurance, both to assureds, regarding the security it provides and its cost component in the general economics of running a ship or transporting goods, and to countries, mostly developing countries, in its effect on their balance of payments position, cannot be overstated.

The role of providing compensation regards in civil rights issues, mostly remarkable collision of ships. And this instrument comes true in two faces of companies and marine insurance institute and association of protect and compensate.

Insurance business in a certain sense, through insurance companies will be realized. Generally, marine insurance the insurance holder ship (hull and machinery) product insurance, freight and insurance Civil Liability Insurance of ship collisions. Insurance has a dual nature:

In the other hand is insurance compensation so include the loss of ship including actual or constructive total loss or partial loss. Besides, save charges and share of joint damage goods are included .suitable for the provisions rental insurance and how to compute and pay the fee, owner or tenant of ship has substantial benefit insurance and can insure the damage because of waste with the loss of freight insurance

In the compensation insurance, when insurer paid the loss amount to insured insurer will be deputy of insured to repaying back the amount of money that insurer paid. At the present time, the protect and compensation association which is composed of member ship owners and marine law known as mutual insurance institution action which is arranged for insurance cover a diversity of compensation and their responsibilities. For instance, the remaining amount of civil liability that is getting up from accident and not comprised by insurance company will be included by this association.

References

- Allianz Global Corporate & Specialty AG, Fritz-Schaeffer-Strasse 9. (2013) General Average and salvage charges, Germany
- David, P., Stewart, R. International Logistics: The Management of International Trade Operations - Thomson: Mason, Ohio. 2007 Ch.10-8f - 11/26/2012
- Development of laws relating to marine insurance in India Prashanti Upadhyay
- English Marine Insurance Act 1906 An Act to codify the Law relating to Marine Insurance [21st December 1906]
- Francis D. Rose, Gerard Mc Meel, Stephen Watterson. Marine Insurance: Law and Practice.
- Indian Marine Insurance Act, 1963, Section 2(e) (= Section 3(2), English Act of 1906); Thames v. Hamilton, (1887) 12 App. CAs. 484, 498 H.L. (per Lord Herschel).
- Insurance law and practice. (2007). C.I.TYAGI MADHU TYAGI, New Delhi-110002.
- J. Franklin. The Science of Conjecture: Evidence and Probability Before Pascal .Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.2001.
- Jonathan Gilman, Robert Merkin, Claire Blanchard, Mark Templeman. (2013) Arnould's Law of Marine Insurance and Average 18 th ed.UK, Sweet & Maxwell Ltd
- LLP, Law2004. Print.
- Marine Cargo Insurance - John Dunt - - Informa - 2009
- Marine War Risks - Michael D Miller - - Lloyds - 1994
- Martine Remond-Gouilloud Insurance, Liability and Compensation, Marine Policy. 1990. Print.
- Partial Losses (Including Salvage and General Average and Particular Charges) Lloyd's Rep. 338. (See Glossary of Shipping Terms, Maritime Administration, Washington, DC, 2008 - www.marad.dot.gov/documents/Glossary_final.pdf A FPA policy covers total losses
- Rhidian Thomas, "The concept and measure of indemnity in marine insurance policies", The Mordern Law of Marine Insurance. Vol. 3. <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/particular-average.html#ixzz4AEJJ4wvG>
- The Mariner's Guide to Marine Insurance - P Anderson - 1999 - Nautical Institute - ISBN 1870077539

Nietzsche's Approach on History and The Great Gatsby's Historiographical Performance

PhD. Cand. Deniz Gürgen

Bahçeşehir University,

Abstract

For Nietzsche, history creates the dull illusion of past. The constructed nature of the historiography that narrates the past through the perspective of the present drains the vital energy of the past and transforms it into a carcass. For the cure, Nietzsche suggests incorporating the artistic approach into the practice of historiography. He explains that art has the opposite effect of history in terms of vitality. In his consideration, if history transforms into a pure piece of art than it would involve and be able to transmit the vital energy of past. The artistic approach to historiography would recreate the sensation of the past hence the representation would sustain the vital energy. Nietzsche's suggestion towards the artistic execution of historiography provides a fruitful field to discuss the historiographical performance of the diegetic historical film. Baz Luhrmann's *The Great Gatsby's* (2013) will be analyzed through in the presentation with such perspective.

Keywords: Nietzsche's Approach on History and The Great Gatsby's Historiographical Performance

The Great Gatsby directed by Baz Luhrman in 2013, narrates Jay Gatsby's story that takes place in 1920's New York. The film represents the period of time through its cinematography and artistic design. Through this perspective the historical representation practiced in Luhrman's *Great Gatsby* could be discussed in the field of historiography.

In order to further my study on the historiography of *The Great Gatsby* first I will effort to interpret the ideas of Friedrich Nietzsche in *On the Use and Abuse of History* (2010) (The book is first published in 1873). After I will analyze the historiographical performance of the film.

In *On the Use and Abuse of History*, Nietzsche addresses the meaning of history and its necessity for life. According to him, the knowledge of past would be a reverding tool to generate prospects for the future activities and interpreting the present when approached with a hint of critical distance. In his words "History is necessary to the living man in three ways: in relation to his action and struggle, his conservatism and reverence, his suffer and his desire for deliverance" (Nietzsche, 2010; 5).

For these necessary utilities of history he signifies a distinguishing terminology as the monumental, the antiquarian and the critical history (ibid). The history in its monumental utilization refers to the knowledge of the past in use to set an example in front of mankind (ibid). When the guidance of some kind of wisdom is demanded and wouldn't be spotted among the contemporaries, the cognition of past would be useful as a monument to interpret the present. Nietzsche attributes the antiquarian cognition of history the approach to perceive the past, present and future as a coherent whole (ibid, 7). In this cognition, the knowledge of the past signifies the progress of mankind. History functions as a bridge between past, present and future highlighting the continuous progress in each of them.

On the other hand acknowledging the history as a fixed bulk of knowledge towards a past event accomodates the risk of restricting the perspective of oneself. In his expression this excessive appreciation and dependence to history would weaken the personality and destroys the vitality of the present. A critical perspective towards history would be the shield to prevent the man from the encapsulation of the discources that mould in history (ibid, 8). He signifies that looking at the knowledge of the past in a critical way would dismantle the constitution by putting a knife to its roots to reveal the components. The unhistorical perception that would be formed through the critical perspective for Nietzsche would best be

balanced with the super-historical understanding to constitute the dynamic relation towards the knowledge of the past (ibid, 29).

In his critical approach, Nietzsche discusses the key concepts of objectivity, narration and the historiographer's perspective in the practice of historiography. I will effort to explain Nietzsche's critical approach to history by interpreting them with E. H. Carr's ideas on historiography in his book *What is History?* (1990).

Nietzsche acknowledges the practice of historiography as the artistic composition of the past events (ibid, 15). Signifying the narration as the fundamental component of the historiography, he asserts that the history is the work of the dramatist that links the events in causality to form the coherent presentation of the past. The practice of historiography inevitably incorporates narration in order to express the knowledge of the past. Information or an idea as an abstract form cannot exist as pure substance and moreover transferred to the minds of others. The communication whether in verbal or written modes occurs through the expression of the sentiment of the idea. This depends on the selection and placement of the words and of course, on the utterance. Narration would then be defined as the process of selecting, ordering and accentuating the words in an order to transfer the meaning. Next thing about narration in historiography would be the attribution of causality in the order of events. Carr mentions that historians constantly endeavor to arrange the past experiences of human by attaching the cause-and-effect relationship to them (1990, p.88). Based on this idea, Carr defines history as a constitution composed of organizing the incidents of the past in an order that involves cause-and-effect relationship.

The practice of organizing the past through cause and effect relationship would inevitably involve the exclusion of some historical data that would become irrelevant in the narration. In the practice of historiography, Carr underlines the rejection of irrelevant data about past when composing a logical and rational historical document (ibid, 147). For Nietzsche this practice of selection corresponds to the annihilation of the vitality of the past (2010, 17). The judgment of the historiographer on which historical event to include and exclude damages the atmosphere of the past as a once dynamic field. Therefore any historiographical attempt would fail to express the whole meaning of the past even it is practiced with a pure heart. On the other hand, for Nietzsche any historiographical attempt that would struggle to avoid narration in terms selecting and marshaling the events in an order would loose its creative instinct to represent the past event. Consequently, history shall be understood as a narrative that is constructed through the perspective of the historiographer. Accordingly Nietzsche addresses his critical approach to the objectivity of the historiographer.

Nietzsche considers the conception of objectivity in historiography fundamentally problematic due to the process that flows from the present towards the past (ibid, 14). In the process of the formation of a historical document, the event belongs to the period of time it occurred but the action of documenting is practiced at present. Therefore, the cognition and interpretation of that previous event is inevitably done through the eyes of the present. Carr explains the notion of the contemporary formation of history asserting that the past can only be viewed and comprehended through the eyes of the present (1990, 24). The eyes of the present refer to a cognition that is shaped through the tendencies of the present society. The perspective of the historiographer cannot be evaluated free from the society the historiographer belongs to. The social tendencies of the society would inevitably shape the cognition of the historiographer towards the past event. Carr claims that in order to understand the work of the historian, the place s/he stands and the root of that standpoint within the social environmental circumstances should be analyzed (ibid, 40). Therefore a historical fact could not be acknowledged as an objective and autonomous entity free from the interpretation of the historian and the interpretation of the historian is bond to the tendencies of her/his society.

For Nietzsche, history creates the dull illusion of past (2010, 17). The constructed nature of the historiography that narrates the past through the perspective of the present drains the vital energy of the past and transforms it into a carcass. For the cure, Nietzsche suggests incorporating the artistic approach into the practice of historiography. He explains that art has the opposite effect of history in terms of vitality. In his consideration, if history transforms into a pure piece of art than it would

involve and be able to transmit the vital energy of past. The artistic approach to historiography would recreate the sensation of the past hence the representation would sustain the vital energy.

In my perspective, Nietzsche's suggestion towards the artistic execution of historiography provides a fruitful field to discuss the historiographical performance of the diegetic historical film. In the rest of the paper I will effort to explain the historiographical performance of the diegetic film in order to analyze *The Great Gatsby's* (2013) historiography towards the 1920's. The explanation towards the historiographical performance of the diegetic film grounds on the studies I practiced on the field for my MA thesis.

The historical representation in historical films would be included in historiography once the historiography is acknowledged as a constructed practice of historical representation. As I have discussed above, the historiographical practice is based on the selection and marshaling of historical facts towards the intended narration. Through this perspective the filmic representation of history would fit in the field of historiography. However I find it useful to place the separation between the diegetic and non-diegetic practices grounding on the sensual experience the diegetic practices transmit.

As Hayden White suggested in *Metahistory* (1975), historiography is a narration that performs the representation of the past and if so, it may not be appropriate to limit the historiographical performance to written practices. In this respect, historiography comes to include other mediums that perform historical representation. Around this climate of comprehensiveness towards other mediums to perform historical representation, I distinguish the forms of the practice as diegetic and non-diegetic historical representations. I locate the distinctive point between the diegetic and non-diegetic representations of historiography, rather than to the medium referring to written or filmic practices. All historiographical practices are composed of narration and they include historical facts in their historical representations. However, the diegetic representation of history generates a sense similar to experience over the historical event the narration represents.

The diegesis in a narration is the sphere where all the events occur, it is the genuine world design generated for that narration. The diegesis possesses its own rational consistency within itself in means of building a sphere of actuality that the events occur according to the causality within the rules of diegetic gravity. The rational consistency of the events in the narration is bond to the diegetic gravity hence the plot is legitimized in its own space of actuality independent from the restrictions of reality.

The process of making sense out of a diegetic film is in the experiencing of it rather than in the watching. Film medium is acknowledged as a conductive device that transmits the discourse to the spectator by the Apparatus Theory grounding on the sensation it generates on the field of experience. The closural continuous narration, the identification and the inner coherence of the narration are the main elements of diegetic narration in film. Through these structures, the spectator attaches to the narration. The film makes sense through the attachment established with the inner structures of diegesis. The diegesis operates via its own gravitational rules and the comprehension depends on the acceptance of these rules. Therefore, the act of comprehending a film demands the shift in the base of plausibility according to the inner coherence of the diegesis.

When a historical event is represented through a diegetic structure, that event transports to an area that is free from the laws of historical accuracy. In spite of the fictive representation of the historical event, the plot establishes on the historical conscious via the comprehension of the historical event through the sense of experience. Consequently the sense of experience that diegetic practices locate their process of comprehension differentiates the effect of diegetic practices of historiography from the rest. Diegetic historical films operate on the field of experience through the identification they form between the spectator and the narration.

The diegetic historical films reproduce the experience of the past and thus the audience experiences the sensuality of the past in the present. In *Persistence of History* Vivian Sobchack asserts that experiencing the past in the present through the diegetic historiographical practices transforms history into a phenomenon that happens at present (1996, 7). For Sobchack the historiographical performance of the diegetic practices abolishes the temporal space between the present and past by

the sensual experience they transmit. This occasion creates a blur in the cognition of history by dragging the meaning to the field of simultaneity. In her expression "Today history seems to happen right now – is transmitted, reflected upon, shown play-by-play, taken up as the stuff of multiple stories and significance, given all sorts of 'coverage' in the temporal dimension of the present as we live it" (Sobchack, 1996; 5). The sense of experience generated for an historical event through the historiographical performance of the diegetic film transforms the perception of history to a sensation of the present. The conception of history mutates into a conception that is produced and described from the present, therefore the whole temporal sensation dims in a broad sense.

Through the discussions I tried to express about the historiography of the diegetic film, the historical representations practiced in Baz Luhrmann's *Great Gatsby's* could be acknowledge as a historiographical performance. Produced in 2013, the film is an adaptation from the novel with the same name written by F. Scott Fitzgerald in 1925. The novel narrates a story that takes place at 1922, which is almost the same time period it is published. Luhrmann's filmic adaptation that is coherent with the novel on the other hand is practiced in 2013. The time difference between the creation of the original story and its filmic adaptation generates the necessary practice of historical representation at the first place.

The Great Gatsby narrates the dramatic love story of Jay Gatsby who is a rich young entrepreneur living in New York City in 1922. Accordingly the film performs the historical representation of New York City in 1920's as an urban space. As it is introduced in the opening sequence of the film, it is the time, which Wall Street reaches to the pick levels dazzling the society with the sparkling opportunities of the stock market. The crowded streets of the city darkened through the shade of the skyscrapers represented in the film with Luhrmann's vivid cinematography and editing style. Another exquisite historical representation practiced by the film would be the portrayal of the entertainment culture of the period. The governmental banning on the alcohol production and distribution that forms the social practices of entertainment reflects on the representation of the public spaces as hidden clubs. The hedonistic lifestyle of the bourgeois society represented in the film through the various party sequences in detail.

In order to perform a more detailed study on the historiographical performance of the film I will focus on the sequence, which Gatsby and Nick goes for a lunch in the city. The sequence opens with the scene where Gatsby takes spins around Nick's house to invite him to a tour to the city with his brand new car. The art direction in broad could be acknowledged as the most powerful tool of filmic practice of historiography, which recreates the vital atmosphere of the past. The design towards the interior of the house from the plates that tremble with the vibration of the car engine to the architecture of the exterior express the 20's visually along with costume and props. Their road trip describes the urban settlement of the period signifying the texture of the roads and the road signs along with many more. The establishing shot of the road that reaches to the city with Gatsby's car on it through a bird's eye angle exhibits the gross crevasse between the residential and the industrial areas of the city. In this shot the medium specific visual narration gains prominence once again in terms of the representation of urban space. In the diegetic sphere of the film, we experience the sight of New York City as it was in 1920's through an extreme long shot. As the camera travels down to the level of the car, it introduces the audience to the chaotic settlement of the streets with the upper railroads where the trains pass by. Gatsby and Nick enter the local where they have lunch together from a barbershop. The entrance of the local is masked with a barbershop due to the alcohol ban practiced in the period. This portrayal is as an attempt towards the socio-political representation of the period. The wide shot of the local exhibits a dark crowded club covered with smoke from the cigarettes where the sweaty dancers perform a swing routine on the stage dressed in the stage fashion of the period. There they came across with the commissioner of the city dancing on a table with a few women who are just as tipsy as his. The corruption of that period that wraps around the city from the trade activities to the politics is represented in Nick and Gatsby's local scene.

Nietzsche's suggestion of practicing historiography with an artistic approach in order to maintain the vital energy of past seems to fit in place considering the film's medium specific audio-visual capacities for historical representation. The *Great Gatsby's* filmic representation reproduces the atmosphere of 1920's in the most possible alive way. The historiographical performance of the film transmits the sensual experience of the period through the attachment bound with the diegesis.

Nevertheless Sobchack's criticism on the diegetic representation that diminishes the temporal space sustains its validity. Through the diegetic historiography of the film, the audience experiences the sensuality of 1920's in the present that pastes the perception of the past into the field of the present smashing the temporal cognition.

On the other hand, I propose that the choice of songs in the soundtrack of *The Great Gatsby* may function as a distractive element to prevent the abolishment of the temporal space. The director Baz Luhrmann who also produces the soundtrack selects and brings together some of the most popular recent artists and their songs to compose the musical scores of the film. The songs in *The Great Gatsby* have an important role to express meaning as we often came across in Luhrmann's cinema (*Strictly Ballroom* (1992), *Romeo & Juliet* (1996), *Moulin Rouge* (2001)). Jay Z, Beyonce, Fergie, Lana Del Rey and Jack White perform the original songs in *The Great Gatsby* along with some other popular names. One of the leading songs in the soundtrack is the cover of Amy Winehouse's *Back to Black* by Beyonce. Some of the songs are established in the film in its original composition while some others re-orchestrated to incorporate jazz or swing rhythms of the era.

I grasp a distraction in the transmission of the sensual experience of the period represented in the film constituted through the unquestionable recency of the popular songs. The utilization of the recent popular songs cracks the consistent structure of the diegesis that performs the historical representation. Through the distraction, the bond with the diegesis fractures along with the transmission of the sensual experience towards the past event. In my perception, the recent soundtrack could re-establish the temporal distance that dissolves during the sensual experience of the past in the present. In other words, the distractive effect of the soundtrack in *The Greta Gatsby* may pose a function to reveal the constructed nature of the historiography practiced in the film.

Bibliography

Nietzsche's Approach on History and The Great Gatsby's Historiographical Performance

Nietzsche, Friedrich Wilhelm. *The Use and Abuse of History*. New York: Cosimo Classics, 2010.

Carr, E. H. *What is History*. London: Penguin Books, 1990.

Sobchack, Vivian. *Persistence of History*. New York: Routledge, 1996.

White, Hayden. *Metahistory*. uk: JHU Press, 1975.

The Great Gatsby. Directed by Baz Luhrmann. Original Novel by Fitzgerald Scott F. 2013.

Fitzgerald, F. Scott. *The Great Gatsby*. London: Wordsworth Classics, 2001.

Building Representative Institutions in a Post-socialist Country. Electoral Reforms in Albania

PhD.C Juliana Marko

History and Philology Faculty, University of Tirana

Abstract

From the first pluralistic electoral legislation to date Albania has made a considerable number of alterations in its election rules. The country reformed its electoral code 16 times since the downfall of communism in 1990. These changes have gone from constitutional reviews to bipartisan political agreements, but even today there persists a climate of doubt and dissatisfaction with the electoral operation. Albania still struggles with holding free and fair representation through a widely accepted democratic standard. The atmosphere of mutual distrust still characterizes the relations between political parties. This paper intends to offer a relative evaluation of two of the great Albanian electoral frameworks. The first and more important political choice in this change has affected the electoral formula, but there have been raised even more important questions about territorial and democratic representation, fairness of application of such framework in sensitive cases including media access, campaign financing, results publishing, etc. This topic becomes more interesting because of the multiple correlations between its subjects and dynamics, as the only fixed notion to date remains that the way we apply the law will be more important than its formal drafting and approval.

Keywords: *democratic transition, party system, electoral reform, electoral code, international observers.*

Foreword

During the consolidation process within new democracies, often emerge a number of challenges which primarily consist in the urge for the new regime to distance itself from the undemocratic procedures of the past, as well as the need to avoid their reappearance in new forms. This transition toward a new order is often unstable as it continues to be characterized by the relation between authority and subjects (instead of citizens).

A democratic transition is considered fulfilled when there is overall agreement on the political procedures in constituting a new elected government, when the government comes to power as a direct result of the free and fair vote of the people, when this government has the de facto authority to produce new policies and when the executive, legislative and judiciary branches of government generated do not share their power with other organizations or individuals. The liberalization process may provide a series of social and political changes such as a declining censorship in the media, a space for independent organizations, introduction of any legal guarantees for individuals, a return to the freedom of a part of political prisoners and, most importantly, the tolerance of political opposition activity. Liberalization is a precondition to democratization, which in turn is a much broader and peculiar political concept. The democratization process requires holding free and competitive elections on the basis to determine who has the right to govern (Linz J., Stepan A., p. 3).

The role played by political leaders and the culture of political elites; The most valuable characteristics would be a supportive position toward democracy and the democratic Constitution as well as undertaking legal practices in any democratic decision making, avoiding any demagogic political behavior, any manipulation of the constitution as well as any other behavior which would lead to the loss of trust and support for laws and democratic norms (Simeon R., Turgeon L., p. 81).

There have been continuous discussions in academia regarding what systems features are more contributory to the democratic governing. In the contemporary literature the following conclusions are broadly agreed; firstly, the role of the political parties is critical in the establishment and consolidation of the democracy, and secondly, the institutionalization of political parties as well as of the party system is increasingly becoming more important (Markowski, 2000) (Sartori, 1976)

(Ware, 1996). According to Randall and Svasand party institutionalization is considered as one of the criteria which have encountered the most emphasis in the process of democratization (Vicky Randall and Lars Svasand, 2002, p.5-29).

Electoral systems in general and electoral formulas in particular are carefully analyzed by researchers of political systems, mainly because of the direct impact they have on representation and participation in the democratic party system, the political institutions and their stability, etc. This impact becomes even more pronounced in the case of new democracies or political systems in a transition process from a totalitarian/authoritarian regime to a liberal democratic form of government.

There is a causal relation between the specific legal framework of an electoral reform and the above mentioned characteristics of a functioning political system, although there is a tendency to overestimate this causality, which is not unilateral: the cultural features of the political system are, among others, important factors in the shaping and the implementation of the electoral legal framework.

Crucial electoral reform

From the first pluralistic electoral framework until today, the Republic of Albania has made a considerable number of changes in the electoral rules (sixteen reforms of the electoral code in the period from 1990 to 2008), trying to adopt different territorial partitions, electoral formulas, legal institutions and guarantees, constitutional amendments, as well as political agreements.

Two of the most comprehensive and influential reforms in the Albanian electoral framework were introduced with the entry into force of the Electoral Code of 2003 (Law No. 9087/2003) and the Electoral Code of 2008 (Law no.10019/2008 amended by Law no. 74/2012). The Electoral Code of 2003 would further transform the Electoral Code of 2000. The main innovation was the fact that the uninominal vote in 100 areas no more required an absolute majority, but just a relative one to be elected member of the Albanian Parliament. The Article 65 of the Election Code of 2003 reportedly stated that the remaining 40 mandates would be assigned according to "the proportionate share of votes received from the plurinominal lists" (Qendra e Publikimeve Zyrtare, 3003, p. 60). According to article 67 of the Electoral Code, if the number of mandates (according to the majority system) won by a party or coalition exceeds the number of all mandates that would have been assigned if all of the 140 mandates had been assigned proportionally, then the party or coalition in question would not participate in the distribution of the 40 additional mandates (Qendra e Publikimeve Zyrtare, p. 62).

According to the 2003 Code, the parliamentary elections in Albania have been guaranteed by an electoral administration consisting in three entities: the Central Electoral Commission (CEC), 100 Zonal Electoral Commissions (ZEC) and 4764 Polling Stations Commissions (PSC), established in 2005. The CEC is a permanent body composed of seven members. The political parties have had the most important role in the formation of this body, as they have the right to propose its members. On the basis of a 2004 political agreement between the two main parties, changes have occurred in the political balance of the CEC, as the Socialist Party renounced to one of its five commissioners in favor of the opposition.

Based on the recommendations of OSCE / ODIHR and Venice Commission, the Electoral Code was amended in January 2005. Since then the sessions of the CEC were to be considered valid if there were present at least four members and most of the decisions would be taken by a majority of four member votes. As a reinforced rule, a majority of five votes would be necessary for the final certification of the election results, for the declaration of invalidity of the elections and in the appeals against decisions of the Polling Stations Commissions in relation to the electoral results. Every PSC was composed of seven members appointed by the CEC based on combinations of proposals from the three biggest parties in both sides of the political spectrum. Before this amendment was introduced, The Socialist Movement for Integration did not have the right to appoint members of ZEC or PSC, regardless of its electoral weight. The Democratic Party and the Socialist Party had the right to appoint the seventh member of every commission, based on distribution equality and random selection. The Socialist Movement for Integration voiced its criticism, considering this practice as a two-party

monopolization that left little or no opportunity for the other parties to impact and control the decision-making processes of the Central Election Commission.

However, some of the Electoral Code's main characteristics performed against the goal of proportional representation of the popular will, as stipulated in the Constitution of the Republic of Albania: the number of additional mandates was set and unchangeable while the number of seats proportionally allocated was relatively small (40). Using different strategies and within the legal framework, it was possible for the political parties to get around the electoral system's intention and make the main parties also benefit from the mandates distributed proportionately. These strategies, according to the OSCE / ODIHR presented a number of problems: a) they significantly reduced the effectiveness of article 67 of the Electoral Code with regard to the compliance with the constitutional spirit of proportional representation; b) weakened the link between the two electoral formulas, transforming the process somehow similar to "parallel elections"; c) scale back the number of seats won by parties that did not follow the same strategy; d) downplayed the differences between political parties and thus could cause perplexities among the voters; e) made it impossible for the electorate to understand how the expressed votes would translate into legislative mandates (OSCE/ODIHR, 2003, p.23).

The Constitution of the Republic of Albania was amended by the National Assembly on April 21st 2008, through a qualified majority vote on a number of constitutional amendments presented in the form of the draft law "On some amendments to the Constitution". The draft included a series of changes, the most important among them were the radical change in the electoral formula and the election of the President of the Republic by the National Assembly with a simple majority in the fourth and fifth round (Qendra e Publikimeve Zyrtare, 2008, p.7618).

The electoral law ceased to be a corrected majoritarian. The number of MPs remained the same (140), but all of the mandates would be determined applying a proportional system on a regional bases. There was a subdivision of the territory in 12 regions, with each of them expressing a different number of MPs. The lists are closed, the electors cast a vote for a single list. They may not choose individual candidates or alter the order of such lists. There is an entry threshold of 3% for electoral subjects involved in a pre-election coalition and 5% for other subjects. For the distribution of electoral mandates has been chosen the D'Hondt method for parties and the Sainte-Laguë for the coalitions.

Reform Assessment

Though it was initially left on a second plan during the public discussions, one of the law's direct consequences was the power increase of the political parties' leadership in the choice of candidates to fill in the blocked lists. Taking in review the internal party democracy in Albania, Afrim Krasniqi and Ardian Hackaj argue that the lack of democratic traditions and the misconceptions about a dominant political culture which considers the political parties as the root for power and privileges, increases the expectations of the people from parties, and contributes in giving to the latter the monopoly of decision-making while excluding the civil society active participation (Afrim Krasniqi, Ardian Hackaj, 2015).

To further protect the leaders exclusive right of decision-making, the current Code stipulates that they are the only authority that has the right to compile the party lists in each of the twelve electoral zones. This particular privilege, according to the Venice Commission report is in flagrant contradiction with the fundamental principle of equality, according to Art. 26 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and non-discrimination (Art.2 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights).

The constitutional amendments also reinforced the powers of the Prime Minister at the expense of the President. The latter can no longer dissolve the Parliament. This power now would belong to the head of government and this would greatly complicate voting on a motion of no confidence. Moreover, it was also provided that the election of the President by the National Assembly no longer would require a three-fifths majority, but only the votes of 71 deputies out of 140 (Balkan Insight, 2008).

In compiling lists, even though it has already been a reviewed system, there was noticed a tendency to ignore the spirit of the law through the interpretation of its letter. Given the poor representation of women in decision-making bodies in Albania, positive action measures, such as electoral quotas, have been included in the Electoral Code to address the present gender imbalance. For example, Article 67 of the electoral code established that in the general elections for the National Assembly, for any of the twelve regions, "at least 30 per cent of the plurinominal blocked party list and/or one of the first three names in these lists must belong to each of the two sexes" (Qendra e Publikimeve Zyrtare, 2010, p. 62). According to this article, being women the less represented gender, there would be female candidates either in one of the first three positions, or in 30% of the party lists. In each case, it was opted for the second alternative, so the women quota was formally respected, but they were hopelessly relegated in the last positions of the blocked lists. Several studies have shown that even when the candidate lists did not meet the quota requirements and were consequently rejected by the CEC, the parties made arrangements adding more women candidates at the bottom of their lists. In Albania, a party can be technically in accordance with the quotas, without any women in winning positions within the party lists (ACER and Aset, 2009). As a matter of fact, the monitoring report of OSCE stressed that theoretically, with just 30 % of the women listed in the less favorable positions, a list could regularly qualify to run.

Given the increased centrality of the party leadership decisions, it is very important to assess the internal democracy procedures and party statutes. In the Statute of the Socialist Party (Art. 41) it is stated that all the members of the party have the right to nominate candidates or to reject the candidates proposed. In the Article 8 of the Statute is established the right of party members to be nominated for MP candidates in the electoral lists. Article 40 provides that the decision-making process is approved by the party leadership forums and gets applied to all of the party hierarchy levels. The decision for the individual candidacy is made in a closed voting process. The statute of the Socialist party does not specify whether the party leaders pre-select the nominees, nor if the party leader must approve the choices (The Statute of the Socialist Party, 2011). In the Statute of the Democratic Party, it is stated that the candidacy for local elections must be discussed and consulted with all the party membership, but the presidency of the local branches decides for the local candidacies. For the most important municipalities the list of the candidates for town counselors must be approved by the Democratic Party Presidency. According to the Article 14 of the statute the members of the party have the right to nominate and to be nominated for. The Democratic Party Statute gives the right to the party presidency to veto the candidates which are nominated. It is determined that the party presidency proposes to the council the candidatures for the representatives of the legislative and executive positions (The Statute of the Democratic Party, 2005). In practice, inside both of political camps there have always been internal criticising voices that have raised perplexities about the implementation of the statutes and the lack of true internal democracy.

The overall assessment of the 2008 Electoral Code from the OSCE and the Venice Commission observers has been positive, although there are areas in which further changes were advised. These areas include: a) the special privileges of political party leaders in compiling lists; b) requirements concerning the supporting signatures for lists of non-parliamentary parties; c) confusing requirements in compiling lists in respect of gender equality; d) media coverage rules and non-discriminatory rules for political campaign advertisement and the political parties financing; e) rules and procedures for the appointment or dismissal of lower commissions members (OSCE/ODIHR, 2009).

Compared to previous elections, there has been a reduction in the number of parties (from 57 to 34) participating in the 2009 elections, with parties maximally grouped in pre-election coalitions, in perfect coherence with the logic of a regional proportional system. Leaving aside any exception, most of the trends are in accordance with the formula of regional proportional with blocked lists and variable regional electoral threshold: there can be observed a reduction of the number of parliamentary parties balancing the outcome between two coalitions, more opportunities of representation for subjects with a regionally concentrated electorate, etc.

As a direct result of the establishment of the proportional regional law in 2008, a number of small parliamentary parties were blocked from entering the legislative body. It can be stated that, while damaging the principles of the competition,

which in the case of the non consolidated democracy as Albania is a very important issue in order to hamper the authoritarianism of the biggest political parties in the country (Hoxhaj, 2011), .

Bledar Kajsiu, expresses that Albanian political pluralism has lost its meaning as a result of conceptual monism, and the democratic value is not established (Kajsiu, 2009).

In the last decades, Albania has a history of constitutional reviews and legislative activity that often has presented problems in the implementation phases. The bureaucracy remains a critical institution because it is both a core institution in a democracy as well as the indispensable instrument of the state.

"The market economy is just as much in need of a "strong state" as a nonmarket economy. The state is needed to set norms and regulations by which society can function. In effect, the state has a modernizing role to play. Consequently, a revitalized and reoriented state capacity is crucial to the success of both market-oriented reforms and consolidation of democracy. The habits of communist bureaucracy run counter to Weberian principles such as the rule of law, meritocracy, or professionalism," writes Jacek Kochanowicz (Kochanowicz, 1994, p. 202). It is quite interesting to observe how the post-communist regimes continue to struggle with their pasts direct consequences. Albania has found it very difficult to build a professional bureaucracy that transcends political loyalty and distances itself from any aspect of a spoils system.

Conclusions

The discussion on electoral reforms and their impact (or lack thereof) on the political institutions is very vivid, but certainly the implications are much deeper and often deal with different visions regarding representative democracy. The central criteria and purpose of selecting between a proportional or plurality/majoritarian system remains the trade-off between a strong and responsible executive on the one hand and inclusion and minority representation on the other. Surely the absolutely best choice doesn't exist, even considering different political and social features. In the case of societies that are characterized by ethnic or religious cleavages, the proportional system could be a more inclusive solution, but in perspective it could affect the deepening of these divisions. For the countries that have already experienced very centralized regimes, plurality/majoritarian electoral systems provide the government from the need to expand the coalition or executive responsibilities. The Republic of Albania has made no exception from other former communist countries, which originally opted for proportional systems to shape the political pluralism after the experiences one party regimes and later switched to plurality/majoritarian formulas to ensure a higher degree of governance and stability (Birch, S, 2003, p.5). The studies on the electoral systems in transition countries are scarce, as the effects of these systems crystallize clearer in time and with the development of a democratic tradition. The slow and steady remodeling of culture and particularly of the political culture could be the key to the full consolidation of new democratic regimes. Offe supports the idea that "the specific nature and unprecedented process of transformation in Eastern Europe mainly stems from the fact that there should be given an answer to the fundamental questions of who they are and what they aim for, consequently positioning themselves on their identity, citizenship, as well as on territorial borders and socio - cultural aspects of the nation-state" (Offe, 1991, p. 47).

As the analysis of the electoral system determines frequent changes in the electoral law before each parliamentary election, it is evident that the party system in Albania continues to be characterized by instability. On the other hand, the high volatility among the political parties also does affect the stability of political system negatively. Electoral systems are based on electoral frameworks, and their consistency provides stable competition for the parties. Frequent changes in the electoral system can produce unexpected consequences, and it can also provide uncertainty and weaken the strategies of the political actors.

It is also very important to have a political elite that is prepared and ready to make the necessary compromises in playing a stabilizing role. This becomes quite evident in the Albanian case as it has already been crystallized the dominant power of the party headquarters in shaping the political system: the main political parties increasingly are the protagonists, which by their agreements or disagreements have produced reforms, codes and rules of democratic competition. The construction

and stabilization of mutual trust between the main political actors remains a crucial precondition for achieving the standard of free and fair elections and, above all, the certification of their uncontested results.

Bibliography

Afrim Krasniqi and Ardian Hackaj, 2015. *Demokracia e Brendshme e Partive Politike ne Shqiperi* (Internal Democracy and Albanian Political Parties). Tirane, Fondacioni Friedrich Ebert.

Albanian Helsinki Committee, *some thoughts on the recommendations of the OSCE / ODIHR concerning the elections of 28 June 2009*, Tirana 2009

Balkan Insight, Albania Approves Constitutional Reforms', 22 April 2008. <http://balkaninsight.com/en/main/news/9571>

Birch, S. *Electoral Systems and political transformation in Europe, Post-Communist* Palgrave, London 2003

Fejzi Kolaneci, Head, which voting system is effective against political corruption?, in *Tirana Observer*, 29 October 2011

Hoxhaj, L., 2011, *Tirana Observer*

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights: <http://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/ccpr.aspx>

Jacek Kochanowicz, *Reforming Weak States and Deficient Bureaucracies*, 1994

Linz J., Stepan A., *problems of Democratic Transition and Consolidation: Southern Europe, South America and Europe*, Post-Communist John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, Maryland 1996

Markowski, R., 2000. *Party System Institutionalization in New Democracies: Poland- a Trend-Setter with no Followers*. Houston, University of Houston.

Official Publications Center, the electoral code, promulgated by the decree no.3868, dated 30/VI. 2003 President of the Republic of Albania, Special Edition, July 2003

Official Publications Center, *Fletore Zyrtare No. 132*, Tirana 2008

Official Publications Center, the Electoral Code of the Republic of Albania, Tirana 2010

Offe C, Capitalism by Democratic Design? Democratic Theory Facing the Triple transition in East Central Europe in *Social Research: An International Nationalism: Central & East Europe* Aria Mack, Editor, Volume 58, No. 4, Banese 1991

OSCE / ODIHR, Republic of Albania Parliamentary Elections 28 May 2009 Observation Mission Final Report, Warsaw 2009

Simeon R., Turgeon L., constitutional design and the construction of democracy in Jorge I. Domínguez and Anthony Jones Ed., *Democratic Transition and Consolidation:Lessons from practice and Research*, John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, Maryland 2007

The Statute of the Socialist Party, 2011

The Statute of the Democratic Party, 2005

Vicky Randall and Lars Svasand, 2002. *Party Institutionalization in New Democracies*. SAGE Publications, Volume 8, pp. 5-29.

Eco-Feminism in Contemporary Female Iranian Poetry

Narges Bagheri

Associate Professor of Persian Language and Literature at Valie-Asr University of Rafsanjan

Shahrouz Hamidi

Postgraduate Student of Clinical Psychology at Tehran University.

Abstract

Today, nature, land and environment are of the important issues that everyone in his/her own position could have an important role in protecting them. Eco-feminism is a branch of feminism that communicates between ecology and feminism. Generally speaking, it can be said that Eco-feminists stress on the three similar issues: women's relationships with nature, the relationship between domination over women and domination over nature, the role of women in solving ecological problems. One of their main arguments is that women mainly damage more from environmental pollution in comparison to men, as a result, the environment issue is mainly a gender-related issue. There is a consensus on the moral issues of environment protection, which is based on the women's work and social position, among eco-feminists. But their strategies for a change are different. One of these strategies is cultural strategy and can be related to literature and poetry. This paper explores the contemporary women's poetry from this point of view. Many of contemporary Iranian poetry samples show that they are closely linked with the nature. Respecting to the nature and environmental concerns and the preservation of nature has been reflected in their poetry and this voice can help changing the thought of society.

Keywords: Eco-feminism, poetry, women, Iran

1. Introduction

In many myths and old beliefs of many cultures and nations, earth is female due to fertility; women also are in charge of the reproduction and child nutrition. It makes women more similar to the nature. Eco-feminism refers to the movements and philosophies that communicate between ecology and feminism. Eco-feminism communicates between ecology and feminism. The main argument of eco-feminists is that "patriarchal suppression in the name of profit and progression destroys the nature" (Ham, 2003, 133).

The concept of eco-feminism was applied for the first time in 1974 by the French Françoise d'Eaubonne (1974) in her book "Feminism or Death Le Féminisme ou la Mort. Rosemary Radford Ruether (1975) in a book titled as "New Woman, New Earth, Sexist ideologies and Human Freedom", Susan Griffin (1978) in her work titled as "Woman and Nature", Caroline Merchant (1980) in her work "The Death of Nature, women and Ecology" have tried to establish links between the simultaneous domination over women and nature on behalf of men and proposed multiple branches of Eco-feministic theory (Twine, 2001). Since the 1980s, eco-feminist groups in particular enter social activities arena to improve the conditions of women and repel environmental threats and risks simultaneously (Sturgeon, 1997). In the second half of the 1980s this branch entered universities as an academic discipline (Twine, 2001).

Generally speaking, we can say that "all eco-feminists stress on three similar issues: (1) women's relationships with the nature, (2) the connections between the domination over women and domination over nature, (3) the role of women in solving ecological problems" (Henshal, 2006).

Feminists have different justifications in favor of the environment. One of their main arguments is that “women mainly damage more from environmental pollution in comparison to men, as a result, the environment issue is mainly a gender-related issue”.

Regarding the raised issues it can be said that, eco-feminism as a new theoretical branch in the field of women's studies is promising to become a tool for the relations of domination in the contemporary world (Moshirzadeh, 2006, 423).

It is important that all eco-feminists based their shared opinions on the moral issues of environment protection and social position of women, although their strategies of changing are different. Liberal Eco-feminists tend to work within the existing and governmental structures by changing laws and cultural eco-feminists critique patriarchy and emphasize the biological and symbolic relationships between women and nature. Socialist eco-feminists focus on social justice as well as on the analysis of the ways in which both patriarchy and capitalism could dominate over women and nature.

Some of the supports of this outlook think of strengthening healthier and more optimized relations between people (especially men) and environment and in addition to defending of the values and behavioral methods that are seen more in women (but not all behavior of women) than men such as pacifism, seeking tranquility, kindness and anti-authoritarianism, argued that if such female characteristics are acquired a result all of us as well as the planet Earth will have a better life (Rahmani et al, 2009).

In various proposed theories about eco-feminism, cultural issues always have been important. According to Agarwal (2010) culture is one of the four major concepts that are described about the eco-feminism. Stating that men are related mostly to the culture and women to the environment, culture is considered as superior to the environment. Therefore, women and environment are dominated by men, which are regarded as dominant over ecosystems sources. Women are related to the environment. In fact, the contribution of women and the environment devote inferior position to themselves (Agarwal, 2010).

But Plumwood (1992) proposes the culture issue in another way; in his opinion two main branches of eco-feminism are cultural and social eco-feminism that their difference relates to their outlook on the relationship between two concepts of woman and nature. Cultural eco-feminism tends to define nature and woman in relation to each other because it believes that women, regarding their characteristics, have more specific understanding of the nature in comparison to men (Mies & Shiva, 1993).

As you can see, in Agrawal's opinion culture is not a womanish matter but in Palm Wood's opinion, cultural eco-feminism sees woman and nature are in relation to each other. In fact, what is closer to new theoretical feminists is not to consider the arena absolutely feminine or masculine. Examining literature which are an important part of societies' culture shows that women play an important role in the culturalization, and today many stereotypes has changed.

Feminist is a perspective and ideology towards anything that exists in the social world in relation to women. So feminism is a kind of ideology rather a research methodology. So a research could be feminist that is equipped with this worldview. It is very important regarding the Eco-feminism as a worldview, in the first place, as well as a research methodology and problem-solving, in the second.

One of the characteristics of a feminist research is its para-disciplinarity. Feminist research does not limit itself in a particular discourse and, with an interdisciplinary nature, tries to criticize the link between various fields of science and its resulted social act which has led to criticism and exploitation of women. On the other hand a feminist research has a pragmatic nature, i.e. it not only seeks mere theorizing but also creates social changes (Reinharz, 1992). Feminist research is para-disciplinary and seeks to create social changes in relation to the status of women in society and tries to show human diversity.

This paper has been written regarding this view and, employing Eco-feminist theories, tries to reveal women's role in changing the society thought and reflects their voice by showing the environmental concerns of women poets in poems. As Grit Guard in his book "eco-feminism, women, animals and nature" regards eco-feministic theorizing as an attempt to link

the multiple contributions in the field of environmentalism, animal rights and feminism and considers the intrinsic value of eco-feministic theory as an attempt to reflect the voices of all currents that are associated with women, feminism and the environment (Gaard, 1993).

This study and reflection, in addition to showing the concern for women and their relationship with nature, arouses the emotions and helps to preserve it with affection and respect for the environment.

2. Examining the environment in contemporary women's poetry

2-1. Concerns for Land and Environment Destruction

One of the features that can be searched in the poetry of women concerns the destruction of the environment and the Earth. The most prominent effects of this view can be seen in Forough Farrokhzad poetry; an important Iranian poet. Farrokhzad wrote this poem in the 1340s Solar Hijri when Iran had faced many developments and was getting modernized. Buildings are changing, streets are paved and distancing from nature is felt:

Nobody thinks of the flowers / Nobody thinks of the fish / Nobody wants to believe that garden is dying / that garden's heart swells under the sun / that garden's mind slowly / empties from green memories (Farrokhzad, 1989, 422)

One of the most remarkable points in this poem is intellectual confrontation of the narrator's brother. A brother who looked at the world by means of a science and math viewpoint:

My brother calls the "garden" as graveyard / my brother laughs at the rebellion of the grass/ and at the corpse of the fish/ that turn into corrupted particles under the water's ill skin / takes numbers/ my brother finds the healing of garden / in garden destruction (Farrokhzad, 1989, 425)

In this poem the narrator hates and fears war and thinks it is opposite of life, childhood and the nature:

All day / crumbling can be heard behind the door / and explosion / all of our neighbors plant mortars and machine guns in their gardens instead of flowers (Farrokhzad, 1989, 427).

Forough Farrokhzad regards earth helpless and alone and has always defended it in her poem:

Is the earth which vibrates beneath your feet / lonelier than you? / O friend, O brother, O full-blood/ When reach moon write the history of the massacre of flowers (Farrokhzad, 1989, 420)

The idea of the fear of the nature destruction can also be seen in the poetry of other feminist poets: I think of the last tree /smokes out in earth's explosion/ someone sings in the next door cell:

The sun dies / and we run out of love before oil." (Ahmadi, 2010, 135)

In this poem by Khatereh Hejazy, petroleum and chemical industry are factors for the destruction of the earth.

Sometimes the poet regards the end up of nature as the destruction of herself, for example, in Gila Mosaed's poem:

My end / is this tree / which rolls into the winter blues with lethargy (Ahmadi, 2010, 265)

Fereshteh Sari shows the world in a sheet of a newspaper containing news in which vegetables are folded in and has found its way into the kitchen:

The world has been folded / in yesterday's newspaper / Africa / gets black under soot of the pot / a bunch of radish flower / covers earthquake fault / dove's seeds / collapsed on the shelling (Ahmadi, 2010, 167)

As we can see, there is no good news in the newspaper and the world's folding metaphor shows it well.

In Khatereh Hejazy's poem the division of the roles of women and men can be seen. In this poem when men are fighting outside the home, women take care of the earth:

But we were woman / the women of those men / so with the hope of their return / alone and relying on their own thought / drove out the pigs from farms. (Ahmadi, 2010, 176)

Driving out the pigs from farms in this poem is a strong metaphor of the multi-layered concepts.

Also, women in poetry sympathize with birds and animals, such as Nahid Kabiri's sympathies with the wounded pigeon:

I do not put demulcent on the wound of a pigeon /Neither in sleep nor awaking/I slowly /feel/it gets alienated with/ its native language/Nahid Kabiri (Ahmadi, 2010, 131)

This sympathy can be seen in the poems of Forough Farrokhzad about a butterfly:

And my brain still / is full of the voice of a butterfly's horror that has been crucified her / to a pin on a notebook/. (Forough Farrokhzad, 1989, 234)

2.2. The Close Relationship between Women and Nature

As mentioned in the introduction, cultural eco-feminism also regards nature a feminist issue. Trees, forests and forestry are feminist issues because they have same nature with women because both have the power for fertility and are regarded as a kind of fertilizer that raise human and this idea is more borrowed from western culture in the ground of "supposing motherhood for the Earth". From the eco-feminists viewpoint, the more women depend on the nature and the closer they get to it, the better they will understand it (Enayat, 2009). This close relationship and likeness to nature is visible in many examples of female poems.

Narges Bagheri establishes a metaphorical relationship between a woman and a tree:

Once you buried me/I become a tree when you were got back / do you remember? (Bagheri, 2012, 14)

In another poem she relates the creation of woman to the rain:

No woman come from behind the Moon / whenever it rained, / the earth chest burned / and one of us (women) moaned/ we were rootless plants / whenever the wind / brings your smell / got one of you a poet (Bagheri, 2012, 119)

In Afagh Shohani's poetry woman and sea have been considered the same:

Woman in each picnic / poured the sand for fish / man sent the hook to the sea / woman filled the glass from sea water / man grante women to the sea / women was the sea / gnemons paired on each other / man went and mixed with the sea. (Ahmadi, 2010, 195)

Rira Abbasi uses a beautiful interpretation about the sugar cane:

My son / tell me when will the sugar cane become bride? (Ahmadi, 2010, 402)

Narges Bagheri also uses such an interpretation about butterflies in other way:

Look! / Why every butterfly that return from Saidabad desert / wears my mother's clothes? (Bagheri, 2012, 108)

Or Ziba Kavei who regards wheat as a fetus:

I'm waiting for a wheat germ / that next to the left ventricle / sprouted wher beats more amorous. Ziba Kaveyi (Ahmadi, 2010, 416)

The acme of the close ties between parent and child can be seen in Forough Farrokhzad poem:

I put the unripe bunches of wheat / under my breast / and nurse

Sometimes this makes the relationship so that the women build the nature and the role of women gets legendary:

Then I laughed / and sunflower were born. (Bagheri, 2012, 31)

And the woman builds the tree on the calm field of mountains from her eyes.

Maryam Hole has been influenced by this poem and has used the purporst in another form and established a two-way relationship with nature that is the mother of the nature on the one hand and, and on the other hand is the mother of the world:

The world is my hungry child / Let feed with a breast full of milk / I like the nature more/ but /Nature / is my mother. (Ahmadi, 2010, 240)

In some cases, the female poet interferes the balance between the elements of nature and establishes a relationship and sees herself in a positin who can reconcile the moon and sun, like in Rohangiz Kerachy's poem:

Drowning in the sky sea / reconcile the sun with eye, / and the moon with my hand, / I do reconciliation the moon. Rohangiz Kerachy (Ahmadi, 2010, 242).

2-3. Respecting the Elements of Nature

Sometimes the nature elements are sancified in the poetry and poet gives great respect to them. Neda Abkari writes:

Passengers in the coffeehouses of dawn / pray of water and grass (Ahmadi, 2010, 67).

In one of the poems, Forough Farrokhzad finds her hands as a safe place for nesting swallows and takes a respectful manner:

I plant my hands in the garden / I will become green / I know / I know / and the birds will lay in the hollow of my inky fingers (Farrokhzad, 1989)

In Pegah Ahmadi's poem, the woman feeds the cows with milk, while this is always the opposite and the cows feed the human with milk:

Mother feeds a piece of cow with the milk and cries (Ahmadi, 2004, 9)

2-4. Coordination and social life relationship of the poet and nature

In many contemporary poems women consider their feelings, emotions, happiness and their other living conditions dependent on the climate and environment changes. They have borrowed from nature and its elements to show their minds better. For example, in Pegah Ahmadi's poetry collection named "My Current Days Are Throat" the narrator is weeping and complaining because of social conditions and has this coordination in many of its lines:

A generation is polluted by air / a river has gone violently and a brogan (Ahmadi, 2004, 10)

Or in other poems states her life and social conditions with the elements of nature:

When I was singed, this land was full of grass / when the it become full of tree they beat it up (Ahmadi, 2004, 8)

We become fish and have no water (Ahmadi, 2004, 17)

The complaint of social conditions sometimes takes a severer protest and criticizes the form of small buildings and apartments:

Every day, fifty meters / Commercial Property, Barbari bread and pendant museums / passes from history (Ahmadi, 2004, 25)

It also can be seen in other poems and in order to save the space we just mention another example of Geranaz Mousavi:

Treeless Tehran / is not enough for our youth (Mousavi, 14)

In this example we see the poet links youth depression to treelessness of Tehran.

3. Conclusion

According to what has been reviewed the most important concern for all eco-feminists is protection of the environment, which is based on work and social status of women but they differ in their strategies.

As said before, some supporters of this idea think of stronger and optimized relations between people (especially men) and environment. They speak of close relationship between nature and women. Female poets can play a positive role in changing society's thought by means of cultural strategy and using their poems. Reviewing literature that are an important part of societies' culture shows also that women have an important role in the culturization. Reviewing the poems of contemporary women shows that with an eco-feminism approach their womanish mindset about the environment as an important issue can be examined. In these poems, the poets concern of environmental destruction, close relationship of women and nature, respecting to nature and coordination and communication between social lives and the nature that are examples to show this issue as well.

References

- Agarwal, B. A. (1994). *Field of One's Own: Gender and Land Rights in South Asia*; Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Agarwal, B. *Gender and Green Governance*. (2010). *The Political Economy of Women's Presence Within and Beyond Community Forestry*; Oxford University Press, Oxford
- Gard, Greta. (1993). *Ecofeminism; Women, Animals, Nature*; Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Hobgood-Oster Laura (2005). *Ecofeminism – Historic and International Evolution*, in *Encyclopedia of Religion and Nature*, Edited by Bron Taylor, London & New York: Continuum.
- Mies, M. & Shiva, V. (1993). *Ecofeminism*. London: The Zed Press.
- Reinhartz, S. (1992). *Feminist Methods' in Social Research*; London: Oxford University Press.
- Sturgeon, N. (1997). *Ecofeminism Natures – Race, Gender, Feminist Theory and Political Action*; London: Routledge.
- Twine, Richard. T. (2001). *Ecofeminisms in Process*, www.ecofem.Org/journal

The Effect of Workshop Training Method and Electronic Teaching Method on Mathematics Learning

Azam Safari

. M,A in Instrauctional Technology, Islamic Azad University South Tehran Branch

Dr. Zahra Hosseini

Assistant professor of Islamic Azad University South Tehran Branch

Abstract

The present study with the aim to investigate the effect of training by using of electronic content and workshop method on math learning of high school students of eighteen region of Tehran has been done. The research method was applied and quasi-experimental with pretest-posttest design and control group. The study population included all girl students studying at second year of high school in public schools of eighteen region of Tehran in the 94-95 school year that by using of sampling method three classes were selected. The first experimental group with electronic content and the second experimental group by using of workshop method were trained that with the control group, who were trained in the traditional way, were compared. To determine the effect of work of education on math learning in the three groups, the analysis of covariance and ANOVA were used. The results showed that math scores in the two experimental groups were higher than the control group. Also, comparing the post test scores of math learning in the two experimental groups showed that the training by using of workshop method more than training with electronic content has effect on math learning.

Keywords: electronic content, workshop method, learning

Introduction

Today, due to the social necessity, education system is one of the big and complex social organizations in every country which has an irrefragible bond with social, cultural and economic growth and development and it has gradually turned into a complicated system. Also, due to developments in human science and experiences and technology development and industrial progress, the increasing development of the education system activities has become a universal issue. Therefore, one of the most important indicators of any society development is the range of the responsibilities of its education system (Safi, 2003).

Educational systems have always been looking for ways to improve teaching methods in different courses; traditional teaching methods have been used in the same way for many years, but in today's world new approaches have been considered for teaching and learning. Since in current methods of teaching math, the students have no opportunity to use imagination and visualization, and experience things, naturally their mental faculties and ideas are not strengthened and they cannot have an active role in this field. In mathematical education there is a need for new approaches. In this regard, on the one hand it is necessary to use the mathematical concepts to teach the students how to live better; for this purpose, the level of general education should be understandable for all of the students and it should also have practical aspects to prepare the students to live a life which is along with technology. One the other hand, the teaching methods that are mostly teacher-centered should turn into student-centered methods, and teachers instead of having a unidirectional transfer of knowledge and information should try to provide a context to let the students produce the concepts themselves (Belski, N, 2004).

Problem statement

According to the fact that mathematics are one of the basic courses and have intangible concepts for the students, traditional teaching methods have made problems for students learning; therefore, a proper teaching method along with an attractive presentation of knowledge and consistency with the latest modern methods can provide a sustainable learning

for the students. The development of mathematical education process due to the scientific complexities and its connection with the students' way of thinking and comprehension, and also its applications in various economic sectors can lead to the development and production of knowledge and self-confidence. Therefore, mathematical education has been always considered as one of the most important objectives of every country education system.

Among the mathematical learning methods, enabling students and involving them in learning and enhancing their motivation by using new teaching – learning methods and educational media are some of the strategies that are confirmed by experts. By the increasing development of science, the traditional teaching methods are no more able to meet the students' needs to learn. In workshop teaching methods due to the availability of key and original situations, the teaching – learning process is enjoyable for the students. Since the workshop environment consists of various educational tools and accessories that sometimes are made by learners or teachers, the students will get involved in the learning process and as a result teaching and learning will happen at the high levels (Hoseini, 2011). On the other hand, in recent years many researches have been conducted on the importance of the role of educational materials and media in the teaching and learning process. A prerequisite for effective learning is using multiple facilities and resources to facilitate learning and academic achievement in various academic fields. One of these facilities is electronic content that changes the learning process and increases the students' interest and motivation for learning, and finally it facilitates learning and makes it interesting (Shoarinezhad, 2004).

By using e-learning, we can provide the optimal learning environment for different people by different characteristics, if this environment is well designed; it can facilitate and strengthen the review process through double coding. It also can timely try to elicit knowledge and help to provide the proper solution by using that elicited knowledge (Alemi, 1998).

Chang, Y and Mao, S, (2010), in their research on the ninth grade students of Taiwan schools in geology lesson have concluded that participation of students along with teacher facilitation can increase learning. Also, the results of the study of Hoopes, M (2009) that has been conducted on a number of students in biology lesson has led to the enhancement of interactions and improvement of learning, and most of the students have preferred the workshop method to the traditional methods.

In another research, Lopez- Morteo, G and Lopez, G (2007) have studied the effect of collaborative e-learning that is a way to motivate students to learn mathematics. In this study, the different aspects of the learning environment have been studied in three short periods of mathematic courses in high school students of Mexico. The results have shown that the use of electronic learning environment will lead to the positive attitude of students towards mathematics. Also, Thurston, A et al, (2010) in a research have concluded that the elementary school students who have learned science lesson with the participatory method are more successful in understanding science lesson. Tran, V and Lewis, R (2012) in their research have studied the effect of cooperative learning on learning math in two groups of students. They have concluded that students who have experienced participatory method had a better learning than the students who have experienced traditional learning.

Babaie (2013) in his research that have been conducted on the effect of software and workshop training on learning and retention of math in third grade middle school students. He has concluded that software and workshop training have affected learning math in the third grade middle school students.

According to the mentioned researches, the study on the effect of “workshop training “that is an active and exploratory method in which the students work by teachers facilitation will discover the mathematical rules; and also “training by using electronic content” method in which information technology is used in teaching - learning process are considered by the researcher of this study. This study is conducted in order to comprehend the importance of active and innovative learning methods, and since there has been few studies on the comparison of these two methods, this research wants to find the answer of this question: Which one of these two types of training methods including electronic content training and workshop training had a greater effect on students learning mathematics?

Despite the development of the application of new educational technologies in the educational system of the country; no deep studies have been conducted on the new teaching methods that are in the form of new technologies and workshop methods for students learning. For this reason, the results of this study can deeply consider the effect of using electronic content and workshop training on the development of students learning, and it will lead to the presentation of effective solutions to improve teaching mathematics in high schools.

This study is conducted in order to compare the effect of using electronic content and workshop training on learning mathematics in high school students.

Research hypothesis

Compared to the electronic content training, workshop training has a greater influence on learning mathematics.

Research method

The research method is practical, and it is the type of quasi-experimental that has pre-test and post-test and control group. The study population has included all the high school female students who are studying in public schools of the eighteen district of Tehran city in the academic years of 2015-2016. Among these high schools, three classes have been selected by convenience sampling method. The first study group has been trained with electronic content training and the second study group has been trained with workshop training, and they have been compared with the control group that has been trained with traditional training. In order to determine the effect of training methods on learning mathematics in these three groups, the covariance analysis and one-way ANOVA have been used.

Research tools

In order to conduct this study, the researcher has used two self-made math tests (pre-test and post-test). One test has been held before the experiment in order to evaluate the knowledge of the students of the two groups (pre-test), and the other test has been held after the experiment (post-test), and finally the differences in the results have been studied. The pre-test and post-test have been designed with 20 multiple questions and based on the chapter of functions from the math book of third grade of high school. Each question had one score, and the minimum score was 0 and the maximum was 20.

For the content validity of the test, in consultation with a group of teachers of mathematics, some multiple questions have been designed. For more reliability, the pre-test-post-test questions have prepared equally. These questions have been reviewed by a group of other teachers and the questions have been approved by them; so these questions have been used as the test questions. In this study, Cronbach's alpha method has been used to calculate reliability coefficient which has been obtained 0.86.

Data analysis method

In this study, the two statistical activities including descriptive and inferential statistics have been used. In the descriptive statistics, the central indexes such as median, mean and dispersion parameters such as standard deviation and variance have been used. In the inferential statistics, given to the pretest-posttest design the covariance analysis has been used, and based on the research hypotheses in order to compare the mean scores of the three groups, one-way ANOVA has been used.

Research findings

After the completion of the training courses, the three groups have given the post-test. In this study, in order to stabilize the effect of pre-test in the three groups, the covariance analysis has been used. The descriptive indicators in the control group and the other two study groups are presented in Table 1. According to the provided data, there is a huge difference between the pre-test and post-test scores.

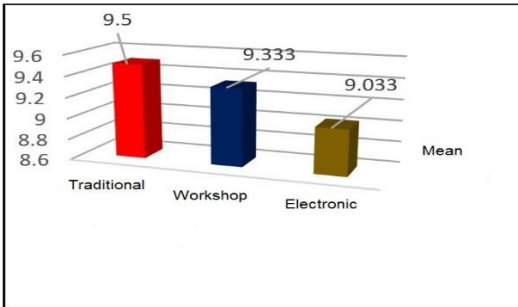
Table 1: descriptive characteristics of the three traditional, workshop and electronic content training methods

		Number	Mean	Standard deviation	variance	range	maximum	minimum	Skewness	Kurtosis
Traditional training	Pre-test	30	9.50	4.377	18.810	17	2	19	0.045	-0.816
	Post-test	30	11.767	3.024	9.151	12	8	20	0.575	-0.046

Workshop training	Pre-test	30	9.333	4.381	19.195	14	2	16	0.131	-1.304
	Post-test	30	15.80	3.213	10.441	10	10	20	-0.320	-0.948
Electronic content training	Pre-test	30	9.033	3.614	13.068	12	2	14	-0.273	-1.032
	Post-test	30	13.766	3.125	9.771	11	9	20	0.297	-0.596

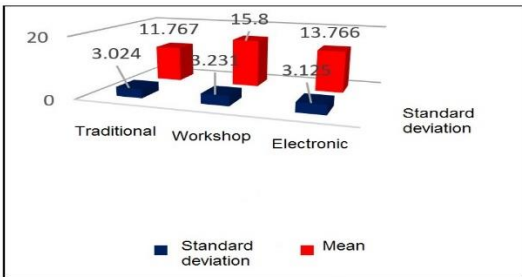
The values that are obtained in the columns of Skewness and kurtosis indicate the normality of data distribution.

Figure 1: Comparison of pre-test scores of the three traditional, workshops and e-learning training methods



Traditional: 9.5, Workshop: 9.333, Electronic: 9.033

Figure 2: Comparison of post-test scores of the three traditional, workshops and e-learning training methods



Traditional: 3.024/ 11.767, Workshop: 3.231/ 15.8, Electronic: 3.125/ 13.766

The achieved significance level from Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in the pre-test of workshop group and the control group has been obtained 0.054 that is greater than 0.05 so the data distribution is normal. Therefore, in the data analysis the parametric test has been used. Due to the significance level of Levine test (0.195) which is greater than 0.05, the data that have been obtained from sampling have the homogeneity of variances. Also, the regression slop with the 0.165 significance level which is greater than 0.05 indicates that the regression slop has been observed.

Covariance analysis results (Table 2) have shown that after removing the effect of pre-test, there has been a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in the math post-test; because the significant level has been obtained 0.016 which is lower than 0.05. Therefore, the two workshop training and e-learning methods are significantly different from each other.

Table 2: covariance analysis

Source	sum of squares	Degree of freedom	Mean Square	Fisher	Sig.	ETA
Revised model	119.104	2	59.582	6.420	0.003	0.184
Cutting	1466.209	1	1466.209	157.979	0.000	0.735
Pre-test (control variable)	57.147	1	57.147	6.157	0.016	0.097
The independent variable (Groups)	57.493	1	57.493	6.195	<u>0.016</u>	0.098
Error	529.019	57	15.239			
Total	13761.000	60				
Modification of total	648.183	59				

According to the results of one-way ANOVA (Table 3), the mean difference between the two workshop and electronic groups has been obtained 2.03333 which indicates that the mean score of workshop group is greater than the mean score of electronic group.

Table 3: one-way ANOVA analysis

Group 1	Group 2	The mean difference between groups 1 and 2	standard error	Significance level	95% confidence	
					Lower bound	upper bound
electronic	workshop	-2.03333	0.80778	0.036	-3.9595	-0.1072
	Traditional	2.00000	0.80778	0.040	0.0739	3.9261
Workshop	electronic	<u>2.03333</u>	0.80778	0.036	0.1072	3/9595
	Traditional	4.03333	0.80778	0.000	2.1072	5.9595
Traditional	electronic	-2.00000	0.80778	0.040	-3.9261	-0.0739
	Workshop	-4.03333	0.80778	0.000	-5.9595	-2.1072

Discussion and conclusion

According to the obtained significance level, after removing the effect of pre-test, there has been a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in the math post-test. Therefore, workshop training method enhances math learning more than e-learning method. Also, it can be seen that, there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test of both e-learning and workshop training groups. Given the mean difference of each group, we can conclude that workshop training has the greatest mean difference in the pre-test and post-test scores of the students. A few researches have compared the two electronic and workshop methods. The results of this study are consistent with the research of Babaie (2013) on the evaluation of software and workshop training methods on learning and retention of math lesson in the third grade middle school; he has concluded that workshop training was more effective on learning math lesson in the third grade middle school than e-learning. But this study is not consistent with the results of the study of Hadidi et al, (2015) that has been conducted on the effect of e-learning and workshop training on the enhancement of the knowledge of taking care of pregnant women in Kerman city; because in this study, both of the methods have increased this knowledge equally. The study population, the object of study and the number of samples can be the reasons for the inconsistency between the results. The ideal aim of this study was to compare the effect of using the two workshop training and electronic content training methods on learning mathematics among high school students. In comparison between the two workshop training and electronic content training methods, it has been concluded that there is a significant difference between these two methods in terms of students learning; therefore, we should deeply think about choosing the modern teaching methods. According to the conducted ranking on the differences of learning among students, and according to the fact that workshop training is more effective on learning; it is recommended to use this method as an accurate method in schools to let the students have a better understanding of mathematics. This study was conducted on the context of the math books, so be careful in generalizing the results to other lessons. It is recommended to the schools to hold workshops for all of the lessons. And also, workshop training and electronic content training methods should be taught to the teachers. With the help of consultation and cooperation with educational technologists, specialists in electronic content production and the experts of

math lesson planning in the country should produce strong electronic contents and give them to the specialist teachers. The researchers should study the effect of training by using electronic content and workshop training methods on the level of learning in other subjects.

References

Babaei, p. (2013), The impact of software training and workshop on learning and retention of third grade mat, Senior thesis field of Educational Technology, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Islamic Azad University, South Tehran.

Bleski, n. (2002), Math in real life, translated by A. R. Tavakoli, Tehran: Madrese publications

Hadidi, P. Sabzevari, S, and Hmayunyzand, R. (2015), Comparing the effect of e-learning and workshop training on knowledge of taking care for pregnant women and attitudes towards e-learning in the midwives of Kerman city, electronic learning journal, 1394; 6 (4): 43-50.

Hosseini, A. (2011). The Role of active patterns based on constructivism on learning mathematics in primary school students in the Zanjan city, Thesis, Azad University of Abhar.

Shoarinezhad, A. (2004), capital is not in the pockets and banks it is in brains, Journal of Educational Technology, Number 4, January 2005.

Safi, A. (2003), Iran's historical and developmental education rules and shortcomings of legislation. Journal of Management Education, 35,9-36.

Alemi, M. (1998), Multimedia learning theory and educational materials, Growth of Educational Technology, 15, 6.

Ghun, Y., Mao, S. (2010). The effects on students' cognieivement when using the cooperative Learning Method in Earth sciences classrooms. National Taiwan Normal university.174 publications 1061 CITATIONS.

lopes -Morteo, G., Lopes, G. (2007). competer support for learning mathematics: A learning environment based on recreational learning objects. Computers & education, 48,618-641.

Mays hoops,L. (2009). Replacing lecture with peer-led workshops improves student learning. CBE – life sciences Education.

Thurston, A., et al. (2010). Cooperative Learning in Science: Follow-up from Primry to High School. International Journal of Science Education, 32(4), 501-522.

Tran, Van Dat; Lewis, Ramon (Rom). (2012). Effects of Cooperative Learning on Students at An Giang University in Vietnam. **International Education Studies** 5.1, 86-99.

Employees' Motivation and Management of Human Resources in Public Enterprises in Dukagjin's Plain

Ardian Berisha

PhD Cand. European University of Tirana

Abstract

This research is realized in city of Peja, in which included 30 employees of public enterprises that operate in this city. Participants were aged between 25-48; they were 8 females and 22 males. For the data collection is used an applied questionnaire with 12 questions. The first hypothesis of this research: "Motivation at work has a positive relation with the management of human resources" is made correlative analysis and we have this statistical production [$r = .430^*$, $p < .018$], a result that supports the hypothesis of this research.

Keywords: Motivation, management, human resources

Introduction

The purpose of this research has been to see if motivation has a positive relation with management of human resources. In analyzed part of the literature is cited motivation, motivation at work and the management of human resources. After rising of the hypothesis and research realization is concluded that motivation of employees at work has a positive relation with the management of human resources.

Literature Reviews

Motivation is a specific need or desire that presses the organism and directs its behavior toward to a goal. All motives are put in motion by some kind of incentives: Body condition, low level of sugar in blood or dehydration or a feeling as loneliness, guilty or anger. When something causes a directed behavior toward to a goal, we say that it has motivated the individual (Morris & Maisto, 2008).

Motivation usually is defined as something that directs the behavior? What is included here? Psychologists who study the motivation are concentrated in three main issues. First one, what is it that causes a person to make an act? Second, what leads a person to a certain goal? And third, what makes a person to be reluctant in his attempts to achieve that goal (Musaj, 1999).

People are motivated to seek for social equality in the rewards they take for the high performances. According to him the result from job includes: payment, recognition, promotion, social relationships, internal reward, rewards of different inputs like time, experience, attempts, education and loyalty. It suggests that people have tendencies to see the results and their contribution as a report and then they compare these reports with the others and to turn back to motivation if this report is high (Adams, 1965).

There are three main categories of motives: biological motives, stimulant motives and learned motives in society. Biological motives as hunger, thirst, temperature regulation and sex have a determined physiological base. Stimulant motives as sensory stimulation, quest, curiosity, pleasure and relationships with the others, and competence etc make the individual to seek sensory stimulation through interaction with environment. Learned motives in society as success, power and attachment are mainly determined from learning and have a base in social experiences (Pettijohn, 1997).

Which are needs and expectations of citizens and how can they affect in the behavior and their performance at work. Motivation is a complex topic, this something very personal and is affected from many variables (Farren, 2000), reminds us twelve human needs that have been around from beginning of written history: family, health, prosperity, work, career,

economy, learning, shelter, social and spiritual interactions, community, free time, mobility and environment and safety. Work and private life in the new millennium will continue to revolve around twelve human needs (Farren, 2000).

Motivation at the work place plays a central role in the field of management practically and theoretically. Managers see motivation as an integral part of equation of the performance in all levels, whereas organizational researchers see it as a basic building block in the development of the useful theories and practices of the effective management. In fact topic of motivation describes many subfields that constitute: study of management, leadership, including in teams, performance of management, managerial ethics, decision and organizational changes. Many business managers today aren't aware for the effects that motivation can have (has) in their business and for this reason is important for them to learn and understand factors that determine the positive motivation in the work place (Atkinson, 1964).

Managers should understand what motivates the employees within the context of the roles they perform. From the all functions that a manager performs, employees' motivation is probably the most complicated one. This is because that which motivates employees changes continually (Bowen & Radhakrishna, 1991). Many years ago, theoreticians have tried to reveal what motivates people. The most distinguished are: Taylor (1856-1917), Mayo (1880-1949), Maslow (1908- 1970), McGregor (1906-1964) dhe Herzberg (1923-2000). By all means the motivation is so important that the theoreticians still continue to develop their theories for motivation. This entire are build on the basis of the old theories .Theory is based in five requirements or needs.

1. **Survival**- Initially people should fulfill survival necessities or to win enough money to buy food and clothes.
2. **Safety** –When are fulfilled these needs, people will be safe. At work this means to have a safe work place and continues incomes.
3. **Society**- when people feel safe and ask for friends and social activities
4. **Status**-Highest orders should be fulfilled .First is the status-people should feel respected for that who they are.
5. **Self-fulfillment** –Finally, this is what Maslow called self-requirement in order to achieve the goal

Management in general meaning of the word has these synonyms: placement, regulation, planning, inspection, organization, direction, goal achievements, realization and also domination, manipulation, incurrence and fraud etc. If we analyze all these synonyms we can conclude that these include: regulation, planning, organization, direction or realization. All these have the meaning of a one way process, the manager says to his "inferior" employees what they should work. Manager decides what to work, whereas those "under" (inferiors) are equipments to achieve a certain goal. They often call the manager "boss" whereas his assistant "the right hand", because the right hand does exactly what the head says. Managers are called supervisors, because is presupposed that supervisors have excellent views in certain situations (Ramosaj, 2007). Human resources are people (including their knowledge, abilities and skills), who perform concrete duties within the enterprise. Resources present mean through which enterprises, during the fulfillment of their mission, they transform these resources into new values to use them according to the needs and requirements of the market. People that deal with the changing of the organizational structure and the leadership of the enterprises are called managers. Meanwhile, the function of planning, human resources, leadership and the inspection of works in the enterprise present the management. Management of the human resources is a scientific discipline which for subject has the human, his duties, education, motivation, reward etc. Management realizes his intentions as a function using necessary human and physical resources. Management of human resources is a systematic work of a strategic character which in the process of management has to do with the relations between the enterprise and the employees with the processes: employment, integration and education of the employees .Management of human resources is considered as an asset with critical importance through which the managers achieve their objectives, secure the stability of the enterprise and its competitive abilities (Havolli, 2009).

The nature of human beings is pretty complex with a entirety of needs, desires and aspirations, which are carried in their work place, determine and explain motives ,behavior and attitude that they adapt during the realization of the their concrete duties within the frame of business organizations. The interest of the scientists and managers to study this wide diapason of factors has been increasing and their importance is considered indisputable for three main reasons: a) For the versatile recognition of human nature and that is one of the main aspects that determine the organizational way of work, of its projection, leadership style that must be followed, forms of rewards that should be applied ,forms and methods of inspection, the scale of centralizing authority and the way to solve conflicts etc. b) For human resources that play a determinant role in the general performance frame of organization. c) For the today's environment in which operate

business organizations, where social elements take increasingly paramount importance, where the managers have understood that people's professional education of motivated people in the most appropriate way is a crucial condition on further using and development of modern technology and also to keep the long-term competitive position (Llaci,2008).

Hypothesis "*Motivation at work has a positive relation with the management of human resource*

Methodology

Participants

In this research have participated 30 participants who are employees in different public enterprises in commune of Peja. Their age was 25-48 whereas according to the gender distribution there were 8 females and 22 males. Participation of the respondents has been voluntary with a casual meeting with them in city of Peja.

Instrument

For the collection of the data are used a questionnaire for motivation at work which has 12 questions which were divided: 1=strongly I don't agree, 2=I don't agree, 3=neutral, 4=I agree, 5= I strongly agree. First six questions were about internal motivation at work and the last six for external motivation at work.

Procedure

To realize this research we firstly had a random meeting with some citizens who declared that are employed in certain public enterprises. They declared if they want to participate voluntarily to fill in the questionnaire. During the realization of the questionnaire there wasn't any uncertainty about the questions and for about five minutes they filled in the questionnaire. Whereas for the data elaboration was used statistical program SPSS.

Results

Table 1: Correlation between motivation at work and management of human resources

Correlations		Motivation at work	Management of human resources
Motivation at work	Pearson Correlation	1	.430*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.018
	N	30	30
Management of human resources	Pearson Correlation	.430*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	
	N	30	30

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

To testify the first hypothesis of this research: "Motivation at work has a positive relation with the management of human resources" is made correlative analysis and we have this statistical production [$r = .430^*$, $p < .018$].

Conclusions

In this study primarily is analyzed relevant literature for motivation and is concluded that it is the internal force or energy of a human that directs his behavior towards an activity or a certain purpose. Whereas motivation at work is concluded that is a complex process and very important one which plays a dominating role in the performance of employees in the frame of their activity in the enterprise. Therefore managers must be very careful and conscious for the way and strategy they use to manage their employees. Importance of motivation at work is best illustrated by Maslow theory featured to the analyzed part of literature. Whereas regarding to the management of human resources is understood that is presents and important component put within the enterprises that means leadership or direction, preparation and functioning with human resources. In the other hand motivation at work without any doubt is interrelated with the management of the human resources, so this research is led by such hypothesis. To testify the first hypothesis of this research: "Motivation at work has a positive relation with the management of human resources" is made correlative analysis and we have this statistical production [$r = .430^*$, $p < .018$]. This result is important and it supports in principle the first hypothesis of this research. Although many times can

be perceived that commitment and activity of the managers is low in comparison with human resources in public enterprises and from this results that they are very active in the commitment of the human resources and in general the employees motivation at work .

References

Adams, J. S. (1965). *Inequity in social exchange*. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2) (pp. 267-299). New York: Academic Press.

Havolli, Y. (2009). Menaxhimi i burimeve njerëzore. faqe 10

Llaci, Sh. (2009). Menaxhimi", Tiranë, f. 286.

Maisto, A.A., & Morris, G. C. (2008). *Understanding Psychology*. Pearson Education

Musai, B. (1999). *Psikologji edukimi*. Toena. Tiranë

Pettijon, T. (1997). *Psikologjia një hyrje koncize*. Dukagjini. Pejë

Ramosaj B. (2007).. *MANAGEMENT, Bazat e menaxhimit*. Prishtinë.

Teoria e Maslow(1908-1970)

Questionnaire

Circle "1--" If you strongly disagree

Circle "2"-- If you don't agree

Circle "3" --If you are neutral

Circle "4"--- If you agree

Circle "5" –If you strongly agree

Nr.	Declarations	1	2	3	4	5
1.	I am here to do this job to and to achieve an goal.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I go to work voluntarily.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am very pleased when I work	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I try to do my best.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I love my job because from the incomes I take I hold my family.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I work only to provide money and welfare.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am ready to do extra work if my manager asks me to do that.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I resist the pressure of the management because I want to keep my job.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	From me it is required to perform quickly	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The manager continually requires from us to work and usually under pressure.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Sometimes the break time partially we have to use at work.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	From our work the organization where we work achieves positive results.	1	2	3	4	5

Tables

1. I am here to do this job to and to achieve a goal.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
You disagree	5	16.7	16.7	16.7
You are neutral	8	26.7	26.7	43.3
Valid You agree	10	33.3	33.3	76.7
You strongly agree	7	23.3	23.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

2. I go to work voluntarily.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	You disagree	8	26.7	26.7
	You are neutral	14	46.7	73.3
	You agree	7	23.3	96.7
	You strongly agree	1	3.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

3. I am very pleased when I work.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	You strongly disagree	3	10.0	10.0
	You disagree	4	13.3	23.3
	You are neutral	14	46.7	70.0
	You agree	7	23.3	93.3
	You strongly agree	2	6.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

4. I try to do my best

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	You strongly disagree	1	3.3	3.3
	You disagree	2	6.7	10.0
	You are neutral	8	26.7	36.7
	You agree	12	40.0	76.7
	You strongly agree	7	23.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

5. I love my job because from the incomes I take I hold my family

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	You strongly disagree	1	3.3	3.3
	You disagree	3	10.0	13.3
	You are neutral	13	43.3	56.7
	You agree	5	16.7	73.3
	You strongly agree	8	26.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

6. I work only to provide money and welfare.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	You strongly disagree	1	3.3	3.3
	You disagree	4	13.3	16.7
	You are neutral	11	36.7	53.3
	You agree	11	36.7	90.0
	You strongly agree	3	10.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

7. I am ready to do extra work if my manager asks me to do that.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	You disagree	6	20.0	20.0
	You are neutral	7	23.3	43.3

	You agree	13	43.3	43.3	86.7
	You strongly agree	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

8. I resist the pressure of the management because I want to keep my job.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	You disagree	2	6.7	6.7
	You are neutral	12	40.0	46.7
Valid	You agree	11	36.7	83.3
	You strongly agree	5	16.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

9. I am asked to perform quickly.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	You disagree	1	3.3	3.3
	You agree	14	46.7	50.0
Valid	You strongly agree	15	50.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

10. The manager continually requires from us to work and usually under pressure.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	You disagree	1	3.3	3.3
	You are neutral	1	3.3	6.7
Valid	You agree	11	36.7	43.3
	You strongly agree	17	56.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

11. Sometimes the break time partially we have to use at work.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	You are neutral	2	6.7	6.7
	You agree	10	33.3	40.0
Valid	You strongly agree	18	60.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

12. From our work the organization where we work achieves positive results.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	You agree	9	30.0	30.0
Valid	You strongly agree	21	70.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0

School Principals' Opinions About Level of their Entrepreneurship

FATMA KÖYBAŞI

CELAL TEYYAR UĞURLU

Cumhuriyet University

Abstract

The aim of the research is to find out that how they evaluate level of entrepreneurship and what sort of individual and environmental problems during they improve their sufficiency of entrepreneurship. The qualitative research's study group is composed of 20 principals in center of Kocaeli in 2014-2015 years. Inverse sampling technical is used. The data is collected semi-structured interview. The data is analyzed by descriptive analysis. One of the results is that the most of school principals who have got high level of entrepreneurship (f=7) utter their entrepreneurship's level link to such as diversity, innovation, activity and performance. Half of the school principals who have got low level of entrepreneurship utter their level link to lag behind with developing world. Principals who have high level of entrepreneurship (f=5) have problems about over responsibilities of individual life during improving their sufficiency of entrepreneurship. As well as, the principals have problems such as lack of communication and motivation. In view of environmental conditions, all of participants have problems about improving their sufficiency of entrepreneurship such as work ethic and value conflict and different beliefs, bureaucracy and resource competition. In parallel with the results, there are various suggestions.

Keywords: entrepreneur; entrepreneurship; sufficiency of entrepreneurship; school principal.

Introduction

The education staffs have two power as interior and exterior power to start a work and carry out the work. The means of interior power is that comprise of physical and environmental factors and the means of exterior power is that comprise of spiritual and persons' belief about self-reliance and self-efficacy. It is a expected case that teachers and principals have powers both interior and exterior power. But it may not be possible that these powers don't merge because of differences in workplace environment, relationships or their personal life. If exterior powers are more than interior power, the quality of education may be affected negatively. If interior powers are more than exterior power and interior power ensure the exterior powers' refreshment, the quality of education may be a better level than the before. Based on this, entrepreneurship can be qualified as one of interior powers that have importance. Entrepreneurs who see opportunities that others can't see and go into production the idea and they are to provide added value for society (Yıldırım, 2013:25).

Entrepreneurship take an active role in democracy, economic development and personal welfare (Top, 2012:36). Schools are important to bring up entrepreneurship students and this is a necessity in changing education needs. The method of acquisition of entrepreneurship behaviors may be acquisition of entrepreneurship for students as well as it may be displaying role model in schools. In the study the hypothesis is that principals display role model regarding this issue and for Aydın (2010) principals must prove that continuous and constructive change are terminal quality. Existence of school principals who show entrepreneurial behaviours and learning leadership and put into production innovation and creative ideas that may become positive effects. For school principals' entrepreneur behaviors are that achieving the schools' aims, working through differential for their schools and be self-denying to advance organizational climate and culture. It depends on school principals who management is not only use force and authority but also working hard and taking responsibility to form as learning, independent, creative and innovator schools (Özden, 1998:9). To find out how school principals evaluate level of entrepreneurship and what sort of individual and environmental problems during they improve their sufficiency of entrepreneurship may give clues to form as learning, independent, creative and innovator schools. In this context, the aim

of the research is to find out that how they evaluate level of entrepreneurship and what sort of individual and environmental problems during they improve their sufficiency of entrepreneurship.

Method

The study is a qualitative research and used phenomenological model. The data is collected semi-structured interview form that contains three questions. The obtained data is analyzed by descriptive analysis. The study group is composed of 20 principals who works at different schools that located in center of Kocaeli in 2014-2015 academic years. Purposive sampling method and inverse sampling technical is used. One of the inverse sampling is contains 10 principals who have low sufficiency of entrepreneurship and the other group is 10 principals who have high sufficiency of entrepreneurship. There is the study groups' demographic information on Table 1.

Table 1: Data Related Participants' Demographic Information

Name	Gerund	Branch	State of education	Seniority
H1	Woman	School teaching	Lisans	6
H2	Man	School teaching	Postgraduate	3
H3	Man	Science teaching	Lisans	11
H4	Woman	Social sciences teaching	Lisans	3
H5	Man	School teaching	Lisans	2
H6	Man	School teaching	Lisans	11
H7	Woman	Social sciences teaching	Lisans	2
H8	Man	Mathematics teaching	Lisans	5
H9	Woman	Art teaching	Lisans	10
H10	Man	School teaching	Associate D.	13
L1	Man	Mathematics teaching	Lisans	5
L2	Man	Turkish teaching	Lisans	16
L3	Woman	English teaching	Lisans	3
L4	Man	Social sciences teaching	Lisans	11
L5	Woman	School teaching	Lisans	4
L6	Man	Turkish teaching	Lisans	6
L7	Man	School teaching	Lisans	7
L8	Woman	School teaching	Lisans	12
L9	Woman	School teaching	Associate D.	20
L10	Man	Gym teaching	Lisans	13

Findings

In the part, there are findings how they evaluate level of entrepreneurship and what sort of individual and environmental problems during they improve their sufficiency of entrepreneurship. It is received the schools 'principal opinions to find out their perception level related to that question 'what do you think about your entrepreneurship level?' .

The high level of entrepreneur principals' opinions are as below:

I am aware that all of varied and alternative field develops persons. I think that I am a entrepreneur every field as far as I can (H1,H7).

Since I follow the new improvement, varied and efficient fields ensure march. Therefore, entrepreneurship is important. I am aware of entrepreneur myself since sense of wonder turn into behaviors to break out of the routine (H2).

I think that I am too entrepreneur. Because when I start action, I don't think whether it will be or not. I believe that action will ok (H3).

I am entrepreneur. I have play active role in my career. I must open new ideas. In my opinion, the entrepreneurship means that to manage all of works and to conduct the school. (H4,H6).

I believe that I am entrepreneur but I know that entrepreneurship is limitless. (H5,H9).

My performance and personal characteristic make me think as a entrepreneur. (H8).

When I evaluate process of initialization and implementation of activities, I think that I am entrepreneur but it is my perception. Maybe, the things may be ordinary according to others. (H10).

The low level of entrepreneur principals opinions are as below:

I am not sufficient for any issue. But I believe that I am not entrepreneur. I think I must improve my entrepreneurship efficacy.(L1,L6).

I believe that I will be entrepreneur in my interest and talent field. But I think about the feature of affecting entrepreneurship is accumulation of knowledge. I am satisfied that I am not entrepreneur fairly (L2).

When I see recent developments and knowledge about entrepreneurship, I feel that I am not sufficient but I open new ideas (L3, L8).

By now, I was satisfied that I was entrepreneur for attempt to enhance economic and education opportunity as far as interests, aptitudes and talents. And in globalizing world, on one hand, change and development are continuous, on the other hand you can't stand the pace. So you feel that you are insufficient, very much (L4,L9).

I think I am not so entrepreneur because of drudge (L5,L7,L10).

It was asked that question 'what sort of personal problems to improve your entrepreneurship efficacy?' to find out the school principals' opinion about this issue. These are as below.

The responsibility of a mother may hinder entrepreneurship (H1).

I can't afford because of daily life activities and responsibilities (H2, H4,H7,H10).

The problem is to not keep up with the technology (H3).

Busy schedule and health problems (H5, H8).

Monotony may originate unwillingness but sometimes you want to do everything to get rid of the monotony. It must be habit. As well as, quality of the private life (H6).

I want to do a lot of work so that it prevents my works' qualities and things to do (H9).

A motivational and feeling with your back against the well (L1).

Lack of energy to do something in the life, married life, too much responsibilities, limited time (L2,L9).

The school management activities weaken me and it prevents to afford for entrepreneurship. Indeed, key entrepreneurship is to want and believe (L3,L7).

The problem about effective communication and the style of growing up restricted us. If we want or not, this circumstance prevents entrepreneurship (L4).

Lack of communication and materiality (L5,L10).

Busy schedule and workload prevents something to do (L6).

I have an idea I think I will delay the idea that day or tomorrow. But I never realize the idea (L8).

When we examine the school principals' opinion, the varied problems about personal life are the problems about showing entrepreneur behaviors that is understood. The most telling problems are private problems, busy Schedule and communication problems.

To find out the problems about the principals' environmental problems to improve their entrepreneurship, their opinion received about this issue and the question was asked: what sort of environmental problems do you have to improve your entrepreneurship?

The principals' quotation is given below:

It can be job environment and domesticity and off-and-on, problems encountered in school. These are prevented to be an entrepreneur person (H1).

that the quality is not considered at certain environment may be offending in the organization where I work. The other problems are domesticity and responsibility of woman. Conflict with expectation and things encountered (H2).

Resource shortage, cultural factors and parent insensitivity (H3, H9).

Social pressure, custom and traditions (H4, H5,H8).

Folks insensitivity and working person who avoid meddling cuts in entrepreneurship (H6).

My convictions and beliefs locks biases and the effort to manage it. Also, formal communication in hierarchical (H7).

That the works to do aren't considered and are not valued (H10).

Resource shortage, not to join seminar related to this subject lack of sightseeing. We can't digress from procedure (L1,L9).

Lack of knowledge, I don't know how I can do and how I can do better (D2,D10).

Unjust discrimination and entrepreneurship's significance remains unfilled and bringing the observers instead of in practice entrepreneurs (L3).

Although I don't expect something in return for my entrepreneur behaviors, I expect sense of respect. In my opinion, the community perspective is a major problem (L4).

To put into trouble due to procedure and not to provide financial opportunity and not being encouraged for entrepreneurship soul (L5,L7).

We can't get some support from personnel. Number of dutiful persons are decreasing (L6).

Holding one's tongue and making do duties to not bother anybody (L8).

Conclusion and Suggestions

In the part, there are conclusions and the recommendations along with these conclusions.

Considering the school principals' opinion about entrepreneurship level that the most of principals have high level of entrepreneurship (f=7) have stated as a entrepreneur related to diversity, innovation, and performance concepts. The half of principals have low level of entrepreneurship have stated that accumulation of knowledge and not keeping up the times prevents their entrepreneurship.

By comparison with level of entrepreneurship, in view of individual problems encountered, while the principals who have high level of entrepreneurship (f=5) have problem about responsibility for private life, the principals have low level of entrepreneurship have problem lack of motivation (f=3) and communication problems (f=3).

The principal's views about the environmental problems encountered to improve their entrepreneurship that society beliefs in where workplace, lack of knowledge due to struggle-dissension of values, bureaucracy and resource shortage are lined up.

Along with the explained conclusion above, suggestions are as follows:

To increase the principals' entrepreneurship level, they should be supply them in sercive training.

Seminars should be organized for them to improve their community skills and motivate.

They should be supported by the superintendent in order to express their ideas and practices when their ideas are conflicted with the beliefs, cultures of people.

By specifying the obstacle regulations for the principals' entrepreneur behaviors, new a regulation should be regulated as more flexible and open for improvement.

Along with the conclusion that sufficient resource should be for school principals' entrepreneurship, MEB must be fund sufficient resource for school to support principals' entrepreneur behaviors.

References

Aydın, M. (2010). *Eğitim yönetimi*. Ankara: Hatiboğlu Yayınevi.

Özden, Y. (1998). *Eğitimde dönüşüm, yeni değer ve oluşumlar*. Ankara: Pegem Yayıncılık.

Top, S. (2012). *Girişimcilik (Keşif Süreci)*. İstanbul: Beta Basım

Yıldırım, Y.T. (2013). Girişimcilik. N.Yelkikalan. (Eds.). *Girişim, girişimci, girişimcilik ve risk yönetimi kavramları*. İstanbul, Beta Yayıncılık, ss. 25-38.

The University Student's Motivation Level on Learning English

Assist. Prof. Esmira MEHDİYEV

Assoc. Prof. Celal Teyyar UĞURLU

Assist. Prof. Gonca USTA

Abstract

This study aims to determine the university students' level of motivation in terms of different variables. A study group of this research has been designed through one of the non-random sampling methods. Using appropriate sampling, 606 students from Faculty of Education of C.U. have been involved in this study. Motivation scale in English Language Learning developed by Mehdiyev, Usta, Uğurlu (2015) was used as an instrument of data collection. T-test and one - way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to resolve problems of this research. As a result of the research the motivation level of university students hasn't been revealed significantly different regarding to the gender variable. However, considering the t-test results of motivation scale dimensions, confidence, attitude and personal use, significant difference is seen in favour of women in personal use dimension. The level of language learning motivation of female students is higher than men's regarding to personal use dimension. However, men's and women's views don't differ significantly in attitude and confidence dimensions. University students don't present significant differences in terms of birth place, parent's education level, total motivation scores and confident, attitude and personal dimensions. Students' motivation levels are seen not to be influenced by the places such as village, provision or city where they have spent the most of their lifetime. At the same time the findings revealed that parental status variable in terms of primary, secondary and university graduates has no effects on students' motivation.

Keywords: Language Learning, Motivation Scale, Level of Motivation

Introduction

The process of learning English as a second language in addition to mother tongue can make a difference in motivation level of learners under the influence of different variables. In this case, motivation is emerging as an important element in learning a second language. Lightbown and Spada (2006) notes the importance of motivation and the interest of individuals in learning a second language. The learning motivation can also be affected by students' personalities, as well as the learning process and the environment. Ellis (1994) describes 'a successful learner' as someone who uses metacognitive strategies in the learning process. In addition to these skills, however, the importance of motivation may also be focused on. For example, less talented but highly motivated students can get better results.

Learning a second language and using this language appropriately requires ample of time. Therefore, motivation is seen as an important factor in this process. Namely, sufficient motivation may accelerate students' learning speed. It is important to reveal the students' views on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation sources that will stimulate their learning process in terms of managing the students' motivation. William and Burden (1997) in a similar way, draws attention on the importance of finding out the factors that will motivate the students in terms of teaching process and the environment.

Today learning English as a second language has an important role. Especially learning English is required for university students to increase the international literacy and to follow the current world actively. In this context, the level of motivation of university students and the variables that affect the learning motivation is emerging as a problem. Determining the students' motivation level and the factors their motivation affected by is very important in terms of improving the existing situation through increasing both students' and instructors' awareness.

Therefore, this study is determined at evaluating the students' motivation level and variables that may cause differentiation of their motivation levels in terms of gender, the place of residence, and father's education level.

Method

Study group

606 undergraduate students at the Faculty of Education of Cumhuriyet University constitutes the working group of the research. Distribution according to the independent variables of the study, such as gender, the place of residence and father's education level of the 606 students is presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

	Gender		The place of residence			Father's education level		
	Female	Male	Village	District	City	Primary school	High school	University
f	425	181	112	168	326	323	167	116
%	70.10	29.90	18.50	27.70	53.80	53.30	27.60	19.10

As seen in Table 1. 425 female (%70.10) and 181 male (%29.90) students were involved in this study. 112 (%18.50) of these students reside in village, 168 (%27.70) in district and 326 (%53.80) in city. In terms of father's education level, 323 (%53.30) of students' fathers have primary school, 167 (%27.60) high school, and 116 (19.10) university education level.

Data Collection Tool

As a Data Collection Tool, the Motivation Scale in Learning Language (MSLL) developed by Mehdiyev, Usta and Uğurlu (2015) was used. MSLL consists of three dimensions: Personal use, Attitude and Self-confidence. Personal use, the first dimension of the scale, consists of seven items. The item load factor has been found between 585 and 822 in this dimension. Cronbach Alpha value of this dimension was found to be 85. The second dimension of this scale, Attitude, consists of five items. The item load factor in this dimensions ranged from 562 to 793 and Cronbach Alpha value was calculated as 77. The third dimension of the scale is Self-confident, which consists of four items. The item load factor in this dimensions ranged from 598 to 849 and Cronbach Alpha value was calculated as 78. When construct validity of MSLL was examined, as a result of the confirmatory factor analysis $\chi^2=296,23$, $sd=98$, the p value was found significant ($p=.000$). χ^2/sd was calculated for evaluation of the model goodness of fit. Calculated χ^2/sd is 3,02'. This value is an indicator that MSLL shows a good association in general (Şimşek, 2007; Kline, 2011). It seems to be an acceptable range of calculated values when given criterions and calculated values are analyzed.

Data Analysis

SPSS 18 package program was used in data analysis. First, missing value and outlier value analysis were carried out on data. As a result, a datum was identified as a missing value and it was excluded from the analysis. Also normality test was performed on the data to choose parametric and nonparametric analysis. The data obtain from the MSLL has been observed of normal distribution. However, due to the unbalanced number of students in groups, a non-parametric test was preferred. In this direction, to resolve the sub-problems of the research Mann Whitney-U was used in bilateral comparison and Kruskal Wallis was used in comparison of three or more groups (Pallant, 2003). For descriptive statistics in this study frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation were calculated. Assessment ranges according to Likert-type five-point rating scale are considered as 1,00 to 1.80 "Strongly disagree"; 1.81 to 2.60 "Disagree"; 2.61 to 3.40 "Partly agree"; 3.41 to 4.20 "Agree"; 4.21 to 5.00 "Strongly agree".

Results

In this section, students' views on the motivation in language learning were analyzed according to variables such as gender, age, the place of residence and father's education level of the students. First, the level of motivation of students in learning language were examined. Total points and descriptive statistics calculated for the sub - dimensions are given in Table. 2

Table 2. MSLL Descriptive Statistics Results

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Total	1,00	5,00	3,27	,89	,001	,414
Self-confidence	1,00	5,00	3,27	1,28	-,114	-1,090
Attitude	1,00	5,00	3,28	1,00	,253	-,421
Personal use	1,00	5,00	3,76	1,02	-,763	,159

Students' motivation level in English language learning for total and subscale scores seems to be moderate. It also offers that the skewness and kurtosis coefficients show nearly normal distribution of the group within the whole scale and subscales.

These findings were obtained as a results of the study on student's perceptions related to the language learning in terms of their gender, age, the place of residence and father's education level variables.

How the level of students' perceptions on motivation differ between male and female students according to total scores and sub-scales is given in Table 3.

Table 3. Test results of Mann Whitney U carried out to determine how MSLL Scale Scope Size Sub-scale Scores differ between groups according to Gender Variable.

	Group	N	ST	SO	U	Z	p
Total	Female	425	132646.50	312.11	33953.50	-2.095	.036
	Male	179	50063.50	279.68			
Self-confidence	Female	425	127787.50	300.68	37262.50	-.399	.690
	Male	179	54922.50	306.83			
Attitude	Female	425	129741.00	305.27	36859.00	-.606	.544
	Male	179	52969.00	295.92			
Personal Use	Female	425	132386.50	311.50	34213.50	-1.966	.049
	Male	179	50323.50	281.14			

As it is seen in Table 3 there is a significant level of differentiation between male and female students in terms of language learning motivation. Motivation level of girls is higher than boys. When we make comparison according to sub-dimensions, we can see that Self-confidence and Attitude dimensions scores don't show significant differentiation between students, however, in terms of personal use dimensions female students' scores are significantly higher than male students' scores.

Students' motivation perception in terms of the place of residence variable.

It is seen that to the question, 'Where had they lived most before they came to university?', 101 students pointed *village*, 160 students pointed *district* and 345 students pointed *city*. Due to the differences between these numbers of categories, non-parametric test, Kruskal Wallis, was applied. The results of the analysis are given in Table 4.

Table 4. The results of the Kruskal Wallis-H Test, which was applied to reveal whether MSLL Scale scores differ according to the Place of Residence variable.

Score	Groups	N	\bar{x}_{sira}	χ^2	sd	p
Total	Village	112	288	2.54	2	.280
	District	168	320.20			
	City	326	300.22			
Self-confidence	Village	112	290.94	4.14	2	.126
	District	168	326.47			

Attitude	City	326	295.98	.491	2	.782
	Village	112	295.67			
	District	168	300.25			
Personal Use	City	326	307.87	1.14	2	.564
	Village	112	288.25			
	District	168	310.16			
	City	326	305.31			

As it is seen on the Table 4, students' total scores of motivation level in learning language according to the self-confidence, attitude and personal use sub dimensions don't vary significantly in terms of their place of residence. Thus, students' place of residence, village, district or city can't be accounted as a variable causing the differentiation of students' motivation level in language learning.

Students' motivation perception in terms of the Father's education level variable.

Examining the students' Fathers' education level, we can see that 323 students pointed primary school, 167 students pointed high school and 116 students pointed University. Due to the fact that the number of the categories is more than two and the number of groups is unbalanced Kruskal-Wallis analysis were carried out and the results were presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The results of the Kruskal Wallis-H Test, which was applied to reveal whether MSLL Scale scores differ according to the Father's Education Level variable.

Score	Groups	<i>N</i>	\bar{x}_{sira}	χ^2	<i>sd</i>	<i>p</i>
Total	Primary	323	306.71	.274	2	.872
	High School	167	298.13			
	University	116	302.28			
Self-confidence	Primary	323	301.33	2.181	2	.336
	High School	167	318.36			
	University	116	288.15			
Attitude	Primary	323	294.07	5.565	2	.059
	High School	167	297.89			
	University	116	337.84			
Personal Use	Primary	323	296.55	2.583	2	.275
	High School	167	300.96			
	University	116	326.50			

As it is seen on the Table 5, students' total scores of motivation level in learning language according to the self-confidence, attitude and personal use sub dimensions don't vary significantly in terms of Father's education level. It means that student's father's education level, being either primary, high school or university, can't be counted as a variable causing the differentiation of students' motivation level in language learning.

Results and Discussion

According to the results obtained from this study, it has been seen that students' motivation level in learning English language was found moderate. According to the gender variable, significant difference was observed in favor of girls in total motivation points. However, it has not been observed significant differentiation in self-confidence and attitude, sub-dimensions of the motivation scale, while significant differentiation was observed in favor of girls in personal use sub-

dimension. It has been revealed that the motivation level in language learning of females is higher than that of males. According to Hurst (2015), in order to improve communicative skills in English, it is necessary for learners to use this language in their daily life. Using the target language on campus life, in the language classes, they are developing their language skills day by day. However, students' language learning aptitude shouldn't be ignored on this point.

Examining the total scores of the motivation, it has been seen that according to the place of residence and father's education level variables and self-confidence, attitude and personal use sub scales, scores don't show significant differentiation. The students' motivation level isn't seen to have been affected by the place of residence; village, district or city, where they had spent the most part of their life. At the same time, father's education level variable in terms of being primary school, high school or university, doesn't seem to be significant on motivation of university students. However, according to both the place of residence and father's education level variables, motivation shows higher scores than average on personal use sub-dimension. University students are seen to have high perception in terms of personal use sub scale motivation level; their motivation level is high on learning English for personal use but they seem to be lack of necessary self-confidence and attitude towards putting their wish into practice.

According to the findings, students' attitude towards English learning and their self-confidence level are seen to be moderate. As stated Nizkodubov, Zyubanov and Johnson (2015) barriers, such as, fear to make mistakes, low interest to learn English, lack of time, much obligations, lack of self-confidence and lack of belief in own skills, makes difficulties to learn English language.

Referances

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hurst, E. (2015). Ellen Hurst (2015). The thing that kill us': student perspectives on language support in a South African university. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 20 (1), 78-91. DOI: 10.1080/13562517.2014.957269

Mehdiyev, Usta ve Uğurlu (2015). The impact of Content-based Instruction on language learning motivation and learning difficulties.Cumhuriyet University Scientific Research Project, Sivas.

Nizkodubov, G. Zyubanov, V. ve Johnson, A.V. (2015). The socio-psychological difficulties of learning the English language in the context of lifelong education. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 206, 210 – 214.

Lightbown, P.M. ve Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned*. (Fourth Edition), Oxford University Press. Access adress: [http://tr.scribd.com/doc/47136503/Lightbown-Spada quoted on 20/01/2015](http://tr.scribd.com/doc/47136503/Lightbown-Spada%20quoted%20on%2001/2015) .

Williams, M. & Burden, R.L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. A social constructivist approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

European Integration and Competitiveness of EU New Member States

Boris CHISTRUGA

Dr. hab, Univ. Prof., Academy of Economic Studies of Moldova

Rodica CRUDU

Dr., assoc. prof. Academy of Economic Studies of Moldova

Abstract

This research is intended to evaluate the influence of the European integration, through the EU financing dimension, upon the evolution of external competitiveness of countries part of the EU community since the enlargements of 2004 and, respectively, 2007, excluding Malta and Cyprus (hereafter called as New Member States (NMS)). The paper methodology is based on appropriate research of relevant economic indicators intended to evaluate the EU funds' influence on the industrial development and external competitiveness of NMS. Therefore, in the analysis performed there were figured out and calculated correlations between the following indicators: EU expenditure by NMS, Current Account to GDP ratio, Industrial Performance index, Global Innovation Index and Index of Economic Freedom. These indicators characterize the NMS' business environment, institutional framework and, consequently, the degree of international competitiveness. The research contributes to confirm the assumptions about the European integration and the EU financing instruments had important effects in improving the industrial performance, in particular, and international competitiveness of NMS, in general. However, the differences in the correlations calculated between EU financing received by the NMS and different analysed indicators, suggest that EU funds were not the only drivers of the increasing competitiveness of the analyzed countries.

Keywords: EU financing, Competitiveness, Industrial performance, Innovation.

1.Introduction

The European Union is one of the most developed economic regions in the world, registering prosperity levels above the world average. Despite this fact, there are visible socio-economic differences within EU countries, mostly between Western and Eastern EU member countries. Disparities became more evident after EU enlargements waves of 2004 and 2007, when former East European socialist countries, characterized by lower levels of economic progress joined the European community. The new member states (hereafter NMS) have benefited extensively from the European Union's funds, the primary goal of which is to foster the economic development of the region as a whole. European Union has developed and promoted various programs and provided different financing instruments in order to address the existing divergence. The main purpose of EU funds is to support various initiatives and projects to help the new accepted EU members (and not only) to promote convergence, to better integrate countries in the common economic structure and area, to foster economic development and, therefore, the external competitiveness of countries.

The main goal of this research is to identify the influence of EU financing upon the industrial performance and external competitiveness of countries that joined EU in 2004 and 2007, except Malta and Cyprus. The applied methodology relies on the analysis and interpretation of relevant economic indicators intended to evaluate the EU funds' influence on the industrial development and external competitiveness of NMS. For assessing the influence of EU financing on the economic development and, consequently, on external competitiveness of NMS, were analysed and tested several indicators. Most of the indicators (i.e. Ease of Doing Business; Industry, value added (annual % growth); ICT goods exports (% of total goods exports); FDI, net inflows (BoP, current US\$) and Global Competitiveness Innovation and Business Sophistication Index), when correlated to the amount of financing received by each NMS did not show any statistical interconnection and

the analyses performed, were not leading to any relevant conclusions. Therefore, in the analysis performed there were figured out and used the following indicators: EU expenditure by NMS, Current Account to GDP ratio, Industrial Performance index, Global Innovation Index and Index of Economic Freedom. These indicators characterize the NMS' business environment, institutional framework and, consequently, the degree of international competitiveness.

2. EU funds, industrial development and Competitiveness of NMS: literature review

The matter researched in this paper is of high concern for EU researchers and economists, it representing a milestone for the future orientation of various European Union's economic policies. Therefore, there is a variety of studies undertaken on this subject. The available literature is not heterogeneous, the vast majority of authors underlining the positive impact of European financing upon the NMS' economic development. They also express the necessity which NMS have had in EU financing to assure functional market mechanisms and effective institutions.

According to Roaf et al (2014) and Balázs P. et al (2014), since the mid 2000's, due to European integration and EU funding, the former socialist countries in Eastern Europe have seen an age of economic growth and macroeconomic stability. Balcerowicz et al (2013) and Rehnitz (2013) in their papers also noticed the substantial improvement of economic power of Eastern European countries since the integration into the EU, and consequently their increasing external competitiveness. Additionally, a KPMG report highlights the important accomplishments realized by East EU countries, in enhancing their economic potential, tangible transport infrastructure and environmental protection (KPMG, 2014). According to the mentioned report, these areas were neglected during the communist era, but, nowadays, play a huge importance for strong competitiveness of these countries.

Sohinger (2004) explains that the foreign direct investments (FDI) accompanied by the EU financing played a crucial role in assisting the former socialist countries in building a competitive environment for economic development. The same idea is promoted by Sanfey P. and Zeh S. (2012), which mention that the EU integration of NMS improved considerably their economic climate fostering the economic growth and industrial development. It is also mentioned that the most important achievements have been made by East EU countries in areas of innovation, business sophistication, and investment climate leading to a much more favourable ground for industrial growth. In the same context, Hagen T. and Mohl P. (2009) concluded that the allocation of European Union's funds towards NMS, had a positive impact on economic growth of states' regions, including the acceleration of industrial development. However, this improvement did not occur immediately, it requiring several years since the funds have been received and corresponding projects realized (Hagen T. and Mohl P., 2009). Paun (2014) and Becker (2012) in their works, also explain that there is a direct relationship between the absorption rate of EU funds and economic progress of East European countries (Paun, 2014; Becker, 2012). Even if many projects were oriented towards social development and less towards profit earning, the competitiveness in the NMS was enhanced.

Despite the variety of studies in the researched field, a clear identification of the EU funds impact on the competitiveness of NMS is ambiguous. Therefore, the main objective of this research is to identify the correlation between European structural financing and the industrial and overall competitiveness of NMS evolution. Consequently, there is measured the overall performance of countries in attracting EU financing, the efficiency of utilisation and its impact upon the industrial competitiveness. Leaders of economic development in the region and the countries lagging behind are identified. Last, but not the least, the possibilities to enforce the efficiency of financing, in order to obtain the higher returns, are assessed.

3. The interconnection between EU financing and external competitiveness of NMS

The NMS became members of the EU in 2004 and 2007, years preceding a long process of negotiations. In order to assure the necessary level of socio-economic compliance, the EU funded a wide range of projects in these countries, focused on institutional and legal empowering. More financing was provided as the countries became members of the community (Table 1). The primary goal of EU funding was to accelerate the economic development of NMS, reduce the existing income gap, find solutions for various socio-economic issues characteristic at that time (Balázs P. et al, 2014) and to help member countries to achieve certain objectives in various areas including economic cohesion (Becker, 2012). Five main structural funds work together to support economic development across all EU countries, in line with the objectives of the Europe 2020 strategy: The European Regional Development Fund (ERDF); The European Social Fund (ESF); The Cohesion Fund; European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD); European Maritime and Fisheries Fund (EMFF) and other investment funds (EC, 2014). Based on these funds, the EU poured billions of EUR to stimulate the economic development

not only in NMS, but of the union as a whole (Roaf et al, 2014). Table 1 provides information regarding the total financing received by EU NMS in the pre and post integration period (Table 1).

NMS benefited extensively from EU funds (Table 1), used to finance various projects oriented to infrastructure development, capacity building and institutional framework, competitiveness stimulation and entrepreneurial development. This fact created favourable conditions for the economic development of NMS and sound drivers for increased external competitiveness. As was mentioned above, in order to assess the influence of EU financing on the economic development and external competitiveness of NMS, were taken into analysis several indicators. Unfortunately, not all of the indicators, when correlated to the amount of financing received by each NMS, showed a statistical interconnection and were not leading to any relevant conclusions. Therefore, it was figured out that the most suitable indicator of showing external competitiveness evolution of NMS is the current account balance to GDP ratio. According to OECD (2016) and World Bank (2016), the ratio of the current account balance to the Gross Domestic Product (or % of GDP) provides an indication of the country's level of international competitiveness.

Table 1. Total EU funding for New Member States in the period 2000-2014, (EUR million)

	Baltic Countries			Central European Countries					South Eastern EU Countries	
	Estonia	Lithuania	Latvia	Poland	Slovakia	Slovenia	Czech Republic	Hungary	Romania	Bulgaria
2000	45	48	51	248	62	34	100	156	158	90
2001	33	70	57	328	69	56	99	195	248	160
2002	43	100	54	532	122	68	254	140	240	143
2003	75	307	79	684	104	59	228	190	303	176
2004	202	488	267	2720	388	282	816	713	572	292
2005	249	665	385	4029	609	366	1075	1357	634	286
2006	300	800	403	5306	696	406	1330	1842	693	361
2007	377	1044	675	7786	1083	390	1721	2428	1602	591
2008	368	1134	610	7639	1242	456	2441	2003	2666	972
2009	716	1790	710	9253	1192	616	2949	3569	2951	979
2010	808	1602	844	11822	1905	756	3416	3650	2317	1222
2011	505	1653	911	14441	1785	847	3029	5331	2659	1107
2012	954	1833	1179	15736	2287	932	4529	4177	3446	1732
2013	973	1881	1063	16179	2026	814	4893	5910	5561	1977
2014	668	1886	1062	17436	1669	1142	4377	6620	5944	2255
TOTAL	6316	15302	8351	114141	15239	7224	31258	38280	29995	12343

Source: Own processing with the European Commission data, available at: [http:// ec.europa.eu/](http://ec.europa.eu/) EU expenditure and revenue 2000-2014 data download (Accessed at 20.07.2016)

As FocusEconomics Consensus Forecasts (2015) explains „The current account is one of the two components of a country's balance of payments, the other being the capital account. It consists of the trade balance (the difference between the total value of exports of goods and services and the total value of imports of goods and services), the net factor income (difference between the return on investments generated by citizens abroad and payments made to foreign investors domestically) and net cash transfers, where all these elements are measured in the domestic currency” (FocusEconomics, 2015). Usually, if the current account to GDP ratio (CA to GDP) is positive and increasing in dynamics, countries are exporting more than importing, meaning a higher general level of external competitiveness. And vice-versa, if a country is importing much more than exporting and have a deficit, this is often a sign that the country is becoming relatively uncompetitive. Therefore, in order to have a general picture over the external competitiveness evolution of EU NMS, the change of the current account to GDP ratio of these countries were recorded and analysed for 2001-2014 period (Figure 1).

During the pre-crisis years, the countries faced relatively stable current account to GDP ratios, the values slightly decreasing in dynamics. During the deep crisis years 2008-2009, the countries faced a fierce drop in current account to GDP ratio this fact being characterized decreasing exports of NMS (Figure 1). In short, the negative values of current account to GDP ratio are associated with great trade deficits, meaning low levels of exports and high of imports as compared to GDP. Moreover, this indicator describes the huge decrease of inward FDI in these countries during the crisis as compared to pre-crisis and post crisis years, both meaning less competitive economies in relation with other countries (Balázs P. et al, 2014).

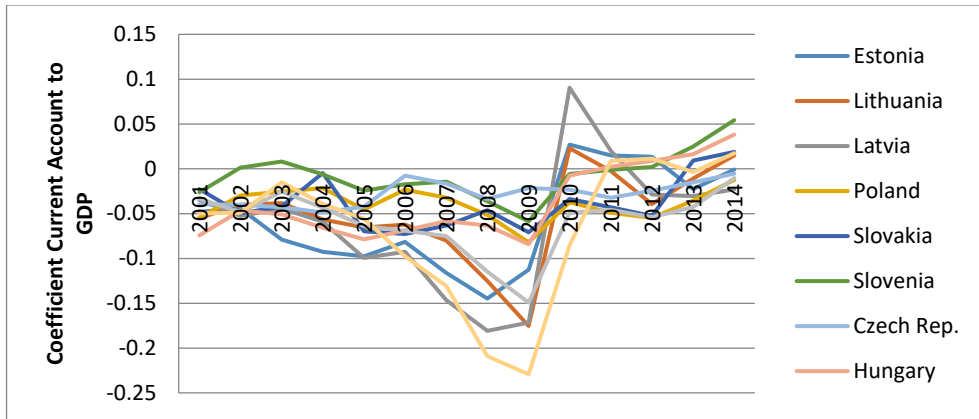


Figure 1. The evolution of Current Account to GDP ratio of EU NMS in the period of 2001-2014, (%)

Source: Own processing with the World Bank (2016a) data, available at: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/BN.CAB.XOKA.GD.ZS> (Accessed on: 02.08.2016)

Since 2009, the external competitiveness of NMS has constantly increased (especially in 2010), reaching in a short amount of time values higher than in the pre-crisis period (Figure 1). One of the drivers of external competitiveness of these countries is the received EU funding. It stimulated not only the economic development in the region, but also fostered social and business environment improvement (Balcerowicz et al, 2013). This interconnection is proved by the correlation index between the current account to GDP ratio and the amount of EU expenditure in the region. Consequently, it can be highlighted that the highest positive correlation of these indicators is registered by Hungary (0, 81), followed by Czech Republic (0, 66), Estonia (0, 50) and Slovenia (0, 44) (Table 3). Another range of countries are characterized by positive yet sensitively weaker correlation of these indexes and namely: Bulgaria (0, 26); Latvia (0, 21) and Slovakia (0, 20). Finally, countries with almost no correlation between current account to GDP ratio and the amount of EU financing are: Lithuania (0, 13); Romania (0, 03) and Poland with a slightly negative correlation of -0, 07. This variance among countries' indicators could be explained by the different economic policies promoted and their success in attracting EU funding. Also, it can be underlined the fact that most of EU funds received by NMS were not oriented towards profit generating facilities, domains which do not directly affect current account to GDP ratio.

Thus, as a general conclusion at this point it is worth to be mentioned that the East European former socialist countries registered lower external competitiveness levels before integration into the European Union, yet still higher than in the crisis years (Rechnitzer, 2013). Integrating deeper into the European Community and recovering from the economic crisis, since 2010 all analysed countries have impressively increased their level of competitiveness. The role of EU financing in enhancing external competitiveness is more visible for some countries and less for the others. Therefore, in order to go deeper into the research issue, other indicators (i.e. Business Innovation Index, Competitive Industrial Performance Index and Index of Economic Freedom) are considered for further analysis.

3.1. The influence of EU funding upon the Innovation Performance of NMS

The national competitiveness can be raised by increasing innovation performance. Innovation enables the countries to adapt to the rapid pace of technological change in order to increase their competitiveness. The analysis of the impact of innovation on competitiveness, confirms that the "innovation paradigm" is sustainable, concerning the recovering competitive advantages lost during the economic crisis (Ciocanela A.B. and Pavelescu A.B., 2015).

Competitive enterprises are the key drivers in a country's competitiveness. They create the core of the economic development. The improving of innovation performance leads to the increasing of national competitiveness. Since their integration into the EU market, the NMS countries have achieved notable results in developing innovative capacities (Roaf et al., 2014). This fact is confirmed by high scores and ranks mentioned in various analyses performed by many research organizations. One of the most reliable assessments is provided by Johnson Cornell University in partnership with INSEAD and World Intellectual Property Organization, which, since 2007, publish the Global Innovation Index. This index ranks countries according to innovation performance, which takes into consideration the countries' inputs such as: R&D spending, governmental policies, industrial infrastructure, technological sophistication, human capacity and business markets (capital) and outputs: knowledge, competitiveness and wealth (WIPO, 2015).

Innovation is one of the most important priorities of the European Union development strategy. Consequently, most of expenditure is oriented to either directly financing R&D or stimulating the demand for innovation and high tech products. The EU NMS are not an exception from this general EU objective, the majority of projects funded by EU are oriented towards fostering the technology transfer and innovation development in the region. Figure 2 represents the evolution of countries' innovation performances according to the Global Innovation Index (Figure 2). The analysis of data provided by the Global Innovation Index (GII) represented in the Figure 2 highlights the fact that all EU NM countries increased their innovation competitiveness ranks. This shows that almost all NMS increased their innovative capacities, which is one of the most powerful drivers of economic development. The calculation performed, prove that in most of the NMS there is a strong positive correlation between the amounts of financing received by each country and GII. Thus, the highest correlation is registered by Latvia (0, 96), Poland and Lithuania (0, 85), followed by Slovenia (0, 82), Bulgaria (0, 76), Czech Republic (0, 75). Positive, but still moderate correlation of these indicators is also registered by Hungary (0,65), Estonia (0, 58) and Romania (0, 42). The only exception is Slovakia, the correlation indicator of which is negative (-0, 82) (Table 3).

This fact means that for all NMS, except Slovakia, the growth of EU financing had a beneficial impact upon the improvement of innovative capacities. These findings are in the same trend with the findings of Ciocanela A.B and Pavelescu Fl. M. (2015), that figured out that "the improving with +5% of innovation performance, according to Innovation Union Scoreboard, leads to the increase of the national competitiveness with +2.32 points, calculated in accordance with IMD World Competitiveness Yearbook, and if the innovation performance will increase with +10% the national competitiveness will increase with +4.63 points" (A.B. Ciocanela and Fl. M. Pavelescu, 2015)

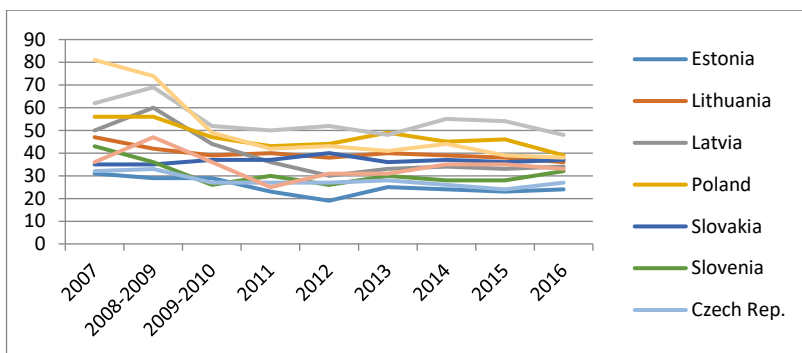


Figure 2. Evolution of Global Innovation Index rank of NMS, 2007-2016

Source: Own processing with the Global Innovation Index, available at: <https://www.globalinnovationindex.org/analysis-indicator>. (Accessed on 25.07.2016)

The correlation between EU funds and Innovation performance of the analysed countries highlights that EU expenditure in the region favoured the innovation due to the interconnectivity with all areas of economic activity, starting with research and development (R&D) and finishing with distribution and retailing. Some sectors are characterized by rapid change and radical innovations, others by smaller, incremental changes. In high-tech sectors, R&D plays a central role in innovation, whereas other sectors rely to a greater degree on the adoption of existing knowledge and technology. Low- and medium-tech industries are often characterized by incremental innovation and by the adoption of foreign technology. New technologies based on broad areas of scientific research—such as energy, material and biological sciences and information technologies—that are rapidly diffused are examples of technological breakthroughs. Such new technologies are probably fuelling the next wave of global economic growth. A dozen new economically disrupting technologies that might have a huge effect in years to come include mobile Internet, cloud technology, advanced robotics, autonomous vehicles, energy storage, 3-D printing, advanced materials and renewable energy (Manyika et al, 2013). These technologies have the potential to affect billions of consumers, hundreds of millions of workers and trillions of dollars of economic activity across different industries. In the long run, the ability of a country to use existing and to innovate new technology determines its economic performance through a process of structural change. Nevertheless, the analysis of correlation of EU funds with Competitive Industrial Performance Index highlights a little bit different picture.

3.2. The correlation analysis between NMS' Competitive Industrial Performance Index and EU funding

According to the UNIDO (United Nations Industrial Development Organization) the Competitive Industrial Performance (CIP) measures the capacity of countries to increase their presence in international and domestic markets, whilst developing industrial sectors and activities with higher value added and technological content. As a performance indicator, CIP reflects a country's productivity, structural change and competitiveness. These concepts are taken as a departure point for the selection of indicators under the three major dimensions. The first dimension includes manufacturing value added (MVA) per capita, which is the ratio of output to the country's population. This indicator represents the level of overall productivity and 4 quantifies the country's capacity to produce. Another indicator of the same dimension shows the extent of the realization of domestic manufacturing products in external markets. The second dimension of the CIP consists of indicators relating to the intensity of industrialization and the quality of manufactures exports. As industrialization progresses, two forms of major structural change may occur. First, the manufacturing sector's position in the overall economy may strengthen (increased share of MVA in GDP) and second, a gradual shift from low-technology and resource-based to high-technology products may occur. Increasing levels of industrialization trigger the export of high-technology and high quality products. The third dimension comprises indicators on the country's share in the world market and thus introduces exogenous factors into the analytical framework of the CIP (UNIDO, 2015).

The analysis of the evolution of CIP values of the selected countries in the period of 2001 – 2012, underline the positive trend for all NMS in fostering their industrial competitiveness (Figure 3).

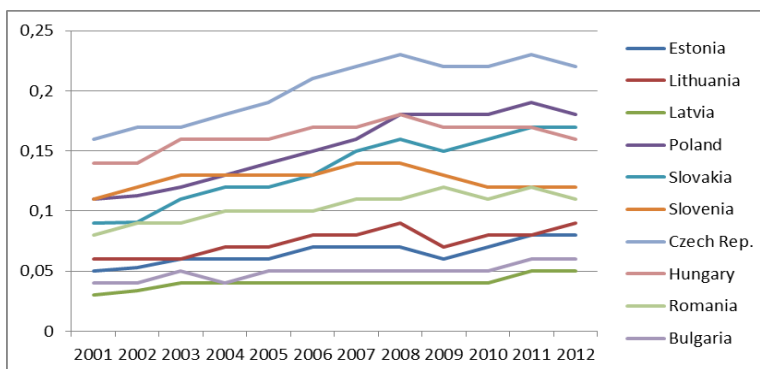


Figure 3. Competitive Industrial Performance Index score of selected countries, 2001-2012

Source: Own processing with the UNIDO data, available online at: <http://www.unido.org/data1/Statistics/Research/cip.html> (Accessed on 05.08.2016)

According to CIP index, the industrial leader among the analysed countries is Czech Republic with CIP value - 0, 22, followed by Poland (0, 18), Slovakia (0, 17) and Hungary (0, 16). These EU transition economies are included in the top quintile of CIP 2016, as being among the world's most industrialized countries, mostly due to their export orientation, more focused on the European market. In the upper middle quintile of CIP are Slovenia (0, 12), Romania (0, 11), Lithuania (0, 09), Estonia (0, 08), Bulgaria (0, 06), while Latvia (0, 05) is included in the middle quintile of CIP (UNIDO, 2015). A strong interconnection between the evolutions of CIP Index and the EU expenditure in the region for almost all East EU states can be noticed. This fact is demonstrated by impressively high correlation index registered by Slovakia and Poland - 0, 94 and respectively of 0, 93; Romania 0, 86; Czech Republic 0, 85 and Latvia 0, 8. Strong correlations are, also, registered for Bulgaria 0, 76; Lithuania 0, 74 and Estonia 0, 71. Moderate correlation index could be assessed for Hungary, 0, 59. For all these countries, except Slovenia correlation index of which is -0,04, the increase of EU funding had a favourable impact upon the industrial development. These findings are in tandem with the growth rates of high tech exports, where Latvia (+299%), Poland (+174%), Slovakia (+165%), Bulgaria (+138%) and Lithuania (+103%) registered, in the period of 2001-2014, growth rates for high tech goods higher than 100% (Own calculations based on World Bank data, 2016). Despite the fact that the growth rate of high tech exports of Czech Republic is lower than comparing to the other analysed countries, the correlation is still the stronger, due to the higher industrialization level of Czech Republic in comparison with the other analysed countries. Moderate correlations for Hungary and Estonia and Slovenia are explained by the weak performances of these countries in increasing the high-tech exports, registering relative low growth rates (Slovenia: + 9%) or even negative growth rates (Hungary: -43% and Estonia: -41%) (World Bank, 2016b).

At this point, it can be concluded mentioned that investment in research and innovation from the EU budget has greatly improved scientific excellence in Europe and strengthened its competitiveness by improving industry's capacity to innovate in the period between 2007 and 2013 (EC, 2016). These statements are proved by the calculated correlation relations. Both relations between EU funds and GII and CIP Index reveal positive correlations, except for Slovakia (in case of EU financing and GII correlation) and Slovenia (in case of EU financing - CIP Index relation), which once again highlight the important role of European integration and European funds in fostering the economic competitiveness of NMS. The differences in the correlation relations, explain the variety of factors determining the competitiveness. The use of the composite index for performance analysis has not been free from controversy. Many statisticians argue that a composite index, while attempting to capture many things at the same time, essentially does not provide a precise measure of anything, and thus sends a simplistic and misleading message to policymakers about the complexity of the issue at hand. Despite this drawback, policymakers and development practitioners value a composite measure which summarizes complex processes in a single measure that can be used to benchmark their country's performance. Nevertheless, in our case, the correlations obtained suggest that EU funds contributed to the increase in the competitiveness of the analyzed countries, but were not the only drivers of it.

3.3. Correlation between EU Competitiveness and Economic Freedom of NMS

Each country, to greater or lesser extent, is aware of its basic needs. Basic prerequisites for national economic development, inter alia, – capital, especially in the form of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) which contributes more to growth than domestic investment (Borensztein, De Gregorio and Lee, 1998) and investment in infrastructure, knowledge creation and human capital – are crucial for innovative performance. Furthermore, though a country might have to rely on, or deal with exogenous factors such as the advantages of FDI, international aid and/or collaboration, in order to improve its performance, it has to start its own innovative work either in parallel or at some stage (Oukil, 2009) in order to solve local problems.

As a vital element of human dignity, autonomy, and personal empowerment, economic freedom is valuable as an end itself. Just as important, however, is the fact that economic freedom is the key to achieving the broad-based economic dynamism that ensures lasting inclusive growth and increased prosperity for society as a whole. As Friedrich Hayek (1944) foresaw decades ago, "the guiding principle in any attempt to create a world of free men must be this: a policy of freedom for the individual is the only truly progressive policy." (Hayek, 1944)

Analysing data from Global Competitiveness Report and Economic Freedom of the World, it is revealed the existence of a positive connection, the level of economic freedom significantly influencing the competitiveness of selected countries (Table 2). Comparison of the ranks registered, in different years, by countries in the GCI and IEF rankings does not lead to any relevant finding, due to the fact that during the years the number of countries taken into analysis and the methodology was changed. Nevertheless, the regression analysis, performed by Bujanca and Ulman (2015), shows that countries rated as highly economically free are also perceived as being high competitive (Bujanca and Ulman, 2015). That is why, another important dimension which should be analysed is the effect of EU funding upon NMS' economic freedom score.

Table 2. Evolution of EU NMS in the Global Competitiveness Index (GCI) Ranking and Economic Freedom (IEF) Ranking, 2007, 2016 (position)

Countries		Baltic Countries			Central European Countries					S-E EU Countries	
Index	Years	Estonia	Lithuania	Latvia	Poland	Slovakia	Slovenia	Czech Rep.	Hungary	Romania	Bulgaria
GCI	2007 (out of 125)	25	40	36	48	37	33	29	41	68	72
	2016 (out of 140)	30	36	44	41	67	59	31	63	53	54
IEF	2007 (out of 157)	12	22	41	87	40	58	31	44	67	62
	2016 (out of 178)	9	13	36	39	56	90	21	58	61	60

Source: Own processing with the WEF (2015, 2006) and Heritage Foundation data (2016, 2007)

The Index of Economic Freedom, calculated since 1996 by The Heritage Foundation and The Wall Street Journal, takes a comprehensive view of economic freedom. Some of the aspects of economic freedom that are evaluated are concerned with a country’s interactions with the rest of the world—for example, the extent of an economy’s openness to global investment or trade. Most, however, focus on policies within a country, assessing the liberty of individuals to use their labour or finances without undue restraint and government interference (Miller, T, Kim A.B, 2016). The greater is the score registered by a country, more liberal is considered the economy. If the country is characterized by higher economic freedom, more competitive it will be considered (Miller, T, Kim A.B, 2016). As a result, the present study shows that countries with institutions and policies more consistent with economic freedom, have more rapid economic growth, higher investment rates, higher income levels and more rapid reductions in poverty rates. Figure 4 shows the evolution of the IEF for NMS in the period of 2006-2016 (Figure 4).

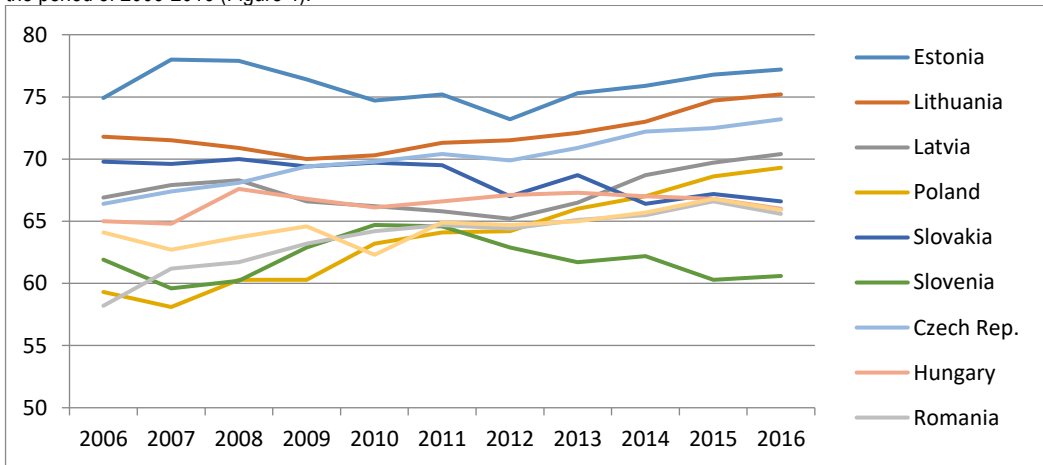


Figure 4. Index of Economic Freedom score by NMS (max 100 points)

Source: Own processing with the Heritage Foundation data, available at: <http://www.heritage.org/index/>. (Accessed on 02.08.2016)

According to Figure 4, most of the NM countries have increased their score in the IEF ranking since 2006. One of the factors relies on the hypothesis that the EU financing, which was allocated to the institutional strengthening and fostering of the business environment, positively influenced the economic liberty and respectively, higher external competitiveness for NMS. The highest correlation between the allocation of EU financing and the evolution of Economic Freedom Index is

registered for Poland (0, 95), Czech Republic (0, 88) and Romania (0, 8), while the lowest correlation indicator for Slovakia (-0,55) and Estonia (-0,6) (see Table 3).

Conclusions

In conclusion it can be stated that the European Integration of Baltic, Central and South Eastern European countries provided new opportunities for economic development. The business environment and economic infrastructure improvement has led to the increased international competitiveness of the countries. One of the most important instruments of European integration is the redistribution of financial resources or EU funding, which is intended to assure economic and social cohesion between the Western EU countries and Eastern ones. The NMS have benefited extensively from EU funding, especially after their integration into the EU, oriented towards different areas of economic activity and capacity building. Therefore, European integration of NMS, and therefore EU funding, resulted in impressive outcomes such as infrastructure development, empowered economic potential, business activity acceleration and the improvement of the countries' economic attractiveness on the international markets.

EU financing had a beneficial impact upon the improvement of innovative capacities. The correlation between EU funds and Innovation performance of the analysed countries highlights that EU expenditure in the region has greatly improved scientific excellence in Europe and strengthened its competitiveness by improving industry's capacity to innovate. These statements are proved by the calculated correlation relations (Table 3).

Table 3. Correlation indexes between EU financing and selected indicators

Correlation Index	EU fin. & CA to GDP	EU fin. & GII	EU fin. & CIP	EU fin. & Econ. Free. Index
Baltic Countries				
Estonia	0,5	0,58	0,71	-0,6
Lithuania	0,13	0,85	0,74	0,08
Latvia	0,21	0,96	0,81	-0,33
Central European Countries				
Poland	-0,07	0,85	0,93	0,95
Slovakia	0,21	-0,82	0,94	-0,55
Slovenia	0,44	0,82	-0,04	0,53
Czech Republic	0,66	0,75	0,85	0,88
Hungary	0,81	0,65	0,59	0,49
South Eastern EU Countries				
Romania	0,03	0,42	0,86	0,8
Bulgaria	0,26	0,76	0,76	0,6

Source: Own calculations

Since their accession to the EU, all the analysed countries have impressively increased their level of competitiveness. The role of EU financing in enhancing external competitiveness is more visible for some countries and less for the others. Both relations between EU funds and GII and CIP Index reveal positive correlations, except for Slovakia (in case of Business Innovation index) and Slovenia (in case of CIP Index), which once again highlight the important role of European integration and European funds in fostering the economic competitiveness of NMS. The differences in the correlation relations, explain the variety of factors determining the competitiveness in the analysed countries. Nevertheless, the regression analysis shows that countries rated as highly economically free are also perceived as being high competitive. The highest correlation between the allocation of EU financing and the evolution of Economic Freedom Index is registered for Poland - 0, 95; Czech Republic - 0, 88 and Romania - 0, 8, while the lowest correlation indicator for Slovakia - 0, 55.

Despite the differences in the correlations calculated between EU financing received by the NMS and different analysed indicators, the obtained results suggest that EU funds contributed to the increase in the competitiveness of the analyzed countries, but were not the only drivers of it. Therefore, the European integration and the EU financing instruments had important effects in improving the living conditions of EU citizens and in assuring competitive economic environment for business activities and research in the NMS.

References:

- Balázs P. et al (2014). 25 Years after the fall of The Iron Curtain. The State Of Integration Of East And West In The European Union. European Commission, 2014. ISBN 978-92-79-38535-3. [Online] Available: https://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/pdf/policy_reviews/east-west_inteграtion.pdf
- Balcerowicz L. et al (2013). Economic Growth in the European Union, Lisbon Council e-book. ISBN 978-9-0902-7915-2. [Online] Available: [http://www.lisboncouncil.net/growth/documents/LISBON_COUNCIL_Economic_Growth_in_the_EU%20\(1\).pdf](http://www.lisboncouncil.net/growth/documents/LISBON_COUNCIL_Economic_Growth_in_the_EU%20(1).pdf)
- Becker S. (2012). EU Structural Funds: Do They Generate More Growth? The CAGE– Chatham House Series, No. 3, December 2012. [Online] Available: https://www.chathamhouse.org/sites/files/chathamhouse/public/Research/International%20Economics/1212bp_becker.pdf
- Borensztein, E., De Gregorio, J. and Lee, J.W. (1998) How does foreign direct investment affect economic growth? *Journal of International Economics*, vol. 45, 115-135.
- Bujanca G. V., Ulman S.R. The Impact of the Economic Freedom on National Competitiveness in the Main Economic Power Centres in the World. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, Vol. 20 (2015), 94 – 103.
- Ciocanela A.B. , Pavelescu A.B. (2015). Innovation and competitiveness in European context. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 32, 728 – 737.
- European Commission (2016). EU financing by country 2000-2014. [Online] Available: http://ec.europa.eu/EU_expenditure_and_revenue_2000-2014_data_download
- EC (2016). EU research funding boosts scientific excellence and competitiveness, European Commission press release. Brussels, 25 January 2016. [Online] Available: http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-16-145_en.htm
- EC (2014). European Structural and Investment Funds. [Online] Available: http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/en/funding/
- Focus Economics (2015). Current Account (% of GDP). [Online] Available: <http://www.focus-economics.com/economic-indicator/current-account-balance> (12.08.2016)
- Hagen, T. and Mohl, P. (2009). "How does EU Cohesion Policy work? Evaluating its effects with regard to various outcome variables", Center of European Economic Research and University of Heidelberg
- Hayek F.A. *The Road to Serfdom* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944).
- KPMG (2014). EU funds in Central and Eastern Europe progress report 2007-2014. [Online] Available: <https://www.kpmg.com/SI/en/IssuesAndInsights/ArticlesPublications/Documents/EU-Funds-in-Central-and-Eastern-Europe.pdf>
- Manyika, J. Et al. (2013). *Disruptive Technologies: Advances That Will Transform Life, Business, and the Global Economy*. Washington, DC: McKinsey Global Institute
- Miller T., Kim A.B. (2016). Index of Economic Freedom. Chapter 2: Defining Economic Freedom. [Online] Available: <http://www.heritage.org/index/book/chapter-2> (15.08.2016)
- OECD (2016) Current Account to GDP ratio- external competitiveness indicator. [Online] Available: <https://data.oecd.org/trade/current-account-balance.htm> (14.08.2016)
- Oukil, M-S. (2009). Enhancing innovation for sustainable growth and competitiveness in North African countries. *International Journal of Technology Management*. Geneva. vol. 45, Issue 1/2.
- Păun C. (2014). The Socio-economic Impact of European Funds on Eastern European Countries, Volume 4, Issue 1. [Online] Available: http://www.irsr.eu/issue10/04_Paun_p49-56.pdf
- Rechnitzer J., Engyel I. (2013). The Competitiveness Of Regions In The Central European Transition Countries. [Online] Available: http://macrotheme.com/yahoo_site_admin/assets/docs/9LengyelIMR24.13191544.pdf
- Roaf J. et al (2014). 25 Years of Transition Post-Communist Europe and the IMF. ISBN: 978-1-49834-201-8. [Online] Available: https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/reo/2014/eur/eng/pdf/erei_sr_102414.pdf
- Sanfey P, Zeh S. (2012). Making sense of competitiveness indicators in south-eastern Europe. European Bank for Reconstruction and Development. [Online] Available: <http://www.ebrd.com/downloads/research/economics/workingpapers/wp0145.pdf>

Sohinger J. (2004). Transforming Competitiveness in European Transition Economies: The Role of Foreign Direct Investment. [Online] Available: http://ies.berkeley.edu/pubs/workingpapers/PEIF-17-Transforming_Competitiveness.pdf

The Heritage Foundation (2016). Index of Economic Freedom 2006-2016. [Online] Available: <http://www.heritage.org/index/explore>

UNIDO (2015). Industrial Development Report 2016. The Role of Technology and Innovation in Inclusive and Sustainable Industrial Development. Vienna, 2015. eISBN: 978-92-1-057637-6

WEF (2006). The Global Competitiveness Report 2006-2007. Geneva, ISBN-13: 978-1-4039-9636-7. p 16-17. [Online] Available: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_Global_CompetitivenessReport_2006-07.pdf (20.07.2016)

WEF (2015). *The Global Competitiveness Report 2015-2016*. Geneva, 2015, p.385. ISBN-13: 978-92-95044-99-9. [Online] Available: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/gcr/2015_2016/Global_Competitiveness_Report_2015-2016.pdf (20.07.2016)

WIPO, INSEAD and Johnson Uornell university (2016), *The Global Innovation Index Reports 2007 -2015*. [Online] Available: <https://www.globalinnovationindex.org/content/page/past-reports/>

World Bank (2016a). Current Account to GDP ratio. [Online] Available: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/BN.CAB.XOKA.GD.ZS>

World Bank (2016b), High-technology exports (% of manufactured exports). [Online] Available: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/TX.VAL.TECH.MF.ZS?view=chart>

Risk and Responsibility in the Medical Pharmaceutical Practice

Stelian PARIS

Prof. Assoc. Dr. "Ovidius" University of Constanta, Faculty of Pharmacy

Rodica SIRBU

"Ovidius" University of Constanta, Faculty of Pharmacy

Cristina-Luiza ERIMIA

"Ovidius" University of Constanta, Faculty of Pharmacy

Abstract

The authors make an analysis of a highly important problem, that is the responsibility in the medical-pharmaceutical practice starting from the fact that a young person who applies for a Medicine or Pharmacy university, gains an idea – no matter how small – of the multitude and the scale of the responsibilities that he/she is going to have during the course of the medical-pharmaceutical activity. We are constantly responsible but the responsibility of those in the medical-pharmaceutical field is permanent and multiple, on a number of levels, being recognized as follows: professional responsibility (deontological) towards the patient, juridical responsibility (civil, criminal), administrative responsibility (the respect of the laws), economic responsibility (spending) and social responsibility.

Keywords: social responsibility, efficiency, risk in the medical practice, medical-pharmaceutical activity

INTRODUCTION

It is very difficult to imagine that a young man or woman, who aspires to go to the faculty of medicine, forms an idea – as small as it can be – about the multitude and dimensions of the responsibilities that is about to undertake in the medical practice. Or maybe if a physician with experience enumerated and underlined them some of the candidates would not go any further.

Indeed, all those who have completely dedicated their life to medicine and seriously focused on medical practice, certainly remember the heavy task of responsibilities in their medical life. We are responsible all the time: the physician's responsibility is constant, daily and multiple on several aspects.

So, we observe the following responsibilities:

- Professional (deontological) responsibility towards the patient, which must be completely understood and undertaken as a primary primordial responsibility;
- Legal (civil, criminal liability) responsibility that must always be considered but without focusing on the physician's spirit in order not to influence the total fulfillment of the other responsibility, the professional¹ one;
- Administrative responsibility of the medical costs ordered by the physician, which nowadays has become a huge responsibility towards the community through the high cost of medical acts;

- Social responsibility: "medicine is not only a profession but also a high social activity" [1].

All these responsibilities, so important and diverse, make the physician's life very restless and agitated as Andre Maurois said: "heroic, difficult, tormented and sometimes sublime".

THE DIFFICULT ROLE OF THE PHYSICIAN

One of the relevant sources of this issue is the contradiction created by the double responsibility of the physician: towards the patient and towards the community [2]. The community makes the physicians responsible of the high cost of medical assistance, public health programs and warns about the fact that the medical costs rhythm grows faster than the national income (which is very true). On the other hand, the patients – more and more well informed on medical aspects – demand more diagnostic procedures, more drugs, more health care and more hospitalization. This is how some countries reach a sort of "medical inflation" [2].

But can we think about the fight against disease only in terms of profitability? Which are the limits that can be reached in order to respect the human value of the medical acts and – at the same time – their efficiency? (Efficiency = the relation between cost and benefits achieved by the people). When we are asked to reduce the hospitalization period of the patient, who shall defend the physician against their claims, taking into account the possible risks of an unexpected development of the disease or the omission of carrying out some analyses or their repetition? The fear of such claims and legal consequences make some physicians to abuse some scanning, often expensive and superfluous, increasing more and unreasonably the cost of medical assistance. In a justified way there are suggested the following: controlled studies of the sanitary sector (studies that compare different hospitals or groups of population), outpatient medical services (much cheaper than hospital medicine which costs up to 60% of the health budget) and more prevention actions.

Objectively speaking, the medical progress to the man's wellbeing must go hand in hand with a profitable economy and the physician has the difficult role to keep the balance between these two conditions.

RISK IN THE MEDICAL PRACTICE

Medicine is not only a science but also an art and the medical practice is an art that entails appropriate knowledge and application of scientific data. The physician undertakes the task to competently and devotedly take care of the patient but he cannot foresee everything nor provide absolute guarantee of healing. The medical practice is full of unforeseen and risks. Recently a medical personality from England made the following question: "Can medical practice be exempted from the risk?"; the same author answers: "No, the risks are inherent in any subject where uncertainties are frequent and decisions are made on probabilities"¹.

As physicians we run risks all the time. We risk when we give a diagnostic, apparently logical (but not always what is logic happens in medicine), when we take a therapeutic decision or when we prescribe a drug. There is no drug without side effect. Someone once said that if we admit that surgeons are descendants of the Middle Ages barbers than pharmacologists are also descendants of the Borgia family (famous through their refinement in poisons). And we have to prescribe drugs which often have the therapeutic limit close to the toxic limit, or we have to expose ourselves to the most unexpected reactions of sensitization.

Of course that there is also an *estimated risk*, through which in modern medicine we evaluate the development of a medical act, its use (therapeutic value or diagnostic) towards the risk of side effects. When the positive value dominates the physician can undertake the risk of application but only after a serious reflection. An example is carrying out a blood transfusion when this is essential for the patient's life or health. In this case, we undertake the risk of causing (in 5 – 10% of the cases) the later occurrence of a post transfusion hepatitis, determined by one of the hepatitis viruses which exist in the donor's blood without being detected through the current technical possibilities (and therefore not eliminated). The estimated risk is taken into account also in the case of some difficult but necessary surgeries. In these cases, the surgeon has to obtain the *informed consent* of the patient or – if this is not possible – of the family. It is justified and ethical that under such circumstance the risks be shared with the patient. In this purpose, it is useful for the physician to ask for the patient's signature. But in certain unforeseen or emergency situations or during a surgery the surgeon must decide by

himself according to his conscience and competence. This raises the following question: is really indicated to present the patient all the possible risks of such a medical act? We are in a field with great interpretative and orientation issues. *But it is not possible or desirable to expose all the risks of a medical procedure to the patient* [3].

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

DEFENSIVE MEDICINE: CONSEQUENCE OF THE PHYSICIAN-PATIENT CONFIDENCE CRISIS

In some western countries, especially in North America the patient information on the risk of the medical act is carried out without any omissions in order to prevent any type of claims from the patient. Therefore, a physician-patient confidence crisis developed and a degeneration of the medical practice into the so-called defensive medicine, meaning the medicine for the defense of the physician. The causes are the multiple claims and legal actions against the physicians for malpractice, from unsatisfied patients. In these actions also contribute lawyers that are specialized in trials against physicians, by searching and exploiting the smallest dissatisfactions of the patients.

Many ask themselves whether the classical physician-patient relationship was annulled, which is not excluded and the famous physician-patient colloquium be transformed into a "dialogue of the deaf".

Actually the physicians from these countries, especially the ones exposed to the medical risk (surgeons, anesthetist, orthopedists, and gynecologists) defend themselves from these trials in different ways:

- By prescribing analyses with 50-60% more than the usual in order to be protected against the patients' claims, increasing the cost of the medical services;
- By informing the patients on all the possible risks, especially the surgical ones, until obtaining the so-called patient faint or their renunciation of the suggested surgery;
- By physicians insurance against risks of claims from patients, in order to be protected against lawsuits with them. The quantity of such insurances has reached in the U.S.A. the value of 2 billion dollars, a significant number that shows how much it can cost the physicians the medical responsibility, which is so deteriorated by the lost of confidence in the physician-patient relationship.

"How difficult is to heal people's diseases?"(Quando difficile est curare morbes hominum) said Celsus some centuries ago. But today, taking into account the burden of so many risks of modern medical practice.

DEONTOLOGY OF THE MEDICAL RISK

There is a deontology of the medical risk which focuses on several types of risks [4].

Predictable risks (conscious) are those risks that may pass through an anticipated assessment and are admitted after a calculation that justifies its acceptance for the patient's interest (assessed risk).

Who has the benefit must run also the risks [5].

Unpredictable risks are unexpected, inappropriate and uncontrollable that result from a necessary situation (emergency, force majeure case). In these circumstances the unpredictable character does not undertake the physician's responsibility.

Nevertheless, it is the physician's duty and the desired medical progress for all the medical risks to become more and more reduced for the patient. There are also illegitimate, unjustified risks that refer to some lacks of the physician.

RISKS THAT REFERS TO THE PHYSICIAN

This type of risks refers to the physician, their qualification, work and behavior. Therefore, some physicians create themselves risks by incompetence or unconsciousness (*sancta simplicitas!*), negligence or fraud. All these fit in the so-called malpractice, in the Anglo-Saxon language, meaning incompetent, fraudulent practice that incurs sanctions (administrative or criminal) from the College of Physicians.

Such deviations and serious faults affect the reputation and respect of the medical profession, with its huge responsibilities, generating severe criticism and appreciations, even since the ancient times, which some malicious spirits tried to generalize them to all the medical staff. In ancient times Pliny the Elder (first century of our era), with regard to the medicine from those times, said: "the physicians gain knowledge from the dangers that we go through, making experiences with the price of our life. Only a physician can commit homicide being protected by a complete impunity". Of course that such statement represents a great inaccuracy taking into account that the Hippocratic deontology – the principle of medical practice in those times – completely excluded such aspects of the medical practice and established behavior rules of high humanity, according to which the current medical deontology is also inspired.

Besides this necessary rectification, we must not forget to seriously analyze the deviations from the medical ethics of some colleagues, starting with the smallest deviations from the medical subject until the serious deviations, in order to prevent them (the ideal solution) or appropriately sanction them. During a symposium on medical subject held in 1979 in New-York, three types of physicians were analyzed, with deviations in the medical field [5]:

- Physicians with deviations from the moral behavior, unscrupulous that commit illegal medical acts or professional negligence, starting from the lack of interest in the patient until serious negligence;
- Physicians that are not capable of a responsible activity due to psychological diseases (mental illness) or drug addiction (alcoholism, etc.);
- Incompetent physicians that are situated under the standard of current knowledge, conscious or unconscious of their lack of knowledge and their lack of progress in the modern medicine development. These are those physicians that do not read any medical books or magazines, that avoid medical training courses or scientific societies meetings. Any physician that does not study constantly becomes: "a possible wrongdoer" [6].

All these attitudes represent *serious risks for the patients*, for the medical practice, which do not entail anymore the peculiarities of the medical practice but individual entities, physicians with such deviations that form a minority in the medical staff.

Such situations fit into the legal liabilities of the physician (civil and criminal), classified in different categories: professional fault by negligence, professional fault by imprudence, professional fault by incompetence, etc, as they are presented in the specialized books [7], [8], [9].

RISKS THAT REFERS TO THE PHARMACIST

In the Code of Medical Deontology, the pharmacist has their own responsibilities which do not avoid, generally, the principles of the medical deontology [10]. The pharmacist's activity has the same purpose as the physician's activity so that, even if the moral work principles are common, they shall be customized according to the profession, stating that the physician-pharmacist deontological relationships must not be understood as subordination relationships but collaboration that serves a single purpose – the one to ensure a country's health [7].

The pharmacist has the obligation to ensure, in time, the assistance with drugs for the pharmaceutical network, patients and population in need of them, at the appropriate technical and scientific level [10].

The pharmacist must provide priority in the preparation and dispense of drugs from the emergency prescriptions. In special cases, the pharmacist has the obligation to respond to the emergency demands also outside their working hours. The pharmacist, in the limit of their knowledge, provides emergency aid to patients in cases when they cannot benefit from an immediate health care from a physician; the pharmacist shall guide towards the competent medical institution and shall inform the physician regarding the measures taken based on their own initiative. The pharmacist must competently proceed in solving technical issues of the drugs preparation in order to avoid incompatible reactions. The pharmacist must carry out medical prescriptions and assist people with drugs in an equal manner for any patient, except for emergency medical prescriptions, cases when priority is provided for the execution and dispense.

The pharmacist must apply unitary methods for the drugs preparation in order to ensure uniformity of execution and presentation; the purpose is to prevent doubts or suspicions from the patient regarding the drug's quality (equal shapes and sizes, uniformity in aspect, color, taste, smell, etc.). The pharmacist must avoid any expression of doubt and mistrust in the presence of the patient, regarding their treating physician or medical prescriptions.

In the case when the pharmacist observes an incomplete or wrong formula in the medical prescription or when an ingredient must be replaced, they will contact the physician that prescribed the prescription in order to agree on solving the case. If the physician cannot be contacted and the drug's administration cannot be delayed, the pharmacist shall make the necessary change on their own responsibility and shall write on the prescription the adjustment, subsequently informing the physician on the changes.

The pharmacist is forbidden to make recommendations of drugs or any other therapeutic methods, the exception being only for hygienic products. The pharmacist must send the patients to the physician in order to obtain the necessary indication.

The two collaborators, the physician and the pharmacist must prevent polypragmasy and understand the psychology of the patient and/or of the groups that abusively consume drugs; they have to carry out systematic and constant prevention actions that are based on deontological behavior principles [7].

The physician and the pharmacist shall have a behavior based on collaboration, esteem and support towards the colleagues and other staff. It is forbidden to blame or denigrate colleagues through negative appreciations on their medical qualification or activity in front of the patients, family members or legal representatives, medical staff; it is also forbidden any expression or act that endangers the confidence in the physician or pharmacist or their professional activity. The necessary criticism shall be based on objective proof in an organized framework in order to have a positive effect [11].

The physicians and pharmacist have the obligation to permanently guide and control the subordinated staff's activity which shall be carried out according to principles, consistency and precision. The medical and pharmaceutical scientific activity must be based on moral's principles and respect of the human being. It is forbidden to cause artificial illness on healthy people or intentionally maintain a state of illness for the purpose of scientific researches [12].

PREVENTIVE SOLUTIONS AND CURES

What is to be done for reducing the risk in medical practice, both the medicine risk and the risk that derives from the deficient activities of a medical minority?

First of all, the most important ones are the *preventive solutions* on the educational plan starting from graduate level and going through post-graduate level by medical media, books, meetings, control and prevention actions on administrative and deontological plan (through the College of Physicians).

It is necessary to imprint the concept of continuous professional medical training which constitutes a moral obligation and the incompetent physician has not only a moral fault but also a legal fault.

It is useful to analyze also the new ethical issues brought by modern medicine progress (prenatal genetic diagnostic and genetic surgery, prolonged resuscitation, etc.) and the ethical solutions that are foreseen.

Minimum risk diagnosis techniques must be used.

New drugs must not be used without knowing their risks and without obtaining the informed consent of the patient for any special treatment.

A peer review must be carried out any time the patients' situation requires it.

The social and economic responsibility of the contemporary physician must be known.

Moreover, the ethical rules of the scientific research in clinical medicine must be known and applied.

On the other hand there is the "identification of the black sheep" of medicine and their sanctioning according to the socialist medical ethics and the current legislation on the medical responsibility.

CONCLUSIONS

REDUCING THE MEDICAL – PHARMACEUTICAL RISK BY CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

- We could not end this incursion in the medical practice risk issue and responsibilities without emphasizing the need of continuous professional training which we consider not only an important solution for reducing the medical practice risk but also an *essential moral obligation of the physician and pharmacist* [13].
- The desire for training must be present at each physician or pharmacist in order to deserve their title. Therefore, we must always be displeased with ourselves, with our every day work, our reading or our knowledge regarding the patients and our tasks, reflecting upon the daily activities and accuracy that we have completed.
- Only a vast experience, a life lived between the suffering and symptoms of the patients from the hospital and in the core of the medical social issues of the field, will allow us to gain that complex value that characterizes the physician with clinical experience and large perspectives, who is at the same time clinician and epidemiologist.
- At the clinical experience must be added new daily reading in order to maintain high professional competence and to reduce at minimum the risk for the patient in medical practice. Even the success of using computers in the clinic depends on the accuracy of the data collected by the clinician, which are introduced in the computer¹. In the opposite situation, on the contrary: “garbage in, garbage out”. The physician’s professional quality matters as well as the accuracy of the collected data and the correctly used terminology.
- In reducing the medical risk is also important the professional quality of the sanitary staff. Therefore we agree with the above quoted opinion² that says “a very good experienced nurse is better than a computer or a computerized automatic system”. In the clinic we often used the observation and opinion of an experienced nurse regarding the diagnostic and prognosis of a patient. And the nurse’s answer was often a useful light on the dark road of diagnosis or prognosis.
- On the other hand, a close collaboration must be kept with the patient and correct information of the patient by an appropriate dose of data, adjusted to the condition of the patient. The patient – physician relationship must be reinforced and educated since nowadays has become poor. In the past, patients had more confidence in their physician rather than in medicine, meanwhile today the faith in medicine increases while the faith in the physician decreases³ and the physician’s responsibility towards the patient increases.
- The medical risk will never be completely eliminated and therefore, our inner restlessness as physicians remains permanent in front of the patient.

REFERENCES

- BELIS V., - Treaty of Forensic Medicine, Ed. Medicala, 1995.
- CARONE P., NAGY B., - Medical discipline: dealing with physicians who are: unscrupulous, disabled and incompetent, N.Y, State J. Med., 1979.
- CLARKE C. – Can medical practice be free of risk? J. Roy. Soc. Med., 1979.
- COCHRANE A. – L’inflation médicale. Réflexions sur l’efficacité de la médecine, Ed. Galilée, Paris. 1977.
- DUREGARD H. – Responsabilité médicale et défense des médecins, Med. De France, 1974.
- DUTESCU B. – Ethos in medicine, Ed. Medicala, Bucharest, 1979.
- LAURY G.V. – Le difficile rôle du médecin. Med. Et Hyg. (Genève), 1982.
- MADELIN PH. – Malades et médecins. La crise de confiance. Ed. du Seuil, Paris, 1981.
- OZUN R., POENARU E. – Social and professional responsibility of the physician, Ed. Medicala, Bucharest, 1973.

Law 288/2008 – Pharmacy Law with subsequent additions,

SCRIPCARU GH., CIORNEA T. – Medical deontology, Ed. Medicala, Bucharest, 1979.

Law 95/2006 –Reform in the health sector.

TERBANCEA M., SCRIPCARU GH. – Deontological coordinates of the medical act, Ed. Medicala, Bucharest, 1989

Antecedents of Customer Loyalty in B-to-B Relationships: Examining the Effect of Commitment Types

Oznur Ozkan Tektas

Hacettepe University, Department of Business Administration

Extended Abstract

Creating value along with strong relationships in B-to-B markets is strategically important for suppliers to distinguish themselves. Based on the notion that relational motives have some complicated and multi-directional interactions, the objective of this research is to extend the understanding of the complex pattern among important indicators of a strong buyer-supplier relationship, namely opportunistic behavior, inter-firm trust, customer loyalty and commitment types. More specifically, this research examines how the two forms of commitment (i.e. calculative and affective) moderate the relationship between opportunistic behavior, inter-firm trust, and customer loyalty. Among other several drivers of loyalty (i.e. communication, dependence, conflict), trust and opportunism can be seen as two of its most critical antecedents. Opportunism, including not being entirely truthful; avoiding fulfilling requirements, misleading, and withholding efforts, may erode value creation. It may also restrict trust-based relationships; or may affect other exchange outcomes negatively. Despite the negative role of opportunism, trust has a positive, key role in business relationships. Because once inter-firm trust is established, partners will have willingness to denote more resources, energy, and time to maintain the relationship. This cooperation developed by trust will result in positive outcomes such as customer loyalty. Trust has two main components: Benevolence (the belief that one party is reliable and will not take an action that will be harmful to the firm) and honesty (believing one's partner fulfills promises and stands by its word). Firms however, maintain their business relationships with different motivations, for different reasons and to varying degrees. For instance, *affective commitment* represents a more emotional and social component while *calculative commitment* stands for a more rational and economic component. Previous research states that the existence of calculative commitment without affective commitment can be harmful for exchange relationships by arousing opportunistic behaviors and may reduce the positive impact of affective commitment. To test the research hypotheses, the necessary data were collected from 104 industrial buyers of restaurant equipment, supply, and furniture industry in the USA via e-mail survey. All constructs were measured with multiple-item scales. Measurement scales were adopted from relevant literature. After reliability and validity tests, the research hypotheses were tested by linear multiple regression analyses to test the direct and the moderator effects. Results show that, opportunism has a negative and trust has a positive direct effect on loyalty. These direct effects are moderated by commitment type of the buyer firm. That is, affective commitment increases the negative effect of opportunistic behavior of supplier firm since the buyer firms feel themselves as betrayed. Moreover, affective commitment increases the direct effect of trust on customer loyalty. Yet, results revealed that although calculative commitment increases the direct effect of opportunistic behavior on loyalty; it has no moderation effect on the trust-loyalty relationship.

Keywords: Opportunism, Affective Commitment, Calculative Commitment, Trust, Loyalty

Factors Effecting Electronic Service Quality in Stock Market: Toward An Integration Model

Neda Koushan

. Neda Koushan, PhD Candidate of Economic and Business Administration Program, Faculty of Economic and Business,
University of Malaga

Dr. Francisca Parra Guerrero

. Antonio Peláez Verdet, PhD, Department of Economics and Business Administration, University of Malaga,

Dr. Antonio Peláez Verdet

. Javier Rondán-Cataluña, PhD, Department of Business Administration and Marketing, University of Seville,

Dr. F. Javier Rondán-Cataluña

. Francisca Parra Guerrero, PhD, Department of Economics and Business Administration, University of Malaga,

Abstract

The main purpose of current research is to identify the driving factors affecting on electronic service quality. The research model contains 8 main criteria and 41 sub criteria. For data gathering, library method and fieldwork utilized and for analyzing data, factor analysis applied. The results show that there are positive and meaningful relationships between efficiency, availability, fulfilment, security, training, responsibility, contact, and Law-legal items with electronic service quality in which the relationship between fulfilment, availability, and efficiency and electronic service quality were more powerful than others. Finally, some suggestions were presented.

Keywords: Factors Effecting Electronic Service Quality in Stock Market: Toward An Integration Model

Does Different Backgrounds Lead to Cooperation or Conflicts? : A Research on Universities**Burcu Aracıoğlu**

Assist. Prof. Dr., Ege University

Ceren Deniz Tatarlar**Abstract**

In organizations, employees come up with a broad spectrum of diverse qualifications. For filling the positions, not only people with same qualifications are recruited but people who are graduated from different departments of different universities can also work in same positions as well. For example both industrial engineers and labor economics and industrial relations graduates can be approved to have the qualification to work as HR specialists in a company. It can be said that for several positions, required educational backgrounds can be variable. For specific positions or jobs requiring specialization, educational background or gained skills might create a difference between employees. There can be a perception that people who have specialized in one area might be more qualified for the job or job's requirements. Not only managers but also employees themselves might feel this discrimination. Employees can think themselves superior than others. Even though they are peers and in same position, this discrimination's reasons might lay under the fact that these employees might have self-praise and for further, might have different characteristics that can be called as disorders. Based upon these assumptions, our main aim is to explore the consequences behind the cooperation and conflicts and also differences between employees of same position and different background. We have decided to examine this situation in context of the faculty members of department of business administration whose specializations are operations management and quantitative methods fields. The reason why we choose this specific sample is that there are both engineering and business administration graduates who specialize in this area and there is an observable background difference between these two. Examining this sample, we aim to understand and reveal the differences and reasons behind possible conflicts between these two academic profiles. Mixed method will be used in this study. Personality characteristics will be measured by psychological surveys and after that, in order to probe the reasons behind, semi-structured interviews will be held with the chosen participants. Discourse analysis will be used to analyze the data.

Keywords: personality; academics; educational background; operations management

Trailing Stop Loss and Re-Entry Strategies in Europe – a Comparison Between Germany, France, Spain and Greece During the Crisis

Elisabete Duarte

CIGS – Centro de Investigação em Gestão para a Sustentabilidade - School of technology and Management–
Polytechnic Institute of Leiria - Morro do Lena – Alto do Vieiro – 2401-951 Leiria – Portugal

Abstract

A stop loss order is a method that can be used by investors in order to limit their downside risk. The use of stop loss orders is explained by investor's loss aversion. Loss aversion refers to the widely studied psychological phenomenon which refer that expected losses have greater impact on investors' preferences than expected gains. The use of stop loss rules allows for this asymmetric profile. The stop loss hypothesis, also, states that by limiting the downside risk of long positions, it shall result on higher returns. A stop loss order can be established at a percentage of the asset value that grows over time as it rises, stopping if the asset value starts to go down (trailing stop-loss order). In our work we use trailing stop loss orders (with a difference to the asset market value of 3%) with long positions in financial markets. After being stopped out in a down market, the re-entry rule is: to buy the asset again as soon as the markets grows at least 3%. Whenever the portfolio was sold out by the application of the trailing stop loss rule, the investment is held as cash until the trigger was activated. In this article we apply trailing stop rules in Germany, France, Spain and Athens during the crisis, in order to make an empirical validation of trailing stop-loss rules and re-entry rules for these particular markets. Our results suggest that trailing stop-loss rules should be considered in investment strategies even during financial crises.

Keywords: Trailing stop order, re-entry strategy, financial markets, crisis

Reactions and External Influences Towards Organizational Actions, a Social Constructionist Perspective

PhD. Cand. Alexandra Galbin

Abstract

The paper brings into discussion how organizational activities are influenced by the community reactions. The social constructionist perspectives presented are part from two in-depth interviews with social workers and three in-depth interviews with leaders, interviews organized in august 2016, Iasi and Bacau Counties, Romania. The participants are part from private organizations, providers of social services for children with parents working abroad, children at risk of dropping out, but also services for improving community quality of life. Collecting data, different reactions emerged towards the actions implemented by the organizations: the reactions of public authorities, and the reactions of local people. The participants describe the fact that communities are guided by stereotypes, each member living in his own world, with his own beliefs and the process to implement some actions is very challenging. Also, participants relate that is very important to create a framework where people from different contexts can be involved together to experience new situations and to understand better other realities. Finally, the participants bring into discussion successful examples that made a difference in the community. In this paper the perspective of community wasn't explored being one of the research limits.

Keywords: community, influences, realities, organizations, social constructionism

Songs of the “New Folklore” in the Villages of Tirana

PhD. Kreshnik Duqi

University of Art's, Faculty of Music

Abstract

This work intends to represent and analyze the processes of the new folklore during the period of communist dictatorship. The stimulus for this study was the fact that these songs of the new folklore didn't resist the time as the other folklore songs, because they weren't genuine songs of the folklore, but it was the communist system that forced people to sing these songs. This new folklore appeared during the communist dictatorship system in order to exalt the figure of our dictator and the regime of that time. Most of the songs of this new folklore are almost completely vanished. During our expeditions in the villages of Tirane we found out that the residents of these villages had forgotten these songs, but when we sang parts of the verses to them, they did remember some of them; though most of them don't want to be reminded of that regime. In this study we are representing songs that are sang to the Anti-Fascist National Liberation War in our country, to the illuminist face of our former dictator Enver Hoxha, the disappearing of religions, agricultural cooperatives, industrialization and the socialist system itself. This new folklore was used to en root the ideas of the system deep into the mindset of simple people. We must emphasize that during that period the censure has been very strong, and the songs of the new folklore have been part of this censure. We have analyzed the songs to better understand their course in history, and also to reach some conclusions. Also, we suggest reviewing some of these songs because we believe there are some issues with their transcriptions.

Keywords: new folklore, dictatorship system, censure, analyze, forgotten, song.

Social Inclusion of Young People from Child Protection System

Maria Iordache

RIQL – Research Institute for Quality of Life,

Romanian Academy

Abstract

In the scientific works the concept of vulnerable group is related with concepts like poverty, social exclusion or groups of risk. Over the last decades children and youth have constantly been the most at-risk age groups when we measured poverty. This category of high-risk groups also includes young people from social welfare institutions. According with the Ministry of Labour, Family, Social Protection and the Elderly, approximately 5,000 children leave child care each year, being vulnerable and risking poverty and/or social exclusion. Most children in residential care are 14-17 years old, followed by those aged 10-13. The services aimed at social and professional integration and independent living skills development are underdeveloped. To contribute to the social inclusion of these young people, National Strategy for Youth Policy 2014-2020, in addition to the main areas of intervention has developed a series of measures and directions of particular actions for specific target groups including young people who leave child care institutions. Working direction of the strategy follows the recommendations and practices at European level and to extend the age range in which a person must receive support from public decision-making structures. The strategy contribution regarding social inclusion of vulnerable young people and / or for different reasons may have fewer opportunities, can be viewed from several perspectives and pursuing several directions including: employment, education, health, community participation and poverty. Article will analyze the intersection of policies and measures for this vulnerable group and the contribution of NGOs as best practices.

Keywords: social inclusion, vulnerable group, best practices

The Waqf in British India: Its Economic Effects

Anantdeep Singh

Abstract

This work will use the spread of two institutions in British India as case studies for our discussion. We will look at the adoption of the managing agency by Hindu businessmen and utilization of the family waqf by wealthy Muslims. The managing agency was adopted by Hindu businessmen in the late 19th and early 20th centuries as a means of raising greater capital and launching industrial ventures. During the same time period, wealthy Muslims increasingly used the family waqf to protect their estates. The spread of both institutions may be traced to the preexisting historical circumstances and institutions. The Muslims of British India were familiar with the waqf; the Mughals, as well as Muslim aristocrats, had utilized the waqf for the establishment and support of religious shrines. Familiarity with the workings of the waqf for the establishment made it easier for South Asian Muslims to increasingly use the family waqf for protection of their families' estates. While the managing agency and the family waqf are disparate institutions, we suggest that the spread of both institutions may be traced to historical changes and the respective familiarity of Hindus and Muslims with their preexisting institutions. The family waqf's usage became widespread because it offered a solution to the fragmentation of Muslim estates brought about by changed historical circumstances (rigorous implementation of Islamic inheritance laws by the British) and because Muslims were familiar with the usage of waqfs for shrines. The managing agency also witnessed increasing usage during this period. Legal changes and increased opportunities for industrial ventures presented an opportunity. The familiarity of Hindu entrepreneurs with the Hindu joint family allowed them to adopt the managing agency.

Keywords: The Waqf in British India: Its Economic Effects

Pluralism or Multiculturalism? Immigrant Status. a Compared Study Between Germany and Austria

Fitzek Cătălina¹

Fitzek Sebastian²

Abstract

In this article we analysed the outcome of integration politics of the minorities both in Austria and in Germany of the last 10 years, regarding pluralism and multiculturalism as discourse for European modernity. Considering the successful Canadian multiculturalism, the nowadays European Union lays stress upon the inter-statal collaboration, through assimilating common citizenship rights thus aiming the improvement of relations and negative perceptions among the communities; therefore, pluralism is thought as an interesting variation of multiculturalism. Through pluralism it's been settled that every integration process involves the acceptance of diversity under the umbrella and respect of local or national laws. On the other hand, multiculturalism was established on a prolonged experience in integration policies from Central and Eastern Europe, that played an essential role in diminishing ethnic discrimination. Nevertheless, many conflicts have been still registered despite the efforts of the European Union, in some cases these conflicts escalated. The analysis of Eurostat statistical data reflects the evolution of these policies in both Austria and Germany as rich countries in cultural and ethnic diversity. The overall image of both countries points towards the extent to which the European Union tends on achieving a united, tolerant character and prone to intercultural dialogue.

Keywords: pluralism, multiculturalism, inter-ethnic relations, integration policies, intercultural dialogue.

¹ Master's Degree study on Communicational and Intercultural Strategies, Linguistic and Literary (German language), at the University of Bucharest, on the Research and Excellence Centre "Paul Celan"

² Researcher at the Quality of Life Institute from the Romanian Academy

Turnout at the 2016 Romanian Local Elections

Iulian Stănescu

Affiliation: Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy

Abstract

Turnout at the 2016 Romanian local elections was at an all time low. According to official results, just 48.2% of registered voters cast their ballot. How could this be explained? First of all, the rules of the game were changed. New legislation was introduced regarding campaign and party financing, as well as the electoral system. Limits to the type and quantity of electoral propaganda were established. Party campaign budgets were severely cut. The net overall effect was a reduction on the mobilisation capability of political parties, especially in urban areas. However, we contend that while relevant for describing the context, the change in electoral rules is not, in itself, the main factor in explaining the lower turnout. Firstly, the real turnout is not that low. In Romania, there is a growing difference between the legal country, i.e. the electoral register, and the real country, namely the stable population. Secondly, and most importantly, while turnout is markedly lower compared to the previous election, it is less than 1 per cent lower than in 2008, when elections took place under the same rules as in 2012 and political parties enjoyed an all time high in terms of financial resources, available means of propaganda and mobilisation capability. We argue that a better explanation for the lower turnout lies in the peculiarities of the Romanian political parties. In the 2012 election cycle voters had a clear political or ideological choice. This is no longer the case in 2016. The trend towards the political machine type organisation has increased, especially in urban areas, while ideological differences between parties and candidates have narrowed.

Keywords: Romania, turnout, local elections, mobilisation, propaganda, political parties

Trends in Romanian poverty since the Great Recession

Iulian Stănescu

Affiliation: Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy

Abstract

This paper aims to contribute to the ongoing debate about poverty and inequality in Romania by focusing on the main trends since the onset of the Great Recession. During 2009-2010, Romania experienced a GDP decline of less than 7 per cent compared to 2008. Faced with a recession and balance of payments issues, the authorities entered a bailout program run by the IMF, World Bank and the European Commission during 2009-2011. The economic and social consequences of the bailout featured lower employment, cuts in wages and social benefits, and increased taxation. In subsequent years, growth has resumed. By 2014, the GDP returned to the 2008 level, with even higher levels of growth for 2015-2016. During the 2009-2015, relative poverty levels followed an unusual trend. According to official data, relative poverty actually declined by two percentage points, from 23 to 21 per cent, from 2008 to 2010, the low point of the recession. In the subsequent years for return to growth, relative poverty increased to 25.4 per cent of the population in 2015. This paper looks at several concurring factors could explain this unusual trend: the nature of the 2010 wage cuts, the taxation system (low flat tax for personal income, high level VAT), methodological issues in measuring poverty, distribution of wages, and the overall economic model. This paper is part of the Inclusive-Active-Efficient project, financed by a UEFISCDI grant.

Keywords: Romania, Great Recession, relative poverty, economic model.

Teacher collaboration at UAE schools: Types and reasons

Ali Ibrahim

Abstract

Research shows that collaborative school cultures enhance professional growth of teachers and achievement of students. Therefore, many schools strive to build collaborative cultures among their teachers. However, building a true collaborative culture is difficult for many reasons. This research explores teacher collaboration at twenty five schools in the United Arab Emirates. The aim is to identify the types of their collaboration and the reasons for or against working collaboratively. In the first stage of data collection, the School Culture Survey and the School Culture Typology were used to draw teachers' perceptions of the type of culture they have at their schools and the ways in which collaboration is practiced. Then, interviews with eighteen teachers were conducted to understand the reasons behind having certain types of collaboration. Analysis of quantitative data reveals that most schools exhibited contrived and balkanized collaborative cultures. Contrived collaboration comes as a response to the administrative demands and the apathy of teachers towards creating true collaborative teams. Balkanized collaboration unfolds naturally as an adaptive strategy for teachers who come from different cultural backgrounds and who search for a sense of security and belonging.

Keywords: Collaborative School Culture, Collaborative School Typology, New School Model, UAE Schools

Do Pre-M&a Performances of the Acquirer and the Target Predict Labour Productivity Improvement in the Post-M&a Period? Industry Sector Vs. Services Sector

Dr. Ziva Rozen-Bakher

Personal Website: <https://sites.google.com/site/drzivarozenbakher/>

Abstract

Owing to the high failure rate of the M&A strategy, this study raises the questions of whether the pre-M&A performances of the acquirer and the target could predict labour productivity improvement in the post-M&A period. Additionally, it also explores, if the implementation of M&A strategy can result in creation of special conditions with regard to labour productivity due to reduction of workforce size during the integration stage. The research model of the study includes six pre-performances variables: the revenue, the profitability and the workforce size, respectively of the acquirer and the target. The study also provides a comparison between the three groups of all the M&A's, the Industry Sector M&A's and the Services Sector M&A's. The study uses a sample of 394 public companies. The results of the study suggest that buying a larger target with regard to revenue, can lead to complications at the integration stage, which in turn can harm the labour productivity, especially in the integration stage, and in particular in the industry sector. These results are indicative of the hypotheses that buying a larger target leads to increased risks in implementation of M&A strategy as compared to buying a smaller target, particularly in the industry sector. The results of the study also suggest that the implementation of M&A strategy, particularly during the integration stage, leads to creation of special conditions with regard to labour productivity due to over-reduction of the workforce size during the integration stage. This, can harm the ability to seize synergy potential, causing a negative effect on labour productivity, particularly during the integration stage, and especially in the industry sector.

Keywords: Integration; Labour Productivity; Mergers and Acquisitions (M&A); Performances; Profitability; Synergy

The Impact of FDI on Unemployment: Inward FDI Vs. Outward FDI

Dr. Ziva Rozen-Bakher

Abstract

The study examines the impact of Inward & Outward FDI on unemployment. The study presents a holistic model that includes the location factors of the host country and, the home country to explain the impact of FDI on unemployment. The research model is based on Eclectic Paradigm, which provides the OLI analytical framework for analysis the multinational enterprise activity. The Research method includes a combination of three levels of analysis - quantitative analysis, longitudinal analysis and comparative analysis to allow more clearance conclusions about the impact of inward and outward FDI on unemployment in the short-run and in the long-run. The study hypotheses were examined through a set of statistical tests in 191 countries, across 13 years, from 1992-2004, in the pre-financial crisis period, via a comparison between inward FDI and outward FDI. The findings showed that inward FDI has a positive effect on reducing unemployment, but only in the short-run, while outward FDI has a positive effect on reducing unemployment in the short-run and in the long-run. The findings also showed that the economic and political stability has a positive effect on reducing unemployment in the short-run and in the long-run, while the location factors - financial resources and technological assets have a positive effect on reducing unemployment only in the long-run. However, the location factors - telecommunication infrastructure and labour market regulation has a negative effect on reducing unemployment in the long-run. The research findings disprove the common argument that outward FDI cause unemployment in the home country. These findings have practical implications for the designing of the government policy, especially in relation to the restrictions of outward FDI. The study emphasizes the importance of financial resources and technological assets in an aim to reduce unemployment, especially in the long-run. The research highlights the challenges in shaping policies that encourage FDI in terms of reducing unemployment.

Keywords: FDI (Foreign Direct Investment), Unemployment, Location Factors

How Can We Develop Pre-Service English Teachers' Intercultural Awareness? the Takeaway from a Course in American Culture

Servet Çelik

Assistant Professor, Karadeniz Technical University

Abstract

With the recognition that intercultural awareness is necessary for successful communication between individuals of diverse backgrounds, culture has become an integral aspect of foreign language education. However, language teachers often lack direct experience and knowledge of the target culture, and as such, they are not always well-equipped to support cultural awareness in learners. Thus, teacher preparation programs have a responsibility to provide pre-service foreign language teachers with the necessary culture-related skills. Because opportunities for learning about culture within a teacher education program are generally limited to a few hours of instruction, it is vital to ensure that the material to which prospective teachers are exposed is rich enough to support real understanding of the culture in question. To address this need in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education, the researcher carried out an action research project with pre-service EFL teachers at a Turkish university. The study was conducted in an elective course on American culture held in the spring semesters of the 2015 and 2016 academic years. Open-ended surveys, as well as written classroom assignments, exams and student presentations, were collected from each group of students and analyzed at the conclusion of each semester to examine the impact of the material on their awareness of American culture. Based on the findings from the data obtained in the spring of 2015, the researcher made adjustments to the course content prior to teaching the class with a second group of students. The findings from the spring of 2016 suggest that course content including role play, reflection, and deeply contextualized information about the target culture were more effective than direct instruction in supporting intercultural awareness. With these results in mind, the researcher offers some recommendations for providing intercultural experiences in a classroom setting.

Keywords: Cultural Awareness; EFL; English as a Foreign Language; Intercultural Competence; ICC

Two-Step Procedure: Comparison with Existing Models

Fatih Orçan, PhD

Karadeniz Technical University, Fatih College of Education,

Department of Educational Sciences, Trabzon/Turkey

Abstract

Using the three-parameter logistic (3PL) model is a given for modeling multiple choice exam response data. According to the 3PL model, an examinee with no knowledge about the topic of an exam can correctly answer an item at the probability of the value of the g parameter. That is, the guessing parameter indicates the probability that the least proficient examinee will answer an item correctly. Recently, the idea of ability-based guessing, in which the guessing parameter is linked to the ability of an examinee, has been asserted. In this study, recently introduced procedure called Two Step Item Response Theory (TSIRT) and some other IRT models (e.g., 2PL, 3PL, C3PL, and FG3PL) were compared. The data set was collected from an online history course of a Turkish university. The data which comprised 4000 students' responses for 24 items was consisted of 0s and 1s. The ability parameters were estimated under all of the models. The correlations among the ability estimations were ranged between .92 and 1.00. The minimum correlation was between the 2PL and TSIRT procedure, while the maximum was between the C3PL and FG3PL models. The abilities for 2PL and TSIRT were close to normal distribution, while 3PL, C3PL and FG3PL were more positively skewed. In addition, the TSIRT procedures were more informative with respect to the other models, and showed more normal theta estimates in an empirical data analysis.

Keywords: Item response theory (IRT), 3PL, Guessing parameter, Ability based guessing, Two-step IRT,

The Role of Financial Self-Efficacy in Corporate Decision Making

PhD. Cand. Ceren Deniz Tatarlar

Özgür Babacan

Dilek Demirhan

Ege University

Abstract

Decision-making is a complex process that leads people to make choices by regarding their goals. This process is generally seen and examined as individual process. On the other hand, for corporations there has to be made many different critical decisions. During individual decision-making, it is easier to choose the best option regarding the positive or negative consequences for only one person. However, during corporate decision making this process is much more complex because of the quantity of determinants. Financial self-efficacy, on the other hand, concerns individual responding to the financial problems and coping strategies. Managers or executives make decisions in corporations. Although it seems as an individual process there are many other factors to consider for a manager or an executive whilst making a critical decision for the corporation. Among these factors, our aim is to find the effect of financial self-efficacy during decision making for a company. In this study, we will focus on financial decisions made in corporations because they are crucial since they affect the value and profitability of the company. Accordingly, we will use financial self-efficacy scale (FSES) in order to determine the role of the financial self-efficacy level of managers or executives during the decision making process. Therefore a questionnaire will be conducted to sample of companies operating at Aegean Region in Turkey.

Keywords: financial self-efficacy; executives; managers; decision-making

The Mythology of the Age in Behçet Necatigil's Poetry

Kabil Demirkıran

Bogazici University, İstanbul

Abstract

This year, in Turkey, we are celebrating the hundredth anniversary of Behçet Necatigil's birth, whose poetry's intertextual dimension (especially mythological aspect) carries a great importance. A lot of academic works in which this subject has been argued are full of the quotations from his interviews that were published in various newspapers and magazines, and comments on his own life and poetry. It can be said that intertextuality in his poetry has been contextualized in aspect of the cultural influences and source identification in these works that are referring to the poet's explanations. In other words, when these resources are taken into consideration, the issue that interxuality is neighter seen as a textual fact nor evaluated as a poetic sign supporting meaning production takes attention. According to many of the literary critics, Necatigil's poetry, is a "cultural event" (or an act of transmitting and transforming Eastern and Western cultural-literary traditions) that is shaped by his social environment, educational background, ideology, and his literary preference, and is open to historical, philosophical and anthropological reading. This cultural oriented approach has a great important effect on his calling as the modern poet who succeeded to benefit from Eastern and Western traditions in Turkish poetry of the republican era. However text oriented theory that gives priority to themes and metaphores in poetic analysis shows that intertextual signs are located in Necatigil's poems rather than enlivering or reconstructing tradition, in order to express such feelings and facts of the individual of the modern age as loneliness, alienation, anxiety, escape, fatalism, death and eternity. Intertextuality, especially mythology is one of the dynamics that contribute to build a multilayer semantic structure by providing new metaphores and imageries in Necatigil's poetry. While studying on Necatigil poetry, Michael Riffaterre's semiotical analysis (Semiotics of Poetry, 1978) which argues that poetic discourse is the equivalence established between a word and a text, or a text and another text can be used as one of the efficient theoretical methods because Necatigil's poetry is built on complicated intertextual, naturally intercultural relations including Western and Eastern mythologies. According to Riffaterre, the poem results from the transformation of the matrix, a minimal and literal sentence, into a longer, complex and nonliteral periphrasis. Riffaterre's sermiological analysis considers poetry as a derivation of intertextuality and naturally Necatigil's poetry can be evaluated according to Riffaterrian theory.

Keywords: The Mythology of the Age in Behçet Necatigil's Poetry

Demotivation Factors for EFL Teachers: Case Studies

Çağla Taşçı

Abstract

The current qualitative study investigates the demotivating factors of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Teachers. The motivation is what a person do to strieve to achieve something and how hard to pursue it and how they maintain this pursuit. The teacher motivation is related to teachers' perseverance to create learning in their learners. However, however how hard they try to achieve the best practices for effective teaching there are a lot of variables which hinder this process. The current literature identified many factors which effect motivation, burnout and demotivation of EFL teachers. This presentation will cover the related literature and case studies of EFL teachers at teartary level.

Keywords: Demotivation Factors for EFL Teachers: Case Studies

The Evaluation over the Differences and Similarities Between the Mewâlî on Umayyad Period and the Muwallad on Andalusian Umayyad Period

Phd. Cand. Gülhan Duygun

Abstract

The term of Mewâlî is used to refer to all non-Arab crowds who have accepted Islam with their own free will after the Islamic conquests. On the Umayyad period, The Arabs keep their race superior to other Muslim societies, and as a result of this Mewâlîs are kept in the background on political, social and economic fields. Although this way of thinking which is contrary to Islamic law this politics was often applied against Mewâlîs. On the Umayyad period this approach which brings with many problems was also seen on the Andalusian Umayyad period and the people who are called 'Muwallad' also were exposed to the same impositions. 'Muwallad' is a kind of name which was given to indigenous people who decide Islam afterwards in Spain and Iberian Peninsula or the ones whose mother is non-Arabs. Muwallads who constitute the majority of the Muslim population in time of Umayyad Andalusian, were initially faced the similar policies in the IX. century which was applied to Mewâlîs. This situation has arisen due to reasons such as; the clashes between the dominant Arab families who have the central administration with local families, and the discomfort from increased taxes from time to time. These phenomena which cause in the entry to each state's destruction process have moved on the establishment of the Abbasid in Ummayyad, on XI. century in Andalusian Ummayyad. The similarities and differences between Muwallad and Mewâlîs which are to be studied two separate state of social and community activities and roles within the administrative structure. It will be evaluated in a comparative manner in this study.

Keywords : al-Andalus, Ummayyads, Mewâlî, Muwallad, Muslim.

From Moliere's Tartuffe to Nazım Hikmet's Tartüf 59

Dr. Esra Dicle Başbuğ

Abstract

Tartuffe, the name of the main character of Moliere's play performed in 1664, is used in contemporary French meaning "hypocrite", since the character is ostensibly religious, but actually an imposter. Tartuffe is one of the most famous comedies by Moliere. The play criticizing social matters, the rich and the false piety in a striking way drew reactions particularly from religious section and was banned a number of times. The world-renowned communist Turkish poet Nazım Hikmet adapted the play entitling it "Tartüf 59" in 1959. Nazım Hikmet's play, which interprets issues such as class conflict, abuse of religion, social injustice using Brechtian techniques like alienation, episodic narrative, fragmentation of dramatic montage and use of technology in theatre, connects 1600s to 1900s. I will try to compare and reveal different and common aspects between two plays, and discuss how the artistic-social-political backdrop of playwrights' time affects the format of their plays, and the reflections of both plays to date.

Keywords: From Moliere's Tartuffe to Nazım Hikmet's Tartüf 59

Gender and Representation; a Study of Women Councillors in Urban Local Bodies

Assoc. Prof. Dr.Joya Bhattacharya Sinha

Abstract

It is now universally accepted that gender inequalities in political participation and Representation lead to a rupture in the democratic norm of equal protection of all interests. Gender disparities in the public domain are a reflection of the prevailing inequalities in the private domain. The political effectiveness of women, as a group thus depends, to a great extent on the nature and scale of their political engagement or participation across political institutions of the state. At the global level, there has been a steady support for promoting women's political representation through the mechanism of quotas. The discourse on Gender inequalities has clearly stated that the responsibility to bring change is not with the individual women but with those institutions that practice mechanisms of exclusion in various overt and covert manners. Over the years, the persistent and pernicious continuation of the gendered nature of political participation and representation has led to the emergence of a consensus on the need for gender quotas. At the same time, studies have shown that the outcomes of quota reservations are equally complex and varied. An increase in numbers of women may not automatically translate into more gender sensitive policies but there is no doubt that it has led to more instances of individual empowerment, which in turn impact familial and institutional relations. Although there are very compelling reasons to increase the numbers of women at various levels of Politics, it is also problematic to assume that these increased numbers will bring about a true representation of women's interests, as Women's interests are not uniform or homogeneous. The link between descriptive and substantive representation, if any is very tenuous and fragile. Substantive Representation is impacted by various other factors, institutional, cultural, political, party, and is not necessarily dependent on numbers alone. In my study of women councillors in urban local bodies, through a rigorous use of both quantitative and qualitative analytical tools, what was clear was that individual women experienced an increase in personal empowerment but community or group empowerment was more difficult to observe. It was also difficult to assess the outcomes of their participation in the sense of women's issues being prioritized, because of the deeply masculine, hierarchical nature of Politics and because of the deeply embedded gendered practices, which in turn push women to conform to the predominant male norm. The impact of more numbers, can then at best be gradual and incremental. However to achieve the goal of gender equality this is the first step in a long and difficult journey

Keywords: Gender and Representation; a Study of Women Councillors in Urban Local Bodies

Gender Swapping on the Online Social Networking Sites: Facebook as An Escaping Platform from the Offline Realities: An Iraqi Study

PhD. Cand. Ahmed Bahiya

Abstract

The emergence of internet world offers people with ample opportunities to have control over the construction and presentation of their identities. The significant example of how people perform this control is the Gender-switching. In cyberspace the physical presence and the individual characteristics are cancelled in which the corporal body cannot be seen. Users of Internet platforms performing a gender which is different from their biological sex. The aim of the present study is to investigate the Gender-switching phenomenon among Iraqi users on Facebook. A Semi structured interview method has been adopted in this study. Based on data collected and analyzed of 6 Facebook users. The research study found that the main reasons for gender switching were firstly, Crossing cultural barriers. Secondly, the tendency to play roles of different gender identity (male to female, female to male) and finally, for female to Avoid Male aggressive attitude against them. Additionally, the users adopted the traditional binary conventions (male to female, female to male). It might be worth understanding that the Gender-switching within Facebook has been adopted by Iraqi users as an experimental performance or behavior rather than being considered as an enduring expression of sexuality, personality, or gender politics.

Keywords: internet; digital Social environments; gender; identity; Social Network sites; Facebook.

Gender and Sustainability Education. Best Practices Experienced by Three Women

Silvana Panza

Ph. D. in Methodology and techniques of Education

Expert in History of Education concerning Gender Studies and Intercultural processes

Collaborator at the Chair of Social Research Methodology.

Department of Human, Philosophical and Training Sciences (DISUFF)

University of Salerno, Italy

Abstract

This paper aims at analysing two kinds of education which are becoming always and always important for our globalized society. To educate towards pair opportunities, trying to eliminate all discrimination, is considered a fundamental point against violence on women all around the world. But the gender education cross in the last decades with the sustainability development, thus with environmental education.. So, it becomes relevant to orientate children towards new horizons from school desks, overcoming old stereotypes and teaching them to appreciate their territories (Gilligan 1993. 2013). In considering these two basic aspects in education, this paper shows the experiences of two courageous women, from Africa who going beyond both political and social obstacles, experimented best practices models to give new hope and dignity to African people. Their projects are of course observed through a gender point of view. Thus, we can suggest that gender and sustainability education together, can produce a positive current for the future generations (Stevenson, Brody 2013). Aminata Dramane Traorè (1947, Mali, Africa) is an African woman who wants to build a new way to think Africa, through an education of people towards a sustainable development. She teaches us how to use the resources, belonging to a specific territory, to save countries' economy. She denounces the obstacles caused by globalism in Africa, putting in evidence African women's work to craft a sustainable development on their earth (Saskia 1997; Traorè 2002, 2003, 2009). Wangari Muta Maathai (1940-2011, Kenya, Africa), was the first African woman to receive the Nobel Prize for Peace. She, through the *National Council of Women of Kenya*, which she was first a member and then the president of, realized her desire to create the *Green belt Movement*. It was a no profit organization which initial aim was to encourage women and their families to plant trees in that territory where trees were disappeared. So women were not longer isolated in their tribes but worked in aggregation. She died in 2011 by cancer (Maathai 2007, 2010, 2010: Luhmann 1989).

Keywords: education, gender, sustainability, Africa, resilience

Who Are the Most Vulnerable? A Qualitative Approach on Potential Workers in Social Economy

Simona Maria Stanescu, PhD

Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy

Sorin Cace, PhD

Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy

Abstract

Unemployment rate in Romania continues to register a constant value during last years (approx. 4% according with Eurostat data since 2009) below EU 28 average. Unofficially recognised during the communist regime, unemployment has become a constant goal of social policies adopted by post-communist governments. Still, the references to vulnerable groups included into Governmental Programmes reflect an inconsistent vision on measures focus on their social protection (Stănescu, 2013). During last years and with the financial support of European Social Fund, the social economy was promoted as an innovatory model to support employment of the ones most exposed to social exclusion. The research hypothesis is that openness of social economy to marginalised people in Romania is rather low. The paper analysis perception of vulnerable people and their potential involvement as workers in social economy organisations. The qualitative approach consists in interviews and focus groups conducted with workers in social economy, managers as well as social experts in three development regions of Romania (Bucharest-Ilfov, South-East, and North-East). The paper has enjoyed the support of the Unitatea Executiva pentru Finantarea Invatamantului Superior, a Cercetarii, Dezvoltarii si Inovarii (UEFISCDI) grant, IDEI: "INCLUSIVE-ACTIVE-EFFICIENT" Project PCCA, coordinated by the Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy Bucharest, Romania contract number 216/2012.

Keywords: Vulnerable, Qualitative, Approach, Potential, Workers, Social, Economy

Psychological Symptoms and Smoking Among Turkish College Students

Hikmet YAZICI

Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon, Turkey

Abstract

Smoking is still considered a serious problem to public health. The recent increased use of cigarettes in youths and its relation to psychological symptoms are reasons growing of research into smoking. The main objective of this cross-sectional study was to analyze the association between psychological symptoms with smoking status. A sample of 779 students (smokers=206, nonsmokers=573) answered a self-questionnaire including demographic variables, and items regarding smoking. Psychological symptoms were measured by Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI). The results indicate that self-negativity (OR=0.95, 95% CI=0.91-1.99) and hostility (OR=1.12, 95% CI=1.07-1.17) were variables significantly associated with current smoking status. These findings suggest that some psychological symptoms are strongly related to risk for smoking. These findings show the importance of using multidimensional smoking behavior assessments.

Keywords: Psychological Symptoms and Smoking Among Turkish College Students

The Influences of Western Arts and Literature in Cemal Sureya's Poetry

PhD. Cand. Atanur Memiş

Abstract

As well as İlhan Berk, Edip Cansever, Turgut Uyar, Ece Ayhan and Sezai Karakoc, Cemal Sureya (1931–1990) is one of the leading figures of Modern Turkish poetry in the Second New poetical movement which came out in the second half of the 1950s. He was partly inspired by the disruption of language -in such Western movements as Dada, Lettrism, Existentialism and Surrealism- jazz and atonal music, cinema, plastic arts such as painting and sculpture, drama and other fields of art and literature to create a more abstract poetry through the use of jarring and unexpected language, complex images, and the association of ideas. Particularly painting has had a great influence in his works. The Western painters such as Pablo Picasso, Paul Klee, Amedeo Modigliani, Marc Chagall and Van Gogh take an important role for his abstract, ungrammatical and ambiguous poetry which rely on the impressions of the images. According to many of the literary critics, Sureya's poetry is an act of transmitting and transforming Eastern and Western modern literary movements.

Keywords: Influences, Western Arts, Literature, Cemal Sureya, Poetry

Branding Tourist Destinations

Zvezdana Bošnjak

Faculty of Economics, University of Belgrade, Serbia,

Abstract

Tourism is one of the industries with the fastest growth and development, the importance of tourism can be seen in the fact that tourism is the fourth export category in the world. Because of the importance that tourism has, but also due to revenues generated by this economic activity in recent years the country are increasingly investing resources to create an identity, a unique image and identity of their destination in the attitude of competitors. Branding tourist destinations is a process of differentiation determination tourist destinacijeod other destinations and taking a special place in the minds of consumers.

Keywords: Brand, Positioning, Brand image

