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The Education of Upper Bourgeoisie in Late 19th Century: the Greek Diaspora in Penelope Delta's (1874-1941) Autobiographies and Novels

Orfanou, Alexia

School of Education, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens
orfanoua@yahoo.gr

Abstract

The aim of this study is the understanding of upper bourgeoisie's education, in late 19th century. It focuses on the education of upper bourgeoisie of Greek diaspora in Alexandria of Egypt. This research evaluates the educational content, practices, purposes and ideals within this context. This study uses, as research data, literature work of Penelope Delta (1874-1941), daughter of Emmanuel Benakis, a wealthy merchant of Greek diaspora in Egypt. Her autobiographies and novels describe the education of her family's children. In late 19th century, the Greek upper bourgeoisie's education was, mainly, a home education. Nurses and governesses, of foreign West European countries, were hired from the families for their children's education, with main aim the learning of foreign languages. When children became older, the private tutors were of main importance. Female education was continued at home. And male education in private schools, usually, in foreign educational institutions. The emphasis on the children's socialization was on good social behavior and discipline. Findings, of this study, showed that upper bourgeoisie invested on education in a systematic way. The education, for this leading social elite, was part of its social identity and contributed to its distinction from other social groups.

Keywords: late 19th century, upper bourgeoisie's education, homeschooling, Egypt, Greek diaspora

Introduction

During 1870-1908, Greece from the early forms of capital, like trade and shipping, passed to a rapid industrial development. The industrial output became forty times greater (Miliou, 2000). The social elite of upper bourgeoisie was formed and developed in harmony and cooperation with the state and even as an extension of the state itself (Veremis & Koliopoulos, 2006). The Greek state favored private enterprises through tax reliefs and state benefits. Also, the government granted to certain banks the publishing right in different areas of the country. Upper bourgeoisie was linked to the state power through social and political networks of patronage and attraction of votes (Dertilis, 2010). This social elite was characterized by a high degree of internationalization, due to the highly developed foreign trade and the country's entanglement with Greek diaspora's capital (Miliou, 2000; Tsoukalas, 1992).

The culture of the Greek diaspora's bourgeoisie was characterized by differences because of its large geographical distribution. The deeper cultural contradiction remained this of the West and Ottoman East Greeks (Dertilis, 1991). In the late 19th century, the Greek upper bourgeoisie of the Ottoman Empire was a powerful economic elite, constituted by wealthy merchants who controlled the import and export trade of Istanbul, the money market and major private and public companies. They socialized with European immigrants. As music fans, they attended, with enthusiasm, performances of foreign opera troupes and theatrical performances of foreign theater companies. They often traveled abroad for economic affairs or for leisure. Cosmopolitanism was the main feature of this elite (Stamatopoulou-Vasilakou, 1994). In Lesbos, an Aegean island under Ottoman rule, in late 19th century, the enrichment of upper bourgeoisie was due to oil trade, financial activities, companies with sophisticated equipment and trading houses with branches abroad (Sifnaiou, 1996). Greeks from Lesbos emigrated, mainly after 1850, to Egypt, Istanbul, Romania, India, Great Britain, France and elsewhere, and engaged in great commercial and banking businesses (Taxis, 1909; Vlachou, 1991).

In late 19th century, this "powerful economic, business class" of the Greek upper bourgeoisie of diaspora was "formed by the leadership team of a few dozen families, who originated mainly from the islands of the Aegean and Ionian sea. These families stretched their businesses to trade and shipping in the Black Sea ports, Western Europe, America, India and Asia, creating multinational business networks" (Kardasis & Harlafti, 2006, p. 53). Of main importance, was Greek diaspora of the Chios Aegean Island: "the business network of Greeks from Chios, consisted of about sixty families, which trafficked grain, cotton and wool from the Eastern Mediterranean and the Black Sea to Western Europe, and textiles and yarns from England to the Eastern Mediterranean. The main nodes of this network were Great Britain and the Black Sea, with intermediate branches in the Mediterranean: Marseilles, Livorno and Trieste, in the cotton markets of

Alexandria and Cairo, the shipping center of the Aegean, Syros, the financial centers of the Eastern Mediterranean, Istanbul and Izmir" (Kardasis & Harlafti, 2006, p. 55).

In Egypt, many of the wealthiest merchants were from Chios, which was destroyed in 1822 by the Turks, after participation in the Greek National Revolution. During the 19th century, Egypt was one major outlet for Greek immigrants, mainly from the Aegean islands (Clogg, 2003). Emmanuel Benakis, a magnate merchant of the Greek diaspora in Alexandria, married Virginia, who originated from the wealthy merchant family, Choremi. Both families originated from Chios (Tomara-Sideris, 2004). "The trading house 'Choremis-Benakis and Co.' was founded in 1863 to exploit the sudden upsurge of the cotton trade in Egypt, in the period of the American Civil War. It was, beyond any competition, the largest company of Greek cotton merchants in Egypt. In Liverpool, where one strong Greek community existed as in Manchester, this commercial firm was represented by the company Davis-Benakis and Co" (Clogg, 2003, p. 102). Dovetailing with British economic interests, the favorable situation of the American Civil War and later the establishment of British colonial control classified Greek families, like Choremi and Benaki, among the wealthiest families of the country. During 1890-1900, only the exports of Egyptian cotton reached 150 million francs, while the total export trade of Greece was lower than this amount.

The Benakis family settled in the newly constructed and privileged residential suburb of Alexandria, 'Quartier Grec' (Trimi-Kyrou, 2003). The Urabi Revolution, in 1882, contributed to the establishment of this famous 'Quartier Grec', an 'autonomous city' in Alexandria (Tomara-Sideris & Theocharis, 2008), and the dominance of the British. In Alexandria, the Greek community's elections of 1884 highlighted the favoritism to British, group of Zervoudakis, Salvagos and Benakis at the side of Rallis and Averof. E. Benakis and members of the families Salvagos, Zervoudakis and Rallis, participated in the Board of Directors of the National Bank of Egypt, which was the largest stock exchange agency in Egypt.

Salvagos, Rallis and Benakis were connected, also, by family ties. Within the upper bourgeoisie the main marriage practice was the intermarriages. Also, the phenomenon of inbreeding existed, i.e. Antony Benakis, son of E. Benakis, married his cousin (Tomara-Sideris, 2004; Tsirkas, 1983). Similarly, in Lesvos, wedding strategies contributed to the preservation and expansion of economic and social benefits of upper bourgeoisie (Sifnaiou, 1996). It is aptly argued that the marriage strategies, within the Greek upper bourgeoisie, contributed to the "existence of close family relationships, with which were connected the members of the dominant core financial factors" of Greece, of the Ottoman Empire and of Greek communities of the diaspora (Tsoukalas, 1992, pp. 247-249). In American society of 19th century, it is also noted, that social networks "often strengthened by family ties, formed the basis for the construction of social institutions, which, in turn, could organize and reorganize public space and embed bourgeois culture into the broader American society" (Becket & Rosenbaum, 2010, p. 2). Greeks of diaspora in Egypt were organized in communities. The first Greek community of Alexandria was founded in 1843. E. Benakis succeeded K. Salvagos as president of the social organization named 'Greek Community of Alexandria' until 1911 (Tomara-Sideris, 2004).

Greeks of the diaspora were always travelling between Athens and abroad (Dertilis, 1991). In Greece, the reform efforts of Greek Prime Ministers Ch. Trikoupis and E. Venizelos, facilitated the inflow of capital from abroad into new business activities and public works (Veremis & Koliopoulos, 2006; Tsoukalas, 256). "The sudden, at that time, and massive invasion of Greek capitalists of the diaspora can be attributed to the conversion of the internal market [...] especially in this period, caused radical transformations within the Greek bourgeoisie diaspora, which are due to one very general process: the transition of capitalism to the stage of imperialism" (Tsoukalas, 1992, p. 251). Emmanuel Benakis, an upper bourgeois of diaspora, gradually was added to the upper bourgeoisie of Greece (Veremis & Koliopoulos, 2006). He was closely linked to the modernization policy of E. Venizelos, who in 1910 appointed him at the Ministry of Economy (Clogg, 2003). Similarly, in the 19th century America, an upper bourgeoisie economic elite "wielded enormous political power, swaying legislators in their favor and defining agendas of political parties" (Becket & Rosenbaum, 2010, p. 1).

The social stratification of the Greek immigrants in Egypt included laborers, a sizeable bourgeoisie, mostly 'lower middle' and 'middle', and only 60-70 families which formed the upper bourgeoisie (Tomara-Sideris, 2004). It is aptly argued, that "the upper bourgeoisie elite traders and stockbrokers, although in relation to the entire Greek population were less numerous, they strongly influenced not only the immigrant communities worldwide but the entire Hellenism. [...] This widespread elite, which practices resale business, includes many people with properties that far surpass the total national income of the country of origin" (Tsoukalas, 1992, pp. 343-344).

Method

Research purpose

The purpose of this study is to define the education of the Greek upper bourgeoisie of diaspora in Egypt. Firstly, focuses on political, cultural and social ideals through which the educational ideals emerged. Other questions came up: What were the key concepts which defined this education, the types of training employed and the daily practice? How were the educational area and the time organized? What courses were taught? What were the differences between female and male education? What kind of social behavior was taught and how was the student discipline defined?

Procedure

In this paper combined research methods were used, the historical hermeneutics (Cohen & Manion, 1994) and content analysis (Berelson, 1952; Kyriazi, 2011) of literature work, novels (Lidbury, 2013; Santos, 2005) and autobiographies (Jensen-Wallach, 2006; Symonolewicz, 1944) considered with their limitations.

The determination of upper bourgeoisie's education, characterized mainly as 'homeschooling', has to confront the lack of official research data. It is aptly argued that literary texts can be a valuable source for the history of education. Literary texts, despite the ambiguity of subjectivity, can be used as unique personal testimonies where there are no other historical sources (Malafantis, 2005). It is also, aptly argued that "typical facts, [...] general conditions, the external and shared experiences of groups in many matters (such as family and institutional life – schools, churches, friendship groups, clubs and organizations): these aspects of life are reflected with considerable reliability in literature. The historian cannot accept uncritically the portrayal of such matters, but if the author, including them has proved to be a solid witness, or if many authors representing different subgroups and attitudes agree with their presentation of similar things, then I am convinced the historian can and should add such evidence to that of other sources in his construction of a picture of the past. Here literature provides data in the same way as other 'soft' sources" (Skårdal, 1984, p. 79).

In this research, literature was used as historical source material. Four autobiographies of Delta, were used as memoirs-biography, primary sources (Cohen & Manion, 1994): 'Raw Remembrances', 'Memories 1899', 'Memories 1921' and 'Memories 1940'. Quotations from the autobiographical books were fitted together. And quotations from the author's novels, which present her childhood memories and meet her personal narratives of her life story (McAdams, 2008), were compared and verified by the information effectively drawn from her autobiographies in order to increase the credibility of the findings.

Author

Penelope Delta (1874-1941) was daughter of E. Benakis. This lady of the Alexandrian upper bourgeoisie was a popular writer (New guide of biographies, 1979; Navet-Grémillet, 1998; Navet-Grémillet, 2006). Her literature work in Greek is in the demotic language (Vitti, 2008). She cooperated with other people in favor of educational demoticism. She integrated into the 'Aderfato of the National Language' (National Language Society), an association founded in Istanbul, for the prevalence of the demotic language (Papakostas, 2000), in 1907. In 1910, she became a member of 'Educational Association' for the educational reform in Greece and the prevalence of demotic language in education (Delta, 2009). She was also involved in reading books in the demotic language in the elementary school in Greece (Dimaras, 2006).

Delta was a pioneer of children's literature (Vitti, 2008). She wrote pedagogical books that appealed to parents and teachers. She wrote, also, historical novels (New guide of biographies, 1979) with main subject her contemporary history. She "collects and examines files, personal testimonies, memoirs. Collects newspaper clippings, brochures, photographs" (Delta, 2009, p. 9). She, also, authored autobiographies (New guide of biographies, 1979). The diary is a literary genre appropriate for introspection and secret emotions. Delta often rushed to the calendar recording of personal incidents. The active participation in the historical events of her country and her secret anxieties are presented in different calendar notebooks (Vitti, 2008). Delta was born in 1874, and spent her childhood in Egypt with short breaks. In 1876, her family moved for two years in Liverpool. In summer 1877, the family traveled to Chios. In 1879, they stayed, for their first summer, in Castella of Piraeus. The summer of 1880, they traveled to Gratz of Austria. And in summer 1881, also to Piraeus. In 1882, they moved temporarily to Athens due to the Urami revolt. They returned to Alexandria. In 1883,

because of cholera in Egypt the family remained for a few months in Athens. In 1886, they travelled to Chios. In summer 1889, Benaki's family travelled to Paris, Liverpool and Wales. In 1891, the 18-year old Penelope entered adulthood and the secular life of Alexandria. She got married in Alexandria, in 1895. The author had three daughters, Sophia born in 1896, Virginia in 1897 and Alexandra in 1900. In 1906, the author, with her family, settled in Frankfurt. They returned to Alexandria in 1913 (Delta, 2009). World War I affected their choice to leave Frankfurt, where they lived due to business reasons (Delta, 2008b). In 1916, the family left Alexandria for a permanent settlement in Athens (Zannas, 2006).

Delta's childhood memories are from Greece, Athens, Chios and Europe (Tselika, 2004), but mainly from cosmopolitan Alexandria (Navet-Grémillet, 2006). Delta, in her literature work, describes her contemporary history, her family history and personal life. She achieved to portray the Greek upper bourgeoisie lifestyle and ideals, in late 19th century (Zannas, 2006; Kouzeli, 2005). It is stated that "Egypt's natural and social environment had a significant impact on Egyptian-Greek literature" and "this influence was largely mediated through the structures of British colonialism". "Under the triple influence of the Greek language, Egyptian land and the British Empire, the formation of a distinctive Egyptian-Greek identity was a matter of vital concern for Egypt's Greek writers" (Tziouvas, 2009, p. 189). Delta was also, influenced by the cosmopolitan center of Alexandria and colonialism. Her novel 'Mangas' "is not uncritical of British colonialism". It is worth noting that finally, 'Mangas' left Alexandria and came back to Greece (Tziouvas, 2009, p. 188), as the author did.

Literature

Eleven books of Penelope Delta, which contain information on education were used:

a) Four autobiographies:

1) 'Raw Remembrances', written approximately between 1931-1932 and first published in 1980 (Delta, 2008a). This autobiographical text contains, also, the unpleasant events of childhood (Zannas, 2006).

The trilogy 'Memories':

2) 'Memories 1899', written approximately, between 1931-1932 or later and first published in 1990 (Delta, 1994).

3) 'Memories 1921', written approximately between 1921-1930 and first published in 1996.

4) 'Memories 1940', written between 1940 and 1941 and first published in 2007 (Delta, 2007b).

b) Five novels:

The trilogy 'Romiopoules' (Young Greek Girls), an autobiographical novel for adults, written between 1927 and 1939 (Delta, 2008a).

5. 'To Xyprnima' (The Awakening), volume 1.

6. 'H Lavra' (The Heat), volume 2.

7. And 'To Souroupo' (The Dusk), volume 3 (Delta, 2014).

8. 'Trelantonis' (Crazy Antony), first published in 1932 and dedicated to her brother Antony childhood adventures. This children's novel describes pleasant childhood memories of a summer stay in Castella of Piraeus (Zannas, 2006), in 1881 (Delta, 2009).

9. 'Mangos (Crafty), a children's novel, first published in 1935, with narrator a dog named 'Mangas' (Delta, 2013).

c) Two pedagogical books:

10. 'The irresponsible or Children's Souls', first published in 1921 and

11. 'Reflections on the Upbringing of children', first published in 1911 (Delta, 2008a), in 'Deltio', the periodical edition of 'Educational Association' (Zannas, 2006).

Findings

1. Upper bourgeoisie's investigation in education

1.1. Foundation and maintenance of Community's Greek schools

Upper Greek Bourgeois in Alexandria, as Averof, Antoniadis, Zervoudakis, Benakis and Salvagos, built schools with large amount of money donations (Tsirkas, 1983) and funded their maintenance (Tselika, 2004): a) in their place of origin, i.e. the donation of family Choremi to the Agricultural School of Chios. b) In Greece, i.e. the donation of family Choremi to the Athens College (Tomara-Sideris, 2004). c) In Egypt, i.e. in Alexandria “the first institutions, which were organized and operated, under the sponsorship of Tositsa brothers and Stournara family, were the Greek Hospital (1817) and the School of Greeks. After the establishment of the Greek Community, [...] the existed institutions were further developed and new were established” (Topis, 2002, p. 160). Over time, the educational needs of the Greek diaspora increased. In 1878, a second class was added in the high school of Alexandria, which, in 1890, was recognized, as a four-year (classes) school, from the Greek State (Leccou, 2001). Several schools were founded by donations: Tositsaia School (1854) (Tselika, 2004), Averof School for Girls (1894), Salvagos Trade School (1906), Pratsikeios Primary School (1907), Zervoudakeios School (1907) (Topis, 2002) and Averof High School (1909) (Tselika, 2004). In 1907, Emmanuel and Virginia Benakis donated an Orphanage for Girls, which offered education as well (Topis, 2002), and began operating in 1909 (Tomara-Sideris, 2004).

1.2. Emphasis on their children’s education

Although upper bourgeois, made donations to the Community schools, they choose private education for their children. It is noted that “consolidation and distinction, of course, were never completely fixed states of bourgeois being. Formulating a sense of themselves as a distinct social group with shared identities, while simultaneously setting themselves apart from other citizens, was an extended and continually negotiated process” (Becket & Rosenbaum, 2010, p. 2).

P. Delta reports that: “I had to become 17 years old to acquire my own judgement [...] to feel gratitude to my parents. Who, although, did not have the means when they were children, to grow spiritually, they were submitted to expenses and deprivation, in order to provide us our ‘teachers’”. She states that due to their education they “grew spiritually, experienced the enjoyment of reading and the ability to cultivate themselves and to ascend to higher realms” (Delta, 2008a, p. 143).

1.3. Focus on scholarships for studies

Greek upper bourgeois, adopted an education which distinguished them from other social groups and also, functioned as a mean for maintenance of their social distinction. However, “the types of channel that are privileged by elite groups to reproduce their social position, and the degree of social closure or openness of these channels to other groups” are significant (Van Zanten, 2010, p. 329). On that issue, we should notice, regarding Emmanuel Benakis, that “his social and intellectual position helped him to encourage, by any means, learning and knowledge, not only for his own children, but also, for others, by providing large amounts of money for student scholarships, as well as for scientific research” (Tselika, 2004, p. 63).

2. Upper bourgeoisie favored private education

In the late 19th century, although, Greek Community schools existed in Alexandria (Leccou, 2004; Hadjifotis, 1999; Gialourakis, 2006), Greek upper bourgeois preferred homeschooling and private institutions.

2.1. Upper bourgeoisie ‘estimation’ on Greek Community Schools

Michael Tositsas was declared the first consul of Greece in Egypt, with his base in Alexandria, in 1833 (Topis, 2002) and the first president of Greek Alexandrian Community, founded in 1843. “He managed to reach the jurisdiction of the Greek government and put under the protection of the General Consulate of Greece all the Community institutions, along with the entire community organization. In contrast to what was implemented until then in the Ottoman Empire, where communities, schools and charitable institutions were subject to the jurisdiction of the Ottoman government and under the Ecumenical Patriarchate supervision. Thus, the Patriarchate of Alexandria became a spiritual and religious authority of the Greek diaspora in Egypt, but did not have jurisdiction over the Community law and its institutions. The example of Alexandrian Greek Community, was followed by all Greek Communities established later in Egypt” (Tomara-Sideris, 2004, p. 41). The goal of the communities was the implementation of their educational needs. “The whole concept and treatment of the educational issue in Egypt, resembles to the function of primary school of the Trikoupan period in Greece. (‘Schools of the municipality’, which i.e. were under the responsibility of the local municipal authority)” (Tomara-

Sideris, 2004, p. 45). Thus, the organized communities of Alexandria and Cairo functioned as state mechanisms (Tomara-Sideris, 2004).

Delta states that: "the Greek schools of the community were considered and in fact were not still efficient, during those years" (Delta, 2008a, p. 147). "The schools of the Greek community in Alexandria, the most important in Egypt, did not have any good teachers. They were so inferior, that the children of wealthy families did not go there. The teachers, sent by the Greek state, were of such bad quality and level, that the families did not dare to entrust their children to them. I remember, our mother saying repeatedly: -"I prefer my girls being illiterate than trusting them to the Community girls school". That was the way, all Greek parents were thinking for their girls and boys. They sent their children to foreign schools, 'Frères' and Jesuits. [...] In my time, boys and girls avoided Greek schools, and many families, which didn't have the financial means to educate their girls at home, sent them to Catholic nuns, 'Soeurs de St. Vincent de Paul', 'Mères de Dieu' and 'Soeurs de Lion'. At the time, a whole army of Catholic priests and nuns invaded Egypt" (Delta, 2008, pp. 197-198).

2.2. Private or foreign schools for upper bourgeois

In late 19th century, upper bourgeois boys studied in private schools, in Egypt or abroad. Usually, they followed studies in the Universities of Europe.

Constantine Kavafis, in 1881-1882, studied in Alexandria, at the Commercial-Practice School, 'Mercury' of Constantine Papazi, who became Doctor of Philology of the University of Erlangen, in 1877 (Tsirkas, 1983). Antony Benakis, born in 1873, studied firstly in Papazi's school, then for two years in Voulgari's, in Athens (Delta, 2008a, p. 147). In 1882, when he was nine years old, went to the boarding school of Voulgaris (Delta, 2008a, p. 81). Delta, in 'Trelantonis' displays the scene where his parents, with other relatives, announced him, his studies in Athens. His mother wept. "His father put things in place. [...] At school he will learn a world of things and will have classmates and friends." The family expected from him to learn how to cultivate self discipline at first, to develop good social behavior, and to be more prudent, because he was a bit naughty. "But at school all this would be corrected. [...] -All Boys need school. It builds character" (Delta, 1980, pp. 243-244). After Boulgari's school, Antony studied in Jesuits of Alexandria (Tselika, 2004), since 1884, he had lunch there and returned home late in the afternoon. But, in this school a proselytizing issue emerged and he stopped attending. At the age of fourteen he went to England as a boarder (Delta, 2008a). During 1887-1891, he studied in College Rossall's, near Liverpool (Tselika, 2004, p. 75). Many Greeks of diaspora in Egypt "sent their children to foreign schools in order to obtain a recognized high school diploma, or to study foreign languages which were very important in Egypt" (Leccou, 2001, p. 48). Alexander Benakis, born in 1878 (Delta, 2008a), went to a boarding college in Switzerland, in 1893 (Delta, 1994). Aristides Choremis, born in Alexandria in 1876, got the graduate certificate of secondary education from Geneva and continued his studies in Manchester with specialization in cotton. The cosmopolitan Greek diaspora in Egypt evolved and flourished within the global system of the European colonial domination and was oriented in European capitals (Tomara-Sideris, 2004).

Similarly, the upper Greek bourgeoisie of Istanbul, usually, studied in Western European capitals (Stamatopoulou-Vasilakou, 1994). Also, upper bourgeois of Lesvos were "cosmopolitan, educated, spoke fluently French, Russian, Italian and English and spent their holidays or went for honeymoon in Europe. [...] Businessmen sent their sons at Marseilles for business studies, in Berlin and Paris to study medicine, in Italy and Germany to study literature, law and chemistry. [...] Their choice of studies was not random. In order to create real industrialists, besides the funds, they should also have, the necessary scientific knowledge" (Sifnaiou, 1996, p. 323). The monks owners of the Commercial 'Collège Saint-Louis de France', in its first establishment in Mytilene in 1901, realized that the local upper bourgeoisie "will continue as before to send their children to the prestigious schools of big cities, even in Europe. [...] The social status has an important role in the East. The family announces proudly everywhere: our child is studying in Cadi-Kewy, in 'Robert College', in Lausanne, etc. Who would dare to confess publicly that his child is studying in Mytilene. The major urban centers attracted more students in the East than elsewhere. [...] Families, which could afford the expenses for boarding schools, send their children, preferably, in large schools of Constantinople, Smyrna, Thessaloniki etc." (Archives des Frères Maristes, 1911). It is believed that "studies of elite education have underscored the common features of elite educational institutions, that distinguish them from other institutions that look after young people from the same age cohorts" (Van Zanten, 2010, p. 329).

2.3. Homeschooling

Since the 18th century, instructors of all kinds have left Neuchâtel in order to work as school teachers in Switzerland, 'précepteurs' and 'gouvernantes' for families of German, Dutch, English and Russian nobility. In 19th century, the exportation increased in 'bonnes d' enfants' who went to work in bourgeois families across northern and southern Europe (Maeder, 1993). The governesses educated children in the royal courts, children of the dukes and bourgeois (Bayley, 2014). In late 19th century, homeschooling was a common practice and compatible with Victorian era: "The governess is a familiar figure to the reader of Victorian novels" (Peterson, 1970, p. 7). The Victorian governess novel is a specific genre of novels (Wadsö-Lecaros, 2001). In 18th and 19th centuries, the jobs of governesses, guardians, chaperons and nurses were mostly widespread in life and in novels (Murinová, 2007). Delta in her novel 'Mangas' mentioned 'Mademoiselle' and 'Miss' as teachers and a piano tutor (Delta, 2013). In 'Romniopoules' she also mentions, a mother who carried out for the children a home schooling program and had tutors (Delta, 2014b, pp. 214-215): a German tutor Fraulein, a French tutor, a Greek governess who lived with the family, a piano tutor and another one for dance lessons (Delta, 2014c).

It should be noted that, in order to have a complete idea of the Greek education, we should take in consideration that homeschooling, for certain categories of families, was the obvious solution for their education (Terzis, 2010). In Greece, homeschooling was so widespread, in 1877, that 'Estia', a popular magazine of Athens, published the article by J. Russel: 'should young people be educated at home or in public schools?' This article argued that the preference should be given to the school education, because homeschooling could effectively help the learning, but not the children's socialization, as the school did (Russell, 1877). However, in 1889, many parents in Greece entrusted the care of their children at home governesses, usually, invited from Western Europe (Spathakis, 1889). The teacher I. Stavros, from Corfu, states that: "the Greek upper bourgeoisie, when the infant becomes a toddler, will not think of nothing else, than how to provide the appropriate German, Swiss or English nurse. [...] I. Stavros was tutor of children of the upper bourgeoisie, brought up by foreign governesses" (Stavros, 1912, p. 137).

Homeschooling was adopted by the Greek upper bourgeoisie of Istanbul, which hired governesses (Delta, 2008a, p. 148). Also, in Russia, where Mademoiselle Dufay, the governess of Delta, worked previously (Delta, 2008a). In Russia, for the Greek diaspora upper bourgeoisie "the educational cell was the house. All kinds of teachers come and go to provide a higher quality education than public schools. The Sifnaiou boys, of the third generation of immigrants, had a teacher who came, especially, from Bucharest. The girls were taught by French female instructors" (Sifnaiou, 1993, pp. 193-194).

a) Study room: 'Mangas', the dog narrates: "Poor human children! Male and female teachers, Misses and Mademoiselles succeeded, the whole day, each other in the home study room" (Delta, 2013, p. 55). Delta mentioned: "at the end of the summer, [...] we went straight to our new home in 'Quartier Grec', in 1884. Our 'school' was in the upper third floor of the house, between two terraces, one facing east and the other west, where we had the right to go out and play. [...] Mademoiselle Dufay's bedroom was on the second floor, under the study room" (Delta, 2008, p. 121). Delta states: "when I entered our study room, it seemed to me that I felt an atmosphere of superiority. The large table with the sour cherry tree baize, that covered all of it and was hanging around it: the mahogany chest of drawers, which was guarding the paint, pencils, pens, toys, sewing accessories: the libraries with the teaching books and our amusing readings, 'Girl's Own Annual', 'Bibliothèque Rose', 'Jules Verne', 'Chatterbox and others', new year's gifts or winning bets, by Constantine Choremi [...], historical books, 'Walter Scott', what a world of impressions, knowledge, thinking and dreaming! The study room window was above the main entrance of the house. It overlooked a street with trees [...]. Far from us, between newly built houses with gardens, appeared the sea [...] of the Alexandrian coast. This window was really enjoyable during the evening, when between two courses, we ate our bread and cheese, in silence or listening to any historical narrative of Mademoiselle" (Delta, 2008a, pp. 143-144). Antony, who was all day at the Jesuits' school, went in the study room only for his evening study (Delta, 2008a, p. 195). Delta in 'The Irresponsible' referred, also, to the study room of the main person of this short story (Delta, 1961a, pp. 45-47).

b) 'Domestic staff' recruited for kids

Nurses: Delta mentions many English, one French and one Italian nurses in her family. She and her older sister and brother always had English nannies. Until they reached school age, they were brought up by them. Their responsibilities were children's nutrition (Delta, 1994), accompanying the children on walks and social visits, the learning of English (Delta, 1980), supervision and discipline. Alexander, two years old in summer 1880, had a nanny from France. Later, the family for the two small children, Alexander and Argini, recruited a Catholic Italian nanny (Delta, 2008a).

Governesses: Delta mentioned the German governess of her friends, one of the famous German Berg sisters, which worked, in all the Greek houses of Constantinople and Alexandria, and were sought after (Delta, 2009).

Greek governesses were not in the preferences of upper bourgeoisie. Delta referred to a Greek governess of her uncle, replaced by a French one: "as for the children of uncle Demosthenes, they had Greek governess, of poor quality too" (Delta, 2008, p. 147). I. Stavros states that: "the upper bourgeoisie, however, does not trust the infant to a Greek nursery teacher". He considers that it was due to lack of appreciation and confidence in the abilities of the Greek governesses and "because it is either out of habit or imitation, i.e. every woman does what her mother or sister did, or another lady of the same social elite" (Stavros, 1912, p. 137).

Finally, "uncle Demosthenes [...] decided to appoint for the children a French governess" in order to provide a better level of education for his children (Delta, 2008a, p. 147). Delta, in her autobiographies, makes references to her own French governess: "When I was ten years old, my father brought from Paris one French teacher, Mademoiselle Dufay, which for us remained as Mademoiselle" (Delta, 1994, p. 6) In 1884, Victorine Dufay joined the Benaki's family as a governess (Delta, 2009). Usually, French governesses arrived in Egypt recommended by the French consulate and the Catholic clergy. V. Dufay was recommended by Mrs. Vlastou (maiden name Ralli), a Greek of Marseille diaspora (Delta, 2008a).

Tutors: Delta referred to Mr. Williams, their tutor for English: "we were talking, reading and writing in English, but the lessons of the old man Williams were funny" (Delta, 2008a, p. 200). The children English books were Mr. Williams's choice. 'The British Girls Annual', English children book series for girls and the relevant for boys were included in the library of their study room (Tselika, 2004).

Delta also had a French tutor, Madame Mettère. She narrates that the girls of the family and the little son Alexander followed, for learning Greek, private courses at home by Greek tutors, firstly Mrs. Sofia and then Mrs. Sofia Fontrier, director of Greek Girls School of Alexandria. In 1899, in a trip to London, the role of the Greek tutor was taken by the mother of Delta. She also reports their Italian dance tutor, named Amfouzo and Mr. Karatzas, the music tutor for piano (Delta, 2008a).

c) Curriculum: There were differences depending on age and gender of children. "Delta mentions in 'Raw remembrances' and 'Trelantonis' that the boys followed a common with girls' curriculum in early age. When, they became older "boys continued their high school studies in Greek or foreign schools" (Zannas, 2006, p. 10). For a girl the betrothal meant the end of her studies. With the betrothal of her sister, Penelope mentioned that: "First, Alexandra did not have any more courses, and I was alone in the courses and in the study, in our study room [...] Alexander still of small age, did not follow the same courses as I" (Delta, 2008a, p. 195).

Languages: Delta lives "in a society that speaks English and French in living rooms and offices, Greek at home, Italian in the street, and uses Arabic when it is known, just to give orders (Navet-Grémillet, 2006, p. 317). Delta describes in both 'Raw Remembrances' and 'Trelantonis' a strict program of courses: Languages, Greek and foreign and general schooling. The children of Delta family were taught "foreign languages [...] and Greek, i.e. a dry katharevousa that repels children from the Greek book and the Greek language, which was essentially limited to the spoken language" (Zannas, 2006, p. 10). Delta reports that "we had just learned how to read and we read English and Greek. We hated our Greek books ... But we devoured our English books" (Delta, 2008a, pp. 27-28). She also narrates: "Our teacher was French, our spirit, upbringing, education and culture was French. Most of our books, all the teaching and most of our entertaining books, were French. The only language I learned well, was French" (Delta, 2008a, p. 200). A characteristic, of the upbringing and the education the children of this bourgeoisie of cosmopolitan diaspora received, is that the autobiography of Delta, 'Memories 1899', is written in French and with some dialogues in English, when the author was 25 years old. The substantial contact with the Greek language will be later (Zannas, 2006).

Delta narrates that the girls of the family and the little son Alexander followed Greek private courses of Mrs. Sofia Fontrier, director of Greek Girls of Alexandria, who had a reputation of a very wise teacher, but that was all superficial, without foundation and depth, she was playing with the technological rules which she knew by heart and she threw dust in the eyes of parents, without any knowledge and without any idea of the appropriate pedagogy and teaching. Everyone, who passed through her hands, remained uneducated, misspelled and the worse, with hate for each printed or handwritten Greek book, text or letter, which reminded us the boring knowledge derived from learning by heart meaningless words and the frustrating effort we made to study and learn by heart whole pages, which we did not understand (Delta, 2008a, pp. 144-145). P. Delta narrates: Antony, "I do not remember if in the afternoon, after the

Jesuits' school, he had a special Greek teacher at home. However, he learned Greek, while we all, the girls and Alexander, who was small, in the hands of Sophie Fontrier, remained illiterate" (Delta, 2008a, p. 147).

Holy indoctrination: with Mrs. Sophia, the Greek teacher (Delta, 2008a).

Agreeable talents: Delta states that with the tutors we "learned music, painting, dancing, crafts" (Delta, 2008a, p. 143). The education of girls was not neglected, but was 'limited' in contrast to the one the boys received. The curriculum consisted of the development of 'agreeable talents' such as 'music and piano, painting, dancing, crafts'. It is aptly argued that in France in 18th century "for the daughters of the nobility and the upper bourgeoisie, education of agreeable talents was also important, and they consisted of competency in domains such as music, drawing, and embroidery. These skills made girls more desirable as spouses, but also, distracted women from other occupations less suited to their gender" (Kibler, 2013, p. 19). Delta states "I still continued my embroidery" (Delta, 1994, p. 261). She reports that "we knew all the dances, since we were 7-8 years old, we gathered, a group of children from every good Greek family in order to 'have dance lessons', which were taking place each time in a different house during the winter afternoon. Three or four instruments accompanied the dances, and we had a tall, blonde, slender, Italian dance teacher, Mr. Amfouzo" (Delta, 2008a, p. 167). And Mr. Karatzas, the music teacher taught piano to Penelope and Alexandra (Delta, 2008a).

Housekeeping occupations: Delta describes in 'Raw remembrances' and 'Trelantonis' that when the girls became older "their education in music and mainly household was completed. The model of the housewife, with the least necessary knowledge for social reasons, is dominant in female education of the era" (Zannas, 2006, p. 10). Especially, for Delta's mother household was the primary, or almost exclusive work for women (Delta, 2008b). She narrates: "My days were very monotonous: in the morning as I got up early, I managed to read a little and then I studied. After eight, I keep sewing until lunch time. Sewing was done exclusively at home, except my dresses and all my girlish life was spent with sewing. In the evenings, often, I went out with my sister or I made social visits with my mother" (Delta, 1994, p. 20). In her autobiographical novel 'Romiopoules', she writes a dialogue between a mother and a daughter. The mother states: "The ornament of woman is the household" (Delta, 2014a, p. 13). Delta narrates that "Mademoiselle watched with dissatisfaction the housekeeping occupations, which, often, interrupted the course" (Delta, 2008a, p. 142).

Children socialization and emotional development

a) Punishment: The aunt of the children, because of bad behavior to their nanny, forbade them to eat fruit at lunchtime and in the evening. She asked Alexander to stand in a corner against the wall as a punishment, and Anthony to go to the attic and stay there until lunchtime (Delta, 1980, p. 42). For bad behavior, Penelope reports that her mother: "slapped me, forbade me to go out with others and sent me to do my homework throughout the rest of the afternoon" (Delta, 1994, p. 5).

The Greek teacher Sophia was beating the children (Delta, 2008a, p. 45). Penelope reports that "When I was nine years old, my mother beat me mercilessly because I smeared my notebook for French courses" (Delta, 1994, p. 5) and she did not study her French lesson. This day, the mother asked her to eat in the study room and not with the others in the dining room (Delta, 2008a, pp. 98-99).

She mentions for her governess that "the three bigger children and the just six years old Alexander, were under the supervision of Mademoiselle Dufay who disciplined us. [...] When she said something, we had to obey immediately. She rarely scolded us [...]. But she imposed herself to us with a discourse, with a nod. She recognized the severity of our parents and had put a rule not to increase our punishments, but through persuasion and love she was by our side and guided us. And she achieved this from the first day" (Delta, 2008, pp. 119-120).

b) Parents and children: Especially, in 'Raw remembrances' the distance between parents and children was impressive (Zannas, 2006). The comfortable life of the children of the bourgeoisie was accompanied by the absence of parents. "In the 'happy' families the gap between parents and children was even greater and parents spent with their children even less time than they do today" (Pilbeam, 2009, pp. 160-161). In 'The Irresponsible' the mother kisses their children only twice a day, in the morning and in the evening (Delta, 1961a, p. 35). "In the morning the kids were dressed, and fed and went to say hello to their parents' room. The father who usually was reading the newspaper hastily said good morning to the children and continued reading. Mother [...] kissed children in order, starting always from the older, with a standard, uniform kissing: at night she gave them another similar kiss, when kids were saying goodnight at bedtime, and that was the caress of the day, "because children should not know how their parents love them". [...] Then, kids went to their lesson" (Delta, 1961a, p. 37). Delta argues that in the books "always mothers embraced, kissed, caressed, loved their

children. After any scolding or cop, we always have the same question: Why only in books mothers love their children, and in life they do not?" (Delta, 2008a, pp. 27-28). "Delta describes in both, 'Trelantonis' and 'Raw remembrances' her childhood. [...] Penelope grows in a strict family environment: paternal and maternal power imposed hard, mainly by fear and lack of any understanding and contact between parents and children. And as the distance is unbridgeable, the love of the delicate child is received by another person, out of the family, the outlandish teacher. In the case of Delta, Mademoiselle Victorine Dufay, was a lifelong friend" (Zannas, 2006, pp. 10-11). Delta reports: as I remember, Antony never complained for the lack of love in our family. [...] I asked him: "You do not admit that our upbringing, although graceless, it builds character? With discipline?" – "No", he repeated softly. [...] "It was ugly, drained and dry." [...] He was hurt just like me, by our upbringing, without love and tenderness" (Delta, 2008a, pp. 175-176).

c) National stereotypes: The 19th century was the age of nationalism which led to stereotypes of countries and, by extension, of foreign governesses, English Miss, German Fräulein and French Mademoiselle. These stereotypes affected visitors and hosts (Bayley, 2014). 'Mangas', the dog narrates: "And also, I don't love Miss, not so much because she was skinny and had big teeth, but because, like Mademoiselle she smells alien" (Delta, 2013, p. 55). Religion also, differentiated people: "she had a foreign protestant teacher, from those who talk a lot about religion with children (Delta, 1961b, p. 211). Delta, in her autobiography reports: "The arrival of Mademoiselle Dufay at home is another landmark in my life. We were predisposed against her, because she was French, 'frog-eater', as our English male teacher said with contempt for every Frenchman" (Delta, 2008a, p. 118). In addition, Delta states that foreign Governesses and tutors underestimated Greek people: "Mademoiselle Langlois spoke for the home and her Greek bosses with the same contempt of Mr. Williams and other foreign tutors" (Delta, 2008a, p. 147). Delta reports that "the French lesson was a delight. I understood it and enjoyed it. I was learning in contrast to the Greek katharevousa language. While the Greek lesson was all about parroting. And this was another reason to feel racial inferiority" (Delta, 2008a, p. 144). Mademoiselle Dufay commented the Greek teacher and contemptuously told to the children "Qu' est ce que c' est que ces leçons, de Mademoiselle Sophie!" (Delta, 2008a, p. 145). Delta, although, presents a negative stereotype for foreign instructors: "wretched, bad, bonnes pour l' exportation". However, she speaks for her own governess positively and even with enthusiasm: "Mademoiselle Dufay was, for our good luck, an exception. [...] She was a real finding. Advanced age, moral woman, God-fearing, devout Catholics, never attempted to convert us to the Catholicism, nor drag us to the Church and religion" (Delta, 2008a, p. 148).

In Greece, in 1889, it was believed that home governesses from Western Europe could teach successfully some foreign languages, or piano, or dancing, etc. But it was better to prefer Greek governesses, as homogeneous and of the same religion (Spathakis, 1889). The teacher I. Stavros considers that foreign governesses did not indoctrinate children, of upper bourgeoisie, according to the principles of Greek family and 'Greek National Union', but pursuant habits and flaws of their foreign homeland (Stavros, 1912, p. 137). In 'Romiopoules' Delta states, plenty of social consciousness "We, the high society, are probably spoiled by foreign influences of teachers and readings" (Delta, 2014c, p. 442). However, she approves, the need of a distinguished education for the high society needs "But as we go to so-called higher social classes, parenting becomes more complex. [...] So we are not prepared, as it was needed, to give to our child the complicated upbringing required in higher classes, similar to his spiritual development. That is, why we find among us many people with intelligence, education and knowledge - but not with character" (Delta, 1961b, p. 204).

The education of the generation of Delta's daughters

Delta, in her autobiography, describes the education of her daughters, born in 1896, 1897 and 1900.

The orientation to massive education in schools

Delta gives the evidence that since the years of her childhood, things have changed for Greek education in Egypt: "the teachers improved, and the school level was higher even from those of the Greek state schools, and all our nephews attended these schools and learned Greek thoroughly. But, the improvement of our schools, for boys and girls, had benefits for the next generation" (Delta, 2008, pp. 197-198). During her family immigration to Frankfurt, in 1907-1913, the education of her daughters was described as partial attendance at a school, only for "some hours a week" (Delta, 2007a, p. 319).

Homeschooling

In 1906, Delta lived with her French governess Victorine Dufay and she states that the Austrian female tutor had left. In Frankfurt, the school attendance was completed by homeschooling. The girls were taught by female tutors (Delta, 2007a). On February 1907, Penelope traveled to Frankfurt, to be settled there, with a female tutor (Delta, 2007a, p. 287). Also, "a Greek female tutor" is mentioned, who lived with the family. She went from Greece to Frankfurt for this purpose, in summer 1907. She was described "with a bouffant hair [...], a little scared, shy, not used in big countries" (Delta, 2007a, p. 319). At Christmas 1907, in Frankfurt, the children sang Greek songs with their 'Greek teacher' and foreign songs with their 'female teachers' (Delta, 2007a, p. 335). In summer 1908, she mentioned excursions with the children and their teacher (Delta, 2007b, p. 457). In 1911, she states: "But in the evening, children would come from the garden, with their new, silly Greek teacher, who had come to Kronberg from Serres, to replace the first who had left to get married, and my girls do not love her at all" (Delta, 2007b, pp. 733-734). In winter 1913-1914, in Alexandria, Delta says that the girls were gathered in the dining room with their French female teacher (Delta, 2007b, p. 330).

The Cultural knowledge preponderance

It is stated that the second generation of the Greek upper bourgeoisie of diaspora in Russia "will follow an already rigged and prosperous business and needed special training. So, along with many other successors of merchants from Mytilene, attended the School of Commerce of Marseilles and other famous schools, as this of Halki. However, the third successive generation has a more European focus on its studies. They studied in the best universities of Europe, in Cambridge, Paris, Berlin and Dresden. It was the generation of bourgeois prepared completely for shouldering the leading role reserving for it in the 20th century" (Sifnaiou, 1996, p. 286). Similarly, the Greek children of upper bourgeoisie in Egypt, of the successor to Delta generation, is aptly argued that "at first they started with the Greek community school (elementary, high school) and then continued their studies abroad (England, France, Switzerland) in more specialized educational directions. Now, education has nothing to do with the elementary literacy or with having an expert technical knowledge that will support the business, but expands to other fields. Over the years the children of these families, apart from business and law, specialized in philosophy of religion, the School of Fine Arts (École des Beaux-Arts), the School of Applied Arts (École des Arts Appliqués) and socialized with people who were in high level regarding the culture, the art and the music creation. It is obvious, that this is an education which responds to a new world coming" (Tomara-Sideris, 2004, pp. 210-211). For the successors of the author's generation, gradually, homeschooling will be replaced with education in schools. Emphasis was given to the attendance at the Greek schools and the learning of the Greek language. Meanwhile, the Greek community in Egypt gradually declines while the interest in returning to Greece is growing. However, the interest in higher education in the capitals of Western Europe remains undiminished. Instead, the focus on business studies, that guaranteed the worthy succession in the family business, decreases, while the interest in studying 'culture' and 'arts' is increasing. This interest will be reflected in the establishment of museums by the descendants of this upper bourgeoisie, in the 20th century in Greece. In 1929, Antony Benakis founded 'Benakis Museum', the oldest museum in Greece operating as a Foundation under Private Law (Tomara-Sideris, 2004, pp. 102-169; Benaki Museum, 2015). However, we should notice that the cultural knowledge and representation, and the 'cultural capital' could be linked with the social position and the 'economic capital' (Bourdieu, 2002).

Discussion

Alexandria was a cosmopolitan city, with foreign communities of diaspora and with constant communication with the major urban centers of Europe. In architecture, in late 19th century, in Egypt also, the European Neoclassicism prevailed. And particularly, a unique style, the Mediterranean neoclassicism, which was succeeded by the European eclecticism. In the upper bourgeois houses, the varied architectural styles followed European trends (Topis, 2002). European was also, the trend in education of the Greek upper bourgeoisie, which constituted a limited leading elite, and followed the upper bourgeoisie of other countries which imitated the nobility's education. 'Homeschooling' was of main importance and the instructors appointed, were mostly from Western Europe.

Indicative is that Mrs. Vlastos in France, Marseille sends a French governess to her sister in Egypt Alexandria. Interesting is also, the testimony of Delta for the German governesses sisters Berg, which had worked in many of the Greek houses of Istanbul and Alexandria, and they were sought after. Delta's autobiography shows the way that the networks of relatives and the networks of communication functioned, within the upper Greek bourgeoisie diaspora, which lives in the Ottoman Empire, Constantinople and Egypt. This communication seems to be very developed due to kinship and

business ties. The Greek upper bourgeoisie diaspora shaped a common culture in relation to the upbringing and the education of their children. The Greek upper bourgeois, in late 19th century, in Greece and in diaspora constitute leading social elites with a distinguished education from other social groups.

The Greek Upper bourgeoisie diaspora 'flourishment' was linked to the European colonial domination. Homeschooling is a main feature of colonial education. Home education gives the flexibility to travel or live in multiple locations. As a cosmopolitan elite, they followed the international principles of upper bourgeoisie education with main feature the private character. Penelope Delta mentioned 'nurses', governesses and full-time and part-time tutors with Austrian, Italian, French, English and Greek origin. The 19th century is the century of nationalisms and negative ethnic stereotypes that are detected between foreign teachers and students and their families as well as between foreign teachers of different nationalities.

Findings show, that Delta was taught curricula at home, followed the habits of urban families of the era. Of main importance were private tutors, who taught in the study room. The courses aimed mainly at the learning of foreign languages, which were necessary in commercial activities, the frequent migrations due to work commitments and the social life with distinguished social events and travels. The learning of the Greek language and their Greek education faced the obstacle of katharevousa (purified) Greek, a language that only a Greek elite could use. The Greek was of secondary importance. The author describes her homeschooling routine. Children followed a strictly planned programme: foreign languages, French and English, Greek, namely the katharevousa, general schooling, holy indoctrination and reading, arts, music and piano, painting, dancing and crafts. Home schooling was very popular within the upper Greek bourgeoisie of diaspora and in Greece. Articles published in Greece criticize this educational approach. They argue that it is not good for the national conscience. They believe that this education was due to social imitation in this distinguished leading social elite. However, it is obvious that also, foreign governesses facilitated the learning of foreign languages from a very early age.

The parents were very strict regarding order and discipline. They spent very little time with their children. While emphasis was placed for both genders on good social behavior and discipline issues. This strict parenting had prioritized children's education and significant amounts were spent for teachers and schools. For the upper bourgeoisie a common educational practice was the migration of their sons for educational purposes, usually in Western Europe, where they remained as boarders. Girls' education was continued at home while for the boys good schools were selected, mainly in Western Europe where they remained boarders. Their education was multicultural, cosmopolitan and oriented to Western Europe. And mainly in the big European cities.

The Greek upper bourgeoisie invests, also, in donations to community schools for, making easier to compatriots to be educated and improve their social status through education. Provides distinct education to its children, in order to maintain distinct social status. At the same time, scholarships, for study and research for children of lower social classes, contribute, facilitate social advancement breaking barriers between social classes.

The new generation of the Greek upper bourgeoisie of Egypt, the children and nephews of P. Delta, were oriented more to the massive school education. They placed more emphasis on learning the Greek language. Their studies invariably had a European orientation. The focus on commercial and business studies was replaced by the preponderance of studies on culture.

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The Gender Education and the Necessity of Improving the Curricula in the Elementary Education - the Analysis of the Scholar Texts

Dr. Monika HODAJ

PhD in Psychology-Pedagogy, at the faculty of the Social Sciences, Tirana.

Methodology and Teaching.

Abstract

This study describes the gender stereotypes, portrait in figures and in sentences like masculine and feminine in the texts of the primary cycle. The aim of this study is to explore the stereotypes connected with the gender roles, in the teaching text of the primary cycle in Albania. More specifically this study aims to identify the: 1. The frequency of the showing (presentation) of the characters feminine and masculine, the primary teaching text; 2. The way of the portraying the masculine and feminine connected to the family roles (housekeeping in a family level); 3. The way of portraying the masculine and feminine connected to the professional roles and the activities away from home (economic and employment activities), the primary school teaching texts. The used methodology in this study is the analysis of the content. The sampling used in this study, were some primary school texts from the 1st – 4th class: such as the ABC, Social Education, Albanian Language, biology, Musical Education, Reading, etc. The data collected from this study, result that all the above analyzed texts, do have high stereotypical doses.

Key words: gender roles, stereotype, parenting styles, professions, games, primary school texts.

Introduction

The formation of the gender roles consist one of the most important aspects of the human development. They have a huge influencing the process of the familiar and social interactions. They also influence on the individual performance during all his way. For these reasons the study of the gender roles is very important.

The gender roles are formed through a socialization process. Despite the family, their coevals and media, the school is one of the most important agents, strongly influence in the gender role development. In the school system, despite the teachers and the coevals, the school texts have a strong influence in the gender roles development. In this context , the primary school text take a very important place because the children whose study these things, are in the middle childhood phase where the gender consciousness. Through these texts, the perception of the different gender roles is memorized in their unconsciousness and it is very difficult to be changed in the later years.

Is this the reason, that in different places of the world there have been many studies , connected with the influence of primary school text(in this sense even the primary texts) in the gender role formation! A series of studies on the gender prejudices in the scholar text, are made in different developed places, including the USA , France, Norwegian, Australia. England (Michel 1986). The recent findings are used in the feminist that according to Michel 1986 , were the first that asked the changes of the gender changes in the scholar texts.

In Albania, the study of the gender roles mass in the scholar text was very limited. It is done only one study connected with the gender stereotypes. This is showed even in the cases when the book authors are very young. The aim of the study is to explore the stereotypes in the teaching texts of the primary school in Albania. More specifically the study aims these objectives.

1. The frequency (how much of happen) the showing of the characters (figures feminine and masculine, in the primary school texts.
2. The way of the portraying the feminine and masculine connected with the family roles in the family roles
3. The way of portraying the feminine and masculine in the professional roles and the portraying the activities away from home (the economic and employment activities) in the primary school texts.
4. The way of describing the games according to the school text gender.

The process of the socialization of the gender roles.

Before starting with the specific literature review connected with the specific objectives of the study, there should be a definition of the terms, gender and gender roles. The gender has to do with the biological composition of the individual that differs a masculine from a feminine. This is defined from the genetically composition of the individual. The individuals behaviors, feminine and masculine and the kinds of the roles they choose, might be influenced, from the genetically, also from the social context. To differ the social roles and behaviors from the biological features, we use the term gender (for the biological feature of the individual) and the gender term (for the social roles and behaviors). The gender roles are defined as the (prescription and faiths connected with the emotions and behaviour of the women and men, as they are defined from the society and the culture (Anselmi and Law 1998, faqe. 195).

According to the World Health Organisation "the gender roles are referred to the roles, behaviour, activities, and attributes that a specific society consider them appropriate for men and women" (World Health Organization, 2013).

Gender affects essentially to the development of the individual, it affects a lot on how the individual interacts with the others and with the physical environment around him. Already, through many studies conclude that gender affects the individual choice to make friends, toys and professions. However, the most accepted point view today is that gender roles are determined by socialization, which is a continuous process through which an individual learns and accepts social norms. Socialization, works by punishing inappropriate behavior and stimulate appropriate behavior for women and men.

Developing the concept of gender and gender roles begins early in life and it is a continuous process. Early childhood and middle childhood have a great importance in this regard. In early childhood, children become aware of their gender and all the activities that they perform, associated with their gender identity ("I am a girl", "I'm a boy"). At this age, the family, schools and the media, exert a great impact which is stereotyped.

The theory of social imitation of Bandurës, the learning of gender roles is one of the most important in this field. According Bandura (1977), in the early childhood, the child learns about the social roles through the imitation process. Social learning theory developed by Bandura, notes the importance of the concept of imitating the behaviors of different models (which can be parents, the child's peers and other important characters to the child). According to this theory, boys learn to behave like boys, miming male and female behavior feminine learn behavior from imitating women, especially mothers and teachers. Laurens and Tshuma (1992) but also Fresher and Walker (1972) emphasize that social learning theory predicts that children learn about sex, correct behavior by gender role models that they see around themselves. In this process, there is a major role of punishment and reward mechanism. According to Bandura, when a guy imitates female behavior is punished, and when imitating a masculine behavior, he is rewarded.

Another important theory about the development of the concept of gender and gender roles is the cognitive development theory of Lawrence. According to Kohlberg, the gender development of the individual passes through three stages: early identity when the individual learns gender ("I am a girl"), then the concept of constant sex ("I always am a girl and when I grow up I will be a woman") and the later concept of gender constantans ("Even if I wear pants, I will be a girl")

The literature review, regarding gender roles in textbooks in different countries.

The studies regarding to the mode of presentation consisting the gender roles in textbooks, are categorized into two groups. The first group includes those who are focused entirely on text analysis and the analysis of illustrations (Koza 1994). It states that the illustrations often affect the mind of the reader, rather than written sentences. (Obura, 1991)

The second group includes those that focus exclusively on the written text (network of women working in Korea, 1997). There is a third group, including studies that have analyzed the studies of both components, as illustrated, and the written text, Obura (1991) and Michel (1986).

In many studies, are used qualitative and quantitative methods and in many cases are made statistical analysis

In many studies, it is evident that the frequency of occurrence of the male characters in textbooks, is greater than that of the female characters (Biraiman, 1988, Charlotte, 1976, Clarkson, 1993, Davies, 1995, Gupta and Su Yin, 1990, Koza, 1994, Michel, 1986, and Obura, 1991).

Studies conducted in Albania on gender stereotypes.

The study of gender stereotypes in textbooks in Albania is limited. In the knowledge of the author is making a study of only about textbooks by Gender Alliance in Albania. Which are analyzed in summary below.

Throughout the study of the elementary texts (Gjermeni., E, Dhamo.M, Sinani..M et al., Tirana, 2005) noted that their focus illustrations were men. Only the texts of Social Education (1-4) it was less evident. There have been making constant efforts to maintain balance, not only in illustrations, but also representative characters, social roles, etc. In texts such as ABC, Reading, Mathematics and natural science, there are very evident that in the illustrations predominate boys. They, through body language, seem to be the leader or having dominant positions. They do not only occupy the largest part of the page of the book, but generally keep tracking tasks and features such as "doctors", "brave", "workers", "wise", "scientists", "promoters". At the same time, they appear as "naughty", "careless about themselves and hygiene", etc.

Figures of girls are mostly situated in the background of illustration. Even when girls have the leading role, they hide behind a phenomenon or phenomena where the figure remains dim.

Generally, there exist functions of the boys, brothers, friends etc., Always clean, the most beautiful, best in everything, but not the initiator. Generally, found at the premises of the home or school, and rarely in the yard, playing with friends.

The individual, regardless of gender, performs several roles in social institutions that may have gender interpretation. The family is a social institution somewhat more "conservative" than other institutions, in the sense that changes to it may happen more slowly. Gender roles of the individual in the family, are generally traditional.

Research Methodology

In this section, there will be a description about the goals and objectives of the study, the instruments are used to collect information, sample size and techniques used, and the way the data is analyzed.

Objectives of the study

The purpose of this study was to explore stereotypes regarding gender roles in textbooks of elementary education in Albania.

The objectives of this study are

Specifically the study aims the following objectives:

1. The frequency (frequency) of performance (appearance) of characters (characters) females and males in elementary textbooks.
2. Forming the portrayal of women and men about their roles in the family (household activities at household level).
3. The way of portraying the men and women in relation to professional roles and activities outside the home (economic activities and employment) in elementary textbooks.
4. The way of describing games by gender, school textbooks.

The method used for the analysis of data

The method used to accomplish the purpose and objectives of the study is the analysis of the content. Through this method, analyzing each piece of information (the writing and illustrations) in textbooks selected for this study

In this study, there are used additionally, descriptions of phenomena and quantitative elements. Quantitative Analysis, see the presence or absence of male characters and the presence of different gender stereotypes, by analyzing the illustrations and written text content.

In analyzing the content there categorized descriptions, illustrations or any other message, in different groups and everything is calculated in numbers. (So, I made numerical encodings about lots of information that is analyzed depending on the goals and objectives of the study.

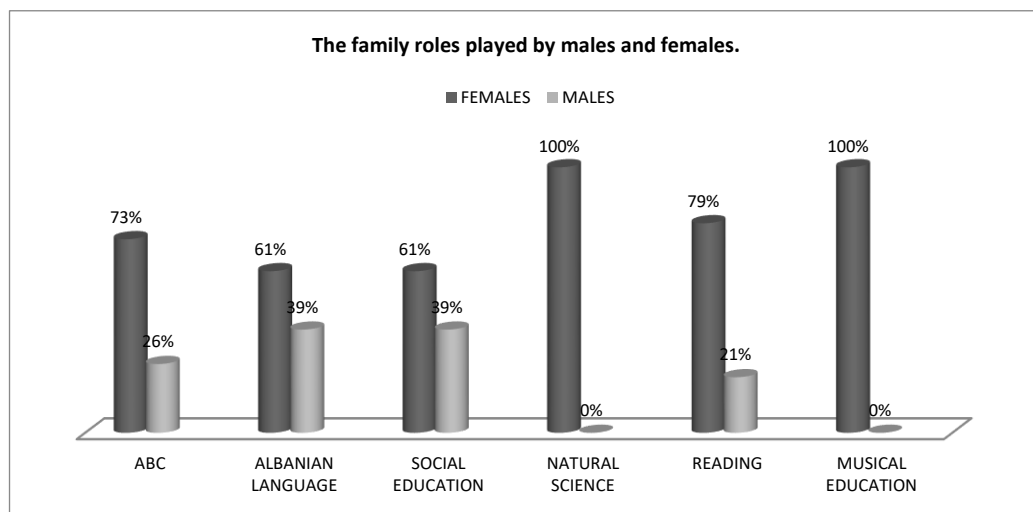
The choice of sample

The sample of this study consists of texts which are currently used in primary schools in Bangladesh. Texts, which were subjected to content analysis are: Primer, Social education 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, reading book 2, 3, 4, 5, natural sciences 3, 4, 5, Education Music 2, 3, 4, Reading 4, 5. Technological Training 5. To learn local history and geography 5.

In this study there are used four categories, to explore ways of describing gender roles in textbooks. A description of each category is based on content analysis of written language and illustrations in textbooks. When determining the categories of analysis are trying to be exclusive categories (ie to include all elements associated with this category). This, we think it has provided adequate level of reliability, the coding and analysis of gender roles, which are reflected in textbooks. Four categories defined to be analyzed in this study are: (1) the frequency of the appearance of male and female characters in textbooks, (2) gender roles in the family (3) economic roles (manufacturing) for women and men, (4) socio-political roles for men and women, and (4) toys for men and women as presented in textbooks of elementary education in Albania.

After detailed study and analysis, the low cycle texts in Albania, noted that Gender Stereotypes are widespread in all school textbooks currently used in schools.

What we found is that generally there is a frequency sufficiently increased portrayal of women in family roles (roles caregivers) about the family and the children. On the other hand, there is an almost total portrayal of men in work outside the home. It is noted, in all texts analyzed. See the chart for several groups of subjects.



Regarding the professions, what can be generalized is that, in most cases are male professions, performed by men. While women are portrayed in most cases in professions (teachers, nurses, etc.). So it is found a pronounced gender division, about occupations, men carry trades traditionally considered masculine and women carry trades traditionally considered feminine..

A strong gender differentiation is shown in terms of games and toys, where the girls depicted in elementary texts, mainly in games traditionally feminine nature (girls presented playing with dolls, houses, etc.) and boys traditionally nature games male (boys appear to play football, horse, automatic etc.). (See the table below)

Table 2 .

a. professions, that are considered traditionally feminine, how many are done by males, and how many are done by females?				
b. professions, that are considered traditionally for males ,how many are done by males, and how many are done by females?				
Texts groups	Feminine professions		Masculine professions	
	How many are done by females?	How many are done by males?	How many are done by females?	How many are done by males?
ABC	27/90%	3/10%	0	24/100%
Language	161/65%	86/35%	5 /6%	85/94%
Social Education	67/78%	19/22%	2 /4%	44/96%
Natural sciences	8/57%	6/43%	0	16/100%
Musical education	11/79%	3 /21%	0	3 /100%
Reading	6/50%	6/50%	0	4 /100%

Recommendation

Eliminating gender stereotypes in elementary texts, constitutes a long and very complex, involving several actors, such as central educational institutions, publishing houses, authors of textbooks and teacher preparation. Addressing the problem of gender stereotypes in elementary school textbooks should include all these actors.

Below there are some recommendations based on the findings of this study and the experience of other countries on this aspect.

For the Ministry of Education and Science.

- Developing the guidance on the requirements specified for maintaining gender balance in the content and illustrations of the elementary textbooks. This may be an instruction included in the overall direction of the Ministry of Education and Science, designs textbook or a special instruction specifically for this purpose.
- Continuous monitoring by the Ministry of Education of the implementation of the requirements for maintaining gender balance in the textbooks of the authors and publishing houses, in such a way that, not allowed to publish books with gender stereotypes.
- providing training to teachers on issues of gender equality, in order, to enable them, in the identification and elimination of gender stereotypes in textbooks and other books school aid
- Training teachers of elementary concerning kenceptet gender equality, so that, to enable them to use such material in class in order to develop, gender equality among students.
- Training and equipping teachers with clear instructions regarding the methodology of transmission of the content of texts, in order, to promote gender balance

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- Ministry of Education and Science in cooperation with publishing houses organize specific training, with groups of authors of textbooks regarding insurance requirements for gender balance in textbooks and shmangiene gender stereotypes.

For the publishing houses:

- Drafting of the houses, which include the publication of textbooks guidelines for editors and authors of the texts concerning the specific requirements to reflect the gender balance in textbooks
- Publishing houses, should have a staff, for gender equality to consult with the writers.

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Building Parent-Teacher Partnerships as an Effective Means of Fostering Pupils' Success

Lenida Lekli, PhD Cand.

"A.Xhuvani" University, Elbasan, Albania

English and German Language Department

E-mail: lenida_l@yahoo.com

lekli.lenida@gmail.com

Entela Kaloti, MA

"Arianiti" School, Elbasan, Albania

E-mail: entela.kaloti@gmail.com

Abstract

Nowadays teachers and other school personnel are aware of problem behaviors among students stemming from different reasons. Awareness of these problems in the classroom is a first step toward preventing disruptive attitudes which are likely to negatively affect classroom environment. Educators and researchers are trying to encourage parent-teacher partnership in the 9th grade educational system as an effective means of improving students' academic success, as well as reducing behavioral problems. Teacher parent relationships can be the most critical component affecting student's learning. Thus, it is most important to get to know the family and share the accomplishment and improvements of the student. Students' learning improves when the teachers communicate with parents on a broad range of issues. Good communication is central to cooperation and support. So in recognition of the importance of parent cooperation and support of children's education, educators are calling on schools to promote partnerships with parents aiming to improve their pupils' progress. This paper aims to answer questions such as: How can schools' directories increase parental participation? What can schools do to foster positive parental involvement? How much would parental participation help in reducing behavioral problems in the classroom? Therefore building a parent-teacher partnership would be a positive solution of decreasing behavioral attitudes of students in the classroom environment.

Key words: parents, partnership, success, participation, solution

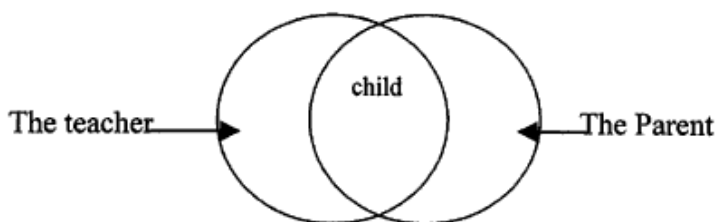
Establishing Parent-teacher relationships

Today's complex global societal and *school* environment we are living in, where teachers are frequently challenging *classroom management* troubles, it has become necessarily requiring to establish teacher-parent partnerships as a strategy to support students' learning. Partnership involves parents, families and practitioners working together to make children benefit from school as much as possible. "Partnership involves responsibility on both sides, teachers and parents if we want pupils to make the required progress". ("Building partnerships between parents and practitioners", n.d. p.7) Parental involvement includes communication between educators and parents, communication about children's homework and their difficulties, participation in school activities etc. So parent-school partnership is extraordinarily complex, including various domains. (Hornby, 2011, p.9-10)

Consequently, in today's world when we are responding to increased professional expectations, economic pressures, time constrains and rapid changes, effective collaboration between educators and parents has become more and more essential to meet the basic needs of the pupils. Parents provide children with their first learning experiences, starting with eating, sitting, walking, coloring at kindergarten, writing and reading at school etc. Since parents help their kids in establishing their basic developmental milestones in life they can also help them do well at school. Therefore reinforcing a strong parent-teacher partnership would be an indisputable strategy in guaranteeing support of their learning process in the educational institutions.

Educators of both elementary and secondary school in Albania identify "lack of discipline and presence of disruptive behaviors" (Rogers, 2003, p. 39-40) as a major problem with our public and non-public schools. Observations have reported increasing levels of antisocial behaviors among peers such as pushing and bullying. Since classroom management is a challenge educators constantly face, then techniques and strategies, one of which is also the establishment of *parent-educator collaboration*, need to be found in order to reduce these problematic attitudes.

As mentioned above, one of the most important aspects of teaching is building positive relationships with parents, as a possible strategy of improving classroom management environment. Effective parent-teacher communication is essential for a teacher to be successful, but it is also essential for a student to make progress. ("School, family and community partnerships, 2008, p.13-18) Most teachers think about having a good relationship with parents. However, just as images of teaching and learning environment vary, so do images of "good" parent-teacher relationships. At one end of the spectrum, the image of a good relationship is an effective separation of roles and functions between home and school; a separation which would influence pupils.

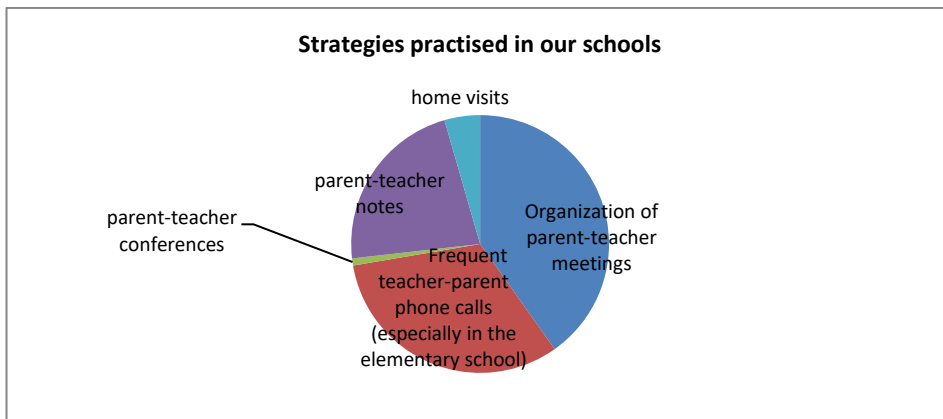


A student who knows that the teacher communicates on a regular basis with his/her parents and who knows that his/her parents *trust* the teacher, will likely put more effort into school. (Davis, 1995, p.23-24) Putting more efforts into school, being more hard-working and attentive to school subjects implies more concentration on the lesson, and less disruptive behaviors in the classroom which would undoubtedly negatively affect the teaching process. Likewise, a student who knows that the teacher rarely or never communicates with his/her parents, and/or his/her parents do not trust the teacher is likely to cause the opposite. So that would be counterproductive and of course it would create problems for the teachers on the management of the classroom environment and the management of the disruptive behaviors caused by pupils. But what do school directories and teachers currently do to increase parental involvement?

Strategies applied in 9th grade school system

Teachers actively strive to incorporate techniques that would maximize their sharing of information, regarding pupils' progress at school, with their parents. Based on observations in the 9th grade schools three strategies seem to be commonly practiced in our schools in Albania:

- Organization of parent-teacher meetings (once in a month, or by the end of each term)
- Frequent teacher-parent phone calls (especially in the elementary school)
- Parent-teacher notes



As it can be observed home visits and parent-teacher conferences are not applied by the school teachers as a possible way of increasing parent-teacher partnership, of improving students' behaviors and school progress too. Regarding the organization of *parent-teacher meeting*, (Graham, n.d., 11-14) although it is the most frequently used way of contacting students' parents, it is not always welcomed by them (parents), since not all of them do attend these preplanned school meetings. When asked about this issue, most of the teachers claimed that some parents' interest versus their child's progress seems to be decreasing, highly reflected in their absence in these events. Only 60-70% of parents do take part in these school gatherings, the rest of whom consider them as time consuming.

Applying parent-teacher notes is another successful strategy which seems to work better with the little kids, who seem to be eager in delivering these notes to their parents in order to know what their progress is according to their teachers.

Would technology be successful in achieving a good two-way communication between educators and parents? As already included in the above chart, if we talk about phones, it is to be admitted that they are a great flexible way of contacting parents and establishing a successful two way voice communication even from the classrooms when pupils are not present. Surveys have shown that a great number of teachers in Albania apply the use of cell phones in contacting with their pupils' parents, but when it comes to the use of computers (e-mails), as another technological development achieving parent-teacher collaboration, it has proved to be the least effective one due to the lack of information technology knowledge regarding the use of computers from parents, especially those over 40 years old.

However, communicating clearly and frequently with parents applying whichever possible means of communication, can help create situations that will assist parents in working more closely with their child's teacher to strengthen their learning, including even a home environment in which learning can take place effectively.

What are some of the positive and negative effects of parent-teacher relationships?

Good communication skills between parents and educators is the key to motivating children's learning and their success at school. Consequently, increased children's motivation and desire in learning means more attention and engagement towards the teaching process, reducing in this way disruptive and undesirable behaviours of theirs maximizing in this way the positive climate of a well managed classroom. (Porter, 2008, p.4-5)

Therefore, parent-teacher collaboration seems to establish a strong "knot" with classroom management highly contributing to the successful ongoing of the teaching process and its positive results. Strengthening parent-teacher relationships and collaboration can have both positive and negative benefits for students:

Positive effects	Negative effects
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can increase academic achievement - Can improve students' attitudes toward school - Can improve their behavior versus their peers or classmates 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can promote negative attitudes on the side of the students versus their teachers and parents, due to this mutual teacher parent control

- Encourage students to learn inside and outside the classroom	- <i>Can increase displeasing behaviors among peers due to this age problems</i>
- Promote good study habits	

The above mentioned negative effects are mostly evident in the 7th, 8th, 9th grade students. Characterized by this age's problems (nearly teenagers, nearly 13,14 or 15 years old), these students are more likely to reflect negative reactions in the school environment as well as in their homes. *Two or three* students in each class seem to reflect such behaviors, they belong mainly to that category of students who have continuously been characterized by low school progress. In such situations educators need to be tactful when consulting school pupil's problems with their parents. When facing this group of students, both parents and teachers' collaboration should focus not only on their school achievement but even on their psychological development and problem solving of such difficulties. Only in this way would positive "psychological care and treatment of this group age". (Hornby, 2011, p.105-106) characterized by teenage troubles, reduce undesirable behaviours and contribute positively to the establishment of positive rules in the classroom not distorting the teaching process.

Activities increasing parent's involvement

It is to be accepted that there is a lack of parents' involvement in schools regarding children's education. Since this current parent involvement goes beyond contributing candies and sweets to class parties as it usually happens, it is the teachers' and school's responsibility to do the utmost in increasing parents' participation and collaboration in their children's education. Schools' directories or individual teachers can:

- Plan annual activities early in the school year that serve to introduce families and school teachers in a positive setting, rather than waiting until problems arise from pupils.
- Teachers can provide parents with periodic updates of pupils' class activities and assignments by applying any of the above mentioned strategies..
- Schools can sponsor presentations or workshops (made by teachers themselves) for parents to support their child's education. This would undoubtedly give a sense of familiarity between teachers and parents breaking in this way the barriers between the educators and parents.
- One innovative strategy to be applied in our schools would be the preparation of a *Parent-Teacher conference*. It could be organized at least once a year. The decision of topics for discussion could also be an agreement between the three teachers-parents-pupils, setting in this way responsibilities to each of them, at the meantime also increasing collaboration among the three of them. ("Building partnerships between parents and practitioners", n.d. p.14-15)

The application of such strategies would subsequently lead to the elaboration of common plans by both educators and parents in enhancing students' progress, in reducing pupils' misbehaviors and in increasing lesson efficiency due to the creation of a positive well managed classroom environment.

Conclusion

Parent-teacher partnership is emphasized to be an effective means of fostering students success in a well managed classroom environment. Effective communication is crucial in establishing these strong useful knots between school and home, these two fundamental institutions, equally sharing the responsibility of contributing to the children's progress. Research has proved that when parents and teachers work together, everyone benefits: students tend to earn higher grades, perform better on tests, attend school more regularly, have better behavior, and show more positive attitudes toward themselves and toward school.

Finally it is to be emphasized that every communication exchange between parents and educators, regardless of its format (whether it is a note, phone call, meeting etc) should be viewed as a carefully planned approach which would definitely support students' learning in a stimulating and encouraging classroom.

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Stylistic problems of translation

Sevda Huseynova Sohrab

Lecturer, Coordinating Unit for Language Study

Qafqaz University

shuseynova@qu.edu.az

Abstract

Translation is the expression in another language (or the target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences (Dubois 1974). Translation is ultimately a human activity which enables human beings to exchange ideas and thoughts regardless of the different languages they use. A good translation is one that carries all the ideas of the original as well as its structural and cultural features. The meaning or sense of any language unit is indivisibly connected with its emotional color. While translating a word, word combination or a grammatical phenomenon. It is necessary to settle the problem what feelings and emotions are connected with the meaning or sense of the language units. Even the lack of emotional color is stylistically of great importance, because it is an indication of the fact that the given word or grammatical phenomenon is emotionally neutral and this neutral emotional color must be preserved in translation. As it is known, the adequate translation conveys not only the sense, but also the expressive-stylistic peculiarities of the original. Therefore, the problems of conveying of stylistic peculiarities of lexical and grammatical phenomena has always been studied together with various lexical and grammatical problems of translation. Nevertheless, in this practical work the translators face problems which may be called stylistic in essence. Therefore, transformation stylistic devices in translation requires a creative approach and skill from the translator in order to value the device used in the text from the point of view of its stylistic color in the text, and also his mastery to compare the functions of these devices in the source and target languages.

Keywords: sense, stylistically, translation, peculiarity, indication, lexical, grammatical, transformation, skill, stylistic devices, sense, peculiarity

Introduction

The first traces of translation date from 3000 BC, during the Egyptian Old Kingdom, in the area of the First Cataract, Elephantine, where inscriptions in two languages have been found. It became a significant factor in the West in 300 BC, when Romans took over wholesale many elements of Greek culture, including the whole religious apparatus. In the twelfth century, the West came into contact with Islam in Moorish Spain. The situation favored the two essential conditions for large-scale translation: a qualitative difference in culture (the West was inferior but scientifically acquisitive and receptive to new ideas) and continuous contact between languages. When the Moorish supremacy collapsed in Spain, the Toledo school of translators translated Arabic versions of Greek scientific and philosophical classics. Luther's Bible translation in 1522 laid the foundations of modern German and King James's Bible (1611) had a seminal influence on English language and literature. Significant periods of translation preceded Shakespeare and his contemporaries, French classicism and the Romantic Movements (4, 3).

The twentieth century has been called the "age of translation" (Jumpelt, 1961) or 'reproduction' (Benjamin, 1923). Whereas in the nineteenth century translation was mainly a one-way means of communication between prominent men of letters and, to a lesser degree, philosophers and scientists and their educated readers abroad, whilst trade was conducted in the language of the dominant nation, and diplomacy, previously in Latin, was in French, international agreements between state, public and private organizations are now translated for all interested parties, whether or not the signatories understand each other's languages. The setting up of a new international body, the constitution of an independent state, the formation of a multinational company gives translation enhanced political importance. The exponential increase in technology (patents, specifications, documentations), the attempt to bring it to developing countries, the simultaneous publication of the same book in various languages, the increase in world communications has correspondingly increased requirements. UNESCO, which up to 1970 published an *Index Translationum*, recorded a 4,5 fold increase since 1948, with translations into German nearly twice as many as into Russian, second most numerous. Scientific, technical, and medical journals are translated wholesale in the USA and USSR. The EEC now employs 1600 translators. In 1967, 80,000 scientific journals were being translated annually (Spitzbart, 1972). Some international writers (in the age of international culture and

world-literature) immediately sell more widely in translation than in original, whilst others in Italy and the smaller European countries depend for a living on the translation of their works as well as their own translations.

Definition

Translation is the expression in another language (or the target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences (Dubois 1974). Translation is ultimately a human activity which enables human beings to exchange ideas and thoughts regardless of the different languages they use. Al Wassetly (2001) views the phenomenon of translation as a legitimate offspring of the phenomenon of language, since originally, when humans spread all over the world, their languages differed, and they needed a means through which people speaking certain language would interact with others who spoke a different language (13).

Translation is, in Enani's (1997) view, a modern science at the interface of philosophy, linguistics, psychology, and sociology. Translation is, in Chabban's words (1984:5), "a finicky job," as it has not yet been reduced to strict scientific rules, and it allows for the differences that are known to exist between different personalities (13). Translation is a heavily subjective art, especially when it deals with matters outside the realm of science where precisely defined concepts are more often expressed by certain generally accepted terms. Translation between languages is not the whole of translation, but it is an especially illuminating limit case of a much

broader phenomenon. The need to translate the spoken word (either within or between languages) presents serious practical difficulties for a great many people on a day-to-day basis. However, it is written texts that most profoundly present the theoretical problem of translation; a "literal" translation would be inconceivable in an entirely oral culture. Indeed, the notion of "fidelity" to an "original" must be quite different in an oral culture than it is in a print-dominated culture (1, 3-5).

Criteria for a good translation

A good translation is one that carries all the ideas of the original as well as its structural and cultural features. Massoud (1988) sets criteria for a good translation as follows:

A good translation is

1. easily understood.
2. A good translation is fluent and smooth.
3. A good translation is idiomatic.
4. A good translation conveys, to some extent, the literary subtleties of the original.
5. A good translation distinguishes between the metaphorical and the literal.
6. A good translation reconstructs the cultural/historical context of the original.
7. A good translation makes explicit what is implicit in abbreviations, and in allusions to sayings, songs, and nursery rhymes.
8. A good translation will convey, as much as possible, the meaning of the original text (13).

El Shafey (1985: 93) suggests other criteria for a good translation; these include three main principles:

1. The knowledge of the grammar of the source language plus the knowledge of vocabulary, as well as good understanding of the text to be translated.
2. The ability of the translator to reconstitute the given text (source-language text) into the target language.
3. The translation should capture the style or atmosphere of the original text; it should have all the ease of an original composition (13).

Translation problems

Translation problems can be divided into stylistic problems, linguistic problems and cultural problems. Stylistic problems of translation include three main groups of issues: lexico-stylistic, grammatico-stylistic problems and problems connected with the stylistic peculiarities of various genres. The linguistic problems include grammatical differences, lexical ambiguity and meaning ambiguity. The cultural problems refer to different situational features (5, 13-14). This classification coincides with that of El Zeini when she identified six main problems in translating from Arabic to English and vice versa; these are lexicon, morphology, syntax, textual differences, rhetorical differences, and pragmatic factors. Another level of difficulty in translation work is untranslatability. Culture constitutes another major problem that faces translators. A bad model of translated pieces of literature may give misconceptions about the original. That is why Fionty (2001) thought that poorly translated texts distort the original in its tone and cultural references, while Zidan (1994) wondered about the possible role of the target culture content as a motivating variable in enhancing or hindering the attainment of linguistic, communicative and, more importantly, cultural objectives of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) education. Hassan (1997) emphasized this notion when he pointed out the importance of paying attention to the translation of irony in the source language context. He clarified that this will not only transfer the features of the language translated but also its cultural characteristics.

Stylistic problems of translation

The transfer of stylistic units is one of the major tasks in translation. It should be paid special attention. Stylistic devices of a language are divided into four subdivisions:

1. Lexical stylistic devices- epithet, metaphor, metonymy, ontonomasia, zeugma, irony, pun, oxymoron, violation of phraseological units.
2. Syntactical stylistic devices- repetition, detachment, parallelism, gap-sentence link, asyndeton, polysyndeton, chiasmus, aposiopesis, question-in-the-narration, rhetorical questions, sudden-break-in the narration.
3. Lexico-syntactical stylistic devices- represented speech, antithesis, hyperbole, understatement, simile, climax, anticlimax, litotes, periphrasis, euphemisms.
4. Phonetical stylistic devices- rhyme, alliteration, rhythm, onomatopoeia (10, Jochen Luders).

The translation of above given stylistic devices should meet certain stylistic requirements, i.e. normative rules characterizing texts of the same type in the target language. These requirements are:

1. Semantic correspondence. Depending on the style and orientation of translation the translator must always strive to ensure that the translated text reflects the true meaning of the original. Semantic correspondence includes stylistic accuracy, adequacy and completeness.
2. Literacy. The main requirement is that the text is consistent with the general rules of the Azeri and foreign languages. As a rule, the absence of stylistic, grammatical and spelling errors is expected to be.
3. Lexical and stylistic consistency. It is assumed to be the correct selection of equivalents to the terms of the original, the search for analogues of acronyms and abbreviations, correct transliteration. The general style of the translated text and style of the original should not diverge in perception. Technical translations are characterized by the accuracy of phrases, lack of emotionally colored words, the construction of simple sentences, impersonality.

To make the speech relevant to the main stylistic requirements, to be expressive, precise and stylistically motivated, and the devices which used are the most appropriate for the content expression and relevant in the present context, the speaker must master the stylistic resources of a language and know its stylistic norms. Translation, either oral or written, is a complex and multi-dimensional process (12, 1-3).

The meaning or sense of any language unit is indivisibly connected with its emotional color. While translating a word, word combination or a grammatical phenomenon, it is necessary to settle the problem what feelings and emotions are connected with the meaning or sense of the language units. Even the lack of emotional color is stylistically of great importance, because it is an indication of the fact that the given word or grammatical phenomenon is emotionally neutral and this neutral emotional color must be preserved in translation (1, 6-9).

As it is known, the adequate translation conveys not only the sense, but also the expressive-stylistic peculiarities of the original. Therefore, the problems of conveying stylistic peculiarities of lexical and grammatical phenomena has always been studied together with various lexical and grammatical problems of translation. Nevertheless, in this practical work the

translators face problems which may be called *stylistical* in essence. We speak of those cases when various expressive means are intentionally used to make the text more striking and emotional, to make it impress the reader more from the emotional point of view. This goal may be achieved by using lexical expressive means, as well as stylistic devices, by means of special combination of phrases and sentences, i.e. by using syntactical stylistic devices and expressive means. Each of these devices aimed at making the text stylistically colored obliges the translator to turn to a number of special methods for solving them. Moreover, the translator very often encounters difficulties connected with the problem that the SLT (source language text) belongs to a definite speech style. Stylistic idiosyncrasy of certain genres in different languages does not coincide. The translator should know the main cases of such discoincedences and be familiar with the general principles of translation of texts belonging to various genres (9, 44)

Thus, as it has already been mentioned above Stylistic problems of translation include three main group of issues: lexico - stylistic, grammatico -stylistic problems and problems connected with the stylistic peculiarities of various genres.

Differentiation of lexical and grammatical means used to achieve a certain stylistic effect does not mean that they have been separated by an unsurmountable barrier. Identical emotional background may be created by various stylistic devices. The task of the translator, first and foremost is to convey this background by an adequate one, but not to copy or imitate the stylistic devices of the original, which is sometimes impossible.

While conveying stylistic peculiarities of the original the translator very often is obliged to substitute lexical expressive means by grammatical ones and vice-versa. The heroine of the novel "Vanity Fair" by W.M. Thackeray describes the ignorance of Sir Pitt "him and his family has been cheating me on that farm these hundred and fifty years".Sir Pitt might have said, he and his family to be sure, but rich baronets do not need to be careful about grammar as poor governesses must be.

All the irony expressed in this extract is based on the wrong use of the form of the third person of the pronoun by Sir Pitt. Attempts to convey this wrong use in Russian or Azerbaijani grammar, i.e. by distorting the pronouns *он, о* or by any other grammatical forms is perhaps impossible. The best way to convey the non - literary speech of Sir Pitt is by means of lexical units.

It is evident that in many cases the translator is obliged to involve descriptive translation to convey the stylistic color of the original. For example:

In December 1945, President Truman, one of the more of the outspoken jins goes, made the eagle scream with:

"Whether we like it or not, we must recognize that the victory which we have won has placed upon the American people the continuing burden of responsibility of the world leadership". (W. Foster, Outline of Political History of the America)

In this example, for the underlined part of the sentence, it is required to avoid the translation on the word level. Because in the translation on word level, words occur in the role of the units of translation:

He came home early yesterday.

One must bear in the mind that while speaking of the units of translation we mean the units of the source language. Therefore, we speak about translation on word level even in those cases when the word of the source language (SL) corresponds not to one, but to several words or a whole word combination in the TL.

The most difficult type of translation is the transformation of set- phrases. As it is known, the meaning of a set-phrase is not the sum of meanings of its components, i.e. there are words which are untranslatable on word level in majority of cases, because the whole word-combination or set-phrase occurs in the role of a unit of translation (9, 8-9) : *make the eagle scream.*

Translation on word level of set-phrases is possible only in those cases when their "internal" forms in the SL and the TL coincide, for example, *to play with fire.*

The translator should always strive to convey adequately all colors of the SLT by using all methods and means which have been worked out by the theory and practice of translation.

Before beginning to study the ways how to convey the separate stylistic devices in translation it is necessary to focus attention on idiosyncrasies of the original, viz. on of the English language of all kinds, pun, zeugma which are based on compensation as a principle, which may serve a good example of a special type of contextual substitution. The translator must well know the essence of this method and use it skillfully depending on the nature of expressive means conveyable in translation (9, 45).

Very often expressive means and stylistic devices of the SL do not yield in translation by means of the same figures of speech. In reality such stylistic idiosyncrasies may be considered intranslatable. We may refer to them most of all, diversions from the norms the interaction of meanings of homonyms, devices based on the formal aspect of English words, etc. In a number of cases, the translator appeals to contextual substitution of the expressive means, but not seldom this method also occurs to be useless. It does not mean that the translator can not convey such stylistic devices with the resources of the TL. To overcome these difficulties the translator may always turn to the method of compensation. The essence of this method is that when the translations suffer "losses" in conveying expressiveness the translator tries to compensate "these losses" by creating here or somewhere an identical means of the same stylistic value. Thus, a certain extract of the TLT begins to correspond to the SLT from the stylistic point of view wholly. It is necessary to bear in mind that the translator should better provide the stylistic equality in translation than to preserve the stylistic device (SD) in the exact place. If the SLT abounds with SD like pun, zeugma and others, then the TLT must possess SD of the same nature. If in some places the translator is unable to convey these SDs with identical SDs, he must compensate these "losses" by creating identical SDs somewhere nearby in the TLT if possible.

Some peculiarities of the colloquial English language are impossible to convey without the application of compensation, for example, addition and omission of vowels or consonants which are very characteristic in speeches of illiterate Englishmen (it instead of hit), absence of agreement between the subject and predicate (I was, you was) or any other violation of the grammar rule (6, 472-473).

The method of compensation is one of the types of the contextual substitutions. The main difference of such contextual substitution from other types of substitution is that contextual substitution is often used quite in a different place of translation. In this case, substitution is used not only to convey a concrete expressive element or stylistic device, but to preserve the stylistic color inherent to the original. If this goal is achieved in translation, separate "losses" while conveying various expressive means and devices will be insignificant for the adequateness of translation as a whole.

The English simile "as old as the hills" is usually translated into Azeri language as "dunya qeder qedim". But Ch. Dickens used this simile in his novel "David Copperfield" in a prolonged metaphor:

...quaint little panes of glass and quainter little windows though as old as the hills, were as pure as any snow that ever fell upon the hills.

In A. Johnstone's book "In the name of Peace" there is such a metaphor:

Dirt for the millionaire scavengers, is worth many times its weight in gold.

Here the meaning of "dirt" may be retained in Azeri language, as this word is widely used in transferred meaning, but what to do with the word "scavengers"? If we use its dictionary meaning in the translation such an image would be senseless. That is why we need to prefer quite insulting meaning for this context, and in this way it is impossible to change the image of the translation (9, 49-50).

Conclusion

Expressiveness in speech is very often achieved by making a stylistic use of lexical units. The author uses words in their transferred meanings, in the form of metaphors, metonymies, epithets, compares them with the meanings of other words, opposes the meanings of one and the same word within one and the same context or the meanings of homonyms and so on. Such SDs creates certain difficulties for translators, If it is comparatively easy to look for a corresponding meaning of the word in the TL, it is very difficult to find dictionary and transferred equivalents in SL and TL. And it is quite impossible to find identical homonymous pairs in the two languages, because of correspondence of sound form of words.

Therefore, transformation stylistic devices in translation requires a creative approach and skill from the translator in order to value the device used in the text from the point of view of its stylistic color in the text, and also his mastery to compare the functions of these devices in the source and target languages.

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The “Honorable” Gentlemen in Hard Times

Mahmut Terci, PhD

Beder University, Tirane

Abstract:

Although 'Mr. Gradgrind' and 'Mr. Bounderby' have higher class status in *Hard Times*, Dickens ironically describe them as 'honorable' gentlemen who cause immense destruction both in educational and economical institutions. On the one hand, as a politician and a father 'Mr. Gradgrind' grinds or destroys his children as well as other kids' imagination and sense of wondering in their learning process at home and school. Mr. Gradgrind regrets a lot in the end when he sees what he has corrupted in the nature of his children. While the children are educated with facts only, their feelings, imaginations and natural wonderings are neglected consciously. On the other hand, as a social climber, wealthy 'Mr. Bounderby' who always boasts his self-made richness, behaves unfaithfully to his mother – who always deserves respect and close care from their own children–. He also humiliates his 'hands' or workers and squeezes them as much as he can. While the workers work hard to survive, their practical, individual and social needs are not only unseen but they are also considered nonsense by their ill-mannered, dishonorable and unscrupulous boss named Mr. 'Bounderby' by Dickens. Although *Hard Times* is one of the shortest novels of Dickens, he makes, through it, a great difference and contribution to the society by warning the people with the descriptions of the *devious gentleman*. Dickens also implies that the destruction of this type of gentlemen and their effects might be sensed rather deeply in the society if they were selfish, dishonorable, dishonest politicians and wealthy people who work together. Dickens is one of the rare writers who highlight this collision, corruption, nepotism or economical and social destruction organized by them. Thus, he did not have enough time to see how these “honorable” gentlemen – mainly politicians and the rich – develop their gang with the *gentleman* in the media, bureaucracy and even in the military forces. If he had lived more, he would have seen how the wars, rows, struggles, conflicts, the anarchy and terrorism – artificially created by them – destroyed the millions of lives and how a lot of countries suffered from their systematic corruption and destruction.

Keywords: *gentleman, Charles Dickens, Hard Times, true gentleman, devious gentleman, crime, education, Utilitarianism*

Introduction

“The concept of the gentleman” in English culture was a social force from the early ages to the nineteenth century. Its great influence felt deeply especially in the Victorian society. Because even a simple term like ‘the book’ has varied images in everybody’s mind, it is quite natural that the vague term ‘gentleman’ should “have different meanings in different mouths and even the same person would use it in different senses, cover[ing] interpretations of a thousand shades.” (Berberich, 4) There have been varied considerations whether it has lost its social force in the modern world or its morality still exists even in the modern and/or post-modern world. A clear portrait of the gentleman can be obtained when these works – namely Robin Gilmour’s *The Idea of the Gentleman in the Victorian Novel* (1981), Philip Mason’s *The Rise and Fall of the English Gentleman* (1982), Philip David Castronovo’s *The English Gentleman: Images and Ideals in Literature and Society* (1987), Shirley Robin Letwin’s *The Gentleman in Trollope: Individuality and Moral Conduct* (1997) and Christine Berberich’s *The Image of the English Gentleman in Twentieth-Century Literature: Englishness and Nostalgia* (2007) – are investigated. Thus, distinct views of critics, writers, philosophers and important figures on the concept of the ‘gentleman’ find their places in these works.

Not only in the mentioned works above but also in other academic works we have traced the image of the gentleman in English Culture. We have observed that the changes in the English society in their cultural and moral environment have had the most important impacts on the concept of the gentleman. The complex mixture of qualities expected in a gentleman such as his ‘birthright’, ‘education’, ‘wealth’, ‘income’, ‘vocation’, ‘civic responsibilities’ and ‘personal virtue’ have made it difficult to pinpoint the exact definition.¹ Although it has been hard for everybody to get an exact definition of the term because of its relation with ‘masculinity’, ‘social class’, ‘manners’, ‘morality’ and ‘Englishness’ we have introduced distinct views of critics, writers and important figures to observe their point of views. We have seen that the gentleman’s social

¹ For details see Mark C. Nitcholas. *The Evolution of Gentility in Eighteenth-Century England and Colonial Virginia Texas*: University of North Texas, 2000.

position in the English gentry and his evolution from the fifteenth to the nineteenth century. While the gentleman's chivalric qualities used to play important roles as well as his social status and wealth in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the gentleman's manners and morals gained more importance in the subsequent centuries. Moreover, the Victorian age was the high time when gentlemanliness was in its rise and was considered almost a religion due to its popularity. The historian Penelope J. Corfield's research, *The Rivals: Landed and Other Gentlemen* (1996), has made it obvious that the term 'gentleman' has both social and moral connotations throughout the ages. (Corfield, 5) The important point that "the concept of the gentleman was not merely a social or class designation but there was also a moral component inherent in the concept" (Cody, 1) has also been emphasized by David Cody.

We prefer to analyze the gentleman in three main categories – namely 'gentleman of birth,' 'gentleman of wealth' and 'gentleman of manners' – according to their significant characteristics in its evolution from past to present. While the 'gentleman of birth' has been attached to 'nobility', social status as well as to chivalric characters especially in the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, 'the gentleman of wealth' has been connected with his rise to upper-class through marriages or with the money he gained from wars, land or trade in the seventeenth, eighteenth and even nineteenth centuries. The idea of the gentleman has its roots in the term itself as it denotes noble birth and being well-bred. Although the 'noble birth' or 'man of ancestry' approach to the idea of gentleman was criticized by some critics, writers used to feel proud of their ancestors' 'nobility' from which they could not detach themselves too easily. In some of Dickens's works this notion can be observed. We have also seen that not only the gentleman's 'noble birth' but his 'wealth' – gained on the battlefields in the early periods mostly through trade and high rank professionals in the British colonies – also played crucial roles in his obtaining a social status in the traditional English gentry.

The nineteenth century, particularly in the Victorian England, saw the *rise* of the gentleman in two specific ways: first in *quantity* and then in *quality*. The increased opportunities in the social status in terms of 'wealth' and 'high rank' for the lower and middle classes caused a lot of *commoners* to gain a higher status in the English society. With the expansion of the British Empire the upper class needed to share the *gentlemanly* status with more 'ruling class' gentleman. The 'wealthy' gentleman was never rejected; he was easily accepted and welcomed to the upper class. The education of the *new apprentice* gentleman was a must in two aspects: his *manners* and *intellectual capacity* had to be improved. The new 'educated' or 'leveled up' gentleman in his manners, morals and mind power had significant contributions to the English society in two aspects. The integration of the gentleman in his new environment had deep impacts on preventing the bloody revolution in Great Britain – as it happened in France due to the huge gaps in life standards and the hatred between the upper and lower classes. The educated gentleman functioned like a seed in many fields of life from the rapid development in sciences, technology and industry to his engagement in political arena. His influence was felt even from the reduction of the crimes to the philosophical and sociological developments in Victorian England.

As a result of the development especially in social sciences with the incredible increase in the number of the readers who bought newspapers, periodicals, and magazines regularly, there used to be heated discussions on defining the characteristics of the gentleman. Significantly, in Victorian England, almost every intellectual approached the idea of the gentleman from various perspectives and it was time that the *morality* of the gentleman should gain more importance than his *wealth* or *high status* in the traditional hierarchy. There was a significant tendency to perceive and describe the gentleman with his 'gentility', 'courtesy' and gentle 'manners'. Nevertheless, it became hard to distinguish the *true* gentleman from snobs and *devious* gentlemen. That is why we have aimed at having a close look at the distinctive characteristics which made a man a *true* or a *devious* gentleman particularly in the Victorian novels. While the true gentleman, playing his role as a leader, a social reformist, a benevolent humanist, a real peacemaker, an activist and a hero dedicates his own life to his people's pleasure, happiness, comfort and welfare, the devious gentleman is selfish, never cares about the others and hurts the people he lives by. Hence, in this article Mr. Gradgrind's and Mr. Bounderby's behaviors have been investigated as the result of the destruction they cause both in the society and in the environment. With *Hard Times* Dickens particularly attacks both on the education system named 'Utilitarian Ideology', which neglected children's imagination, and on 'Industrialism', which neglected the workers' social needs in the portrayal of these two *devious gentlemen* have also been projected.

I. "Grand-Grinders" in the Utilitarianism System

The 'utilitarianism' was one of the important tendencies in Victorian Age that Dickens needed to satirize the movement when it became an obsession to 'build-up' new 'intellectual' and 'educated' individuals for the needs of the expanding empire. Not only so many unnecessary 'facts' which were aimed to be loaded into the minds of 'children' but their 'fancies'

or in other words their 'imagination' as well as their 'feelings' and 'wisdom of heart' – psychological needs – were ignored so that Dickens needed to criticize the awful situation using his satirical style with this novel. Dickens also implies that the young *brains* are 'grinded' with the philosophy of 'utilitarianism' with the word 'grind'. As to Mr. Bounderby, the young *bodies* are grinded with the hard conditions – as a result of low salaries and poor social and living conditions - in the factories of industrial towns.

Dickens gives special care to naming the characters that have significant meanings. In the name 'gradgrind', the word 'grind' implies the philosophy of Mr. Grandgrind's way of education which the 'facts' are the only things children should learn and unfortunately it destroys or 'grinds' the natural abilities, talents or capacities of the children. According to Grandgrind, who strictly believes that the education of 'mind' is enough, the education of the 'heart' has no importance in a person's intellectual, emotional and psychological education. Mr. Grandgrind advises his own children, Louisa and Tom, not to wonder at anything at all and what he wants them to do is to learn only about 'facts' of life. It is Dickens's way of mocking at the fashionable current in education at the time, utilitarianism.

'Now, what I want is, Facts. Teach these boys and girls nothing but Facts. Facts alone are wanted in life. Plant nothing else, and root out everything else. You can only form the minds of reasoning animals upon Facts: nothing else will ever be of any service to them. This is the principle on which I bring up my own children, and this is the principle on which I bring up these children. Stick to Facts, sir!' (*Hard Times*, 1)

To Mr. Gradgrind – or 'grand grinder' – who sees the human being as 'a reasoning animal', the 'facts' must be planted in the mind of the children to harvest practicality and materialism when they grow up. He believes that this is the best education style or the best way of bringing up young brains. Dickens points out how Mr. Gradgrind devotes his life to the 'education of the reason' to his family as follows:

I have systematically devoted myself (as you know) to the education of the reason of my family. The reason is (as you know) the only faculty to which education should be addressed. (*Hard Times*, 16)

What is wrong in his way of education is the fact that human beings are not 'reasoning animals', but in fact they are the ones who need psychological, emotional and pedagogical support beside the natural facts, laws, formulae, and the 'truths' they learn in social and physical sciences. Dickens serializes this novel, *Hard Times*, in *Household Words* to give a special emphasis on 'fancy' in a child's education. He satirizes the people like Mr. Gradgrind, who neglect the education of their children's outstanding imagination, fantastic wondering, excellent questioning and criticizing minds. In his analysis of *Household Words*, Paul Davis quotes Dickens's introduction of the major aim of the periodical, to encourage the "light of Fancy", in its first issue:

"No realities, will give a harsh tone to our *Household Words*... We would tenderly cherish that light of Fancy which is inherent in the human breast; which, according to its nurture, burns with an inspiring flame, or sinks into a sullen glare, but which (or woe betide that day!) can never be extinguishes." (Davis, 152)

The titles that Dickens chooses for the episodes – 'sowing', 'reaping' and 'garnering' – and especially the second chapter's title – 'Murdering the Innocents' – are really remarkable in terms of the education given to the children in Mr. Gradgrind's school. The name of the teacher – Mr. M'Choakumchild – at this school, or *factory* of twisting minds, also implies that he *chokes* all the *children* with the immense and unnecessary information that children will not use at all in their daily lives. Dickens explains the details of the unnecessary knowledge and futile information which teachers were obliged to make their children learn as in the following:

He and some one hundred and forty other schoolmasters, had been lately turned at the same time, in the same factory, on the same principles, like so many pianoforte legs. He had been put through an immense variety of paces, and had answered

volumes of head-breaking questions. Orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody, biography, astronomy, geography, and general cosmography, the sciences of compound proportion, algebra, land-surveying and levelling, vocal music, and drawing from models, were all at the ends of his ten chilled fingers. He had worked his stony way into Her Majesty's most Honourable Privy Council's Schedule B, and had taken the bloom off the higher branches of mathematics and physical science, French, German, Latin, and Greek. He knew all about all the Water Sheds of all the world (whatever they are), and all the histories of all the peoples, and all the names of all the rivers and mountains, and all the productions, manners, and customs of all the countries, and all their boundaries and bearings on the two and thirty points of the compass. Ah, rather overdone, M'Choakumchild. If he had only learnt a little less, how infinitely better he might have taught much more! (*Hard Times*, 7)

Dickens criticizes not only the education system in the Victorian age but also the mentality of the schoolmasters who aim at teaching the 'facts' only and neglect the children's feelings, imagination and their '*wisdom of the heart*'. With the word 'all', Dickens also gives a special emphasis on how hard it would be for children to learn all the things their teachers intended to put in their minds. Their abilities in art, music or writing related to their '*wonderful*' imagination have always been ignored. Although many years have passed since the publication of the novel, Dickens's criticism of the system of education is still fresh. There are a lot of teachers today who neglect children's special abilities in various domains – especially in art, music, literature, acting, management, economy, leadership, and ...etc. – They get stuck to teach certain 'facts' in the school curriculum. Instead of guiding and helping them to improve their special abilities, certain 'school subjects' are forced to be taught. Although for many ordinary people colors, fish, dogs and kites are just the simple things that cannot draw their attention, for some children they might mean a lot due to their wonderful effects in their extraordinary imagination. It looks, thus, as if utilitarianism is still vivid in many education systems in Europe today.

When Dickens's model students, Louisa and Tom, are caught by Mr. Gradgrind in a group of children who have been 'wondering' and trying to see what is going on in the circus nearby the school, their reply - which is 'we wanted to see what it was like..' - shocks him as:

'You! Thomas and you, to whom the circle of the sciences is open; Thomas and you, who may be said to be replete with facts; Thomas and you, who have been trained to mathematical exactness; Thomas and you, here!' cried Mr. Gradgrind. (*Hard Times*, 11)

As a result, Louisa and Tom are sent back home. The 'facts' are taught in a much disciplined way. At home and at school their imagination and questioning mind cannot find a path to proceed. Obviously, not only their questions about life, but also their own abilities and own desires are also ignored. Or in other words, their hidden abilities or 'treasures' are left to die down by the school system which has been promoted in those times. Louisa's conclusion to all this, that she is "tired of everything" comes as no surprise.

'I was tired, father. I have been tired a long time,' said Louisa.

'Tired? Of what?' asked the astonished father.

'I don't know of what - of everything, I think.' (*Hard Times*, 11)

Due to the negative effects of the Mr. Gradgrind's method of teaching, Louisa and Tom get tired and sick of everything. They start to hate whatever surrounds them. Like machines, they do not feel any joy or enthusiasm in life. Psychologically challenged and pedagogically neglected children, similar to Louisa and Tom, might tend to cut off not only their interest in learning, but also their relationship with their parents, brothers and friends. They might feel stupid and lonely. Tired of being called 'stupid', 'lazy' and 'idiot', they might sulk in a corner and tend to cut off all their connections with life. Then, they might start to reject any new method which is tried on them. Similar behaviors are portrayed by Dickens. Tom, for example, says that 'he hates everything except Louisa' and feels like a "donkey" or a "mule". (*Hard Times*, 45-46) He also promises to take revenge on the things and the people that have compelled him to learn:

'I wish I could collect all the Facts we hear so much about,' said Tom, spitefully setting his teeth, 'and all the Figures, and all the people who found them out: and I wish I could put a thousand barrels of gunpowder under them, and blow them all up together! However, when I go to live with old Bounderby, I'll have my revenge.' (*Hard Times*, 46)

Dickens believes that to give an education to children, as Mr. Gradgrind does, is similar to murder them so that he entitles the first chapter 'Murdering the Innocents'. In another incident when Louisa and Tom have a conversation, they are interrupted by Mr. Gradgrind to be warned *not to wonder anymore*. Dickens describes the scene and gives some clues of his own thoughts about the education system.

When she was half a dozen years younger, Louisa had been overheard to begin a conversation with her brother one day, by saying 'Tom, I wonder' - upon which Mr. Gradgrind, who was the person overhearing, stepped forth into the light and said, 'Louisa, never wonder!'

Herein lay the spring of the mechanical art and mystery of educating the reason without stooping to the cultivation of the sentiments and affections. Never wonder. By means of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, settle everything somehow, and never wonder. Bring to me, says M'Choakumchild, yonder baby just able to walk, and I will engage that it shall never wonder. (*Hard Times*, 43)

Showing that this kind of method makes children hate the sciences, Dickens implies that better methods which never neglect children's imagination, fancies, desires and special talents should be seriously considered in education. According to Dickens, children's imagination should not be ignored and with a special guidance their 'minds' and 'hearts' should be cared for and enriched. Children are not mechanical objects and unnecessary 'facts' and 'figures' should not be taught by force. Ignoring what exactly children need and neglecting their own capacities and abilities will cause serious problems sooner or later. The fact that *every child is special* should be transmitted to all children. What great personalities like Edison, Einstein, Leonardo de Vinci and Agatha Christie have in common is the fact that they imagined, thought and wondered in a different, critical and extraordinary way so that their contribution to humanity was greater than that of others.

A specific 'non-fictional' example should probably be mentioned here. In *The Freedom Writers Diary* (1999), written by the English teacher Erin Gruwel with her one hundred fifty students in Long Beach, California, she describes how the students attempt to change themselves as well as the world around through writing. Gruwel's students used to have many criminal problems as well as no respect and no tolerance to each other due to their backgrounds, but she pursues education beyond high school. She encourages her students, who used to go home, to use gunfire, drugs, be part of gangs or in a host of other difficult situations, to read and write. After hard times, instead of being involved in serious crime her students started to get rid of their bad habits, tried hard to be away from criminal issues, made peace with other classmates from different cultural backgrounds and, more importantly, they believed that by writing they can change themselves and the world and contribute to the welfare of the society. Unfortunately, Louisa and Tom never met such a *special* teacher like Erin Gruwel during their school education. However, Sissy, or Cecilia Jupe, whose personality is improved by her parents and whose imagination is evoked by the people working in the circus, is chosen by Dickens to be a true model for free life. Sissy is also his model fictitious child in the novel who innocently attacks Gradgrind's mentality and his utilitarianism. When she is satirically asked about the 'horses on the wall' and the 'flowers on the carpet', she innocently replies that she would fancy or imagine "the walls papered with horses on it" and "the flowers pictured on the carpets". (*HT*, 6) But, Sissy's teacher and Mr. Gradgrind warn her not to allow fancy cover facts:

'Ay, ay, ay! But you mustn't fancy,' cried the gentleman, quite elated by coming so happily to his point. 'That's it! You are never to fancy.'

'You are not, Cecilia Jupe,' Thomas Gradgrind solemnly repeated, 'to do anything of that kind.'

'Fact, fact, fact!' said the gentleman. And 'Fact, fact, fact!' repeated Thomas Gradgrind. (*Hard Times*, 6)

Sissy also explains to Louisa that her father has been a 'clown', who used to amuse the spectators, and that she used to read funny stories to her father. Story books or novels have been the kind of books which are forbidden for Louisa and Tom

as they have been considered not to be able to exactly state the 'facts'. The characters, plots or places might be imaginary in fiction, but, in fact, they actually illustrate what writers observe from the *real* life. Whatever is portrayed or described in literary works, they have all some relations to some extent with real life. During her stay with the Gradgrinds, she innocently evokes, induces or inspires the notions of 'love', 'respect', 'kindness' and 'sincerity', which are mainly related to the *wisdom of heart*, to the people around her – mostly to Louisa –. Mr. Gradgrind also feels that she has a quality which is really different:

Somehow or other, he had become possessed by an idea that there was something in this girl which could hardly be set forth in a tabular form. (*Hard Times*, 82)

Sissy becomes an indispensable person for the Gradgrinds. Mr. Gradgrind thinks that Sissy really comforts her dear daughter and that's why he has permitted her long stay at his home even though she has hardly been successful in mathematics, statistical calculations or defining terms.

II. "Honorable", Deaf, Dumb, Blind, Lame, and Dead Gentleman

In the meantime, the innocent personalities are murdered by the 'Grinders' at home and by the 'Chokers' at school who apply their cruel philosophy to them. On the contrary, Mr. Sleary destroys their philosophy with their *product*, Sissy. Dickens implies this with the choice of the name, Sleary, a person who is a 'sleer or slayer', meaning a 'killer', a 'destroyer' or a 'murderer'. While the educational system of Mr. Gradgrind *grinds* children in their *mills*, Mr. Sleary *attacks* and *destroys* their philosophy. Sleary believes that:

...People muht be amuthed, Thquire, thomehow,' continued Sleary, rendered more pursy than ever, by so much talking; 'they can't be alwayth a working, nor yet they can't be alwayth a learning. Make the bethth of uth; not the wurtht. I've got my living out of the horth-e-riding all my life, I know; but I conthider that I lay down the philothophy of the thubject when I thay to you, Thquire, make the bethth of uth: not the wurtht!' (*Hard Times*, 36-37)

According to Mr. Sleary, people are not machines; they need to be entertained, they need to be amused; they need a break to rest because they cannot always work and learn endlessly. More importantly, their needs after hard work or exhausting study should be felt by parents and teachers so that their psychological needs and feelings should not be ignored. If this *fact* about human beings were understood by the squires – as Mr. Sleary calls them – or the *gentlemen* who design and settle the system for education and economy, they would do their best. Otherwise, they would cause great destructions in the lives of innocent people, especially of students and workers. In this novel, these *gentlemen* are described by Dickens as follows:

...Time hustled him into a little noisy and rather dirty machinery, in a by-comer, and made him Member of Parliament for Coketown: one of the respected members for ounce weights and measures, one of the representatives of the multiplication table, one of the deaf honourable gentlemen, dumb honourable gentlemen, blind honourable gentlemen, lame honourable gentlemen, dead honourable gentlemen, to every other consideration. (*Hard Times*, 82)

Dickens satirizes the members of the parliament in reference to Mr. Gradgrind for the laws they pass especially related to education and economy. These '*honorable gentlemen*' are described as *deaf* and *blind* because they never listen to or see the problems of the people they represent. By chance, even if they hear their problems, they never have the capacity to apprehend or they are unable to explain their problems because they are *dumb*. They are also *lame* in their receptive skills and perspectives so that whatever ideas they produce, they are born *dead*.

Mr. Gradgrind's children and Mr. M'Choakumchild's students – Louisa and Tom –, who have been *produced* in such a *factory* with their philosophy, cannot overcome the difficulties of they encounter in real life. Their lives are ruined by Mr. Gradgrind's 'factual' decisions and his teachings. Louisa's life is deeply ruined when she is forced to marry Mr. Bounderby,

whom she really hates. When Mr. Gradgrind tries to convince his daughter to marry an *elderly gentleman* the arguments he puts forward contrast with the facts in terms of reason and calculation. She might have insisted on not accepting this *unreasonable* proposal, but instead she accepts it unwillingly implying that “the life is very short and she has no other choice” (*Hard Times*, 89) due to her physical, psychological and pedagogical imprisonment. Louisa reminds these *facts* to her father:

‘Father,’ she returned, almost scornfully, ‘what other proposal can have been made to me? Whom have I seen? Where have I been? What are my heart’s experiences?’

‘My dear Louisa,’ returned Mr. Gradgrind, reassured and satisfied. ‘You correct me justly. I merely wished to discharge my duty.’

‘What do I know, father,’ said Louisa in her quiet manner, ‘of tastes and fancies; of aspirations and affections; of all that part of my nature in which such light things might have been nourished?’ (*Hard Times*, 90)

Louisa points out the weak sides of her nature as a result of her father’s stickiness to ‘facts’ and ‘figures’ and to the focus on the education of the mind. Her tastes, fancies, aspirations and affections have been ignored because they have been considered not only useless but also *harmful*. They might have feared that these qualities could be obstacles for them during the learning process. Furthermore, according to these *gentlemen*, like Mr. Gradgrind, the model students or people must ignore this kind of useless feelings and ideas; facts must be learned; then they must be applied in their daily life; they must behave accordingly so that they become factual models in the society.

Louisa becomes Mrs. Bounderby after the marriage for the sake of her brother, Tom, whom she really cares for., and who is given a job for his sister’s sake at Mr. Bounderby’s factory. This fact is noticed by the gentleman – Mr. Harthouse – during his first visit. When Tom enters the room and joins for the meal, her cold manners change, her gloomy face brightens up with a *beaming smile* and he notices a lovely light – which represents her love and care for him – in her eyes.

‘Is there nothing,’ he thought, glancing at her as she sat at the head of the table, where her youthful figure, small and slight, but very graceful, looked as pretty as it looked misplaced; ‘is there nothing that will move that face?’

Yes! By Jupiter, there was something, and here it was, in an unexpected shape. Tom appeared. She changed as the door opened, and broke into a beaming smile.

A beautiful smile. Mr. James Harthouse might not have thought so much of it, but that he had wondered so long at her impassive face. (*Hard Times*, 117)

Tom’s snobbish character, drinking and gambling drags him into an extravagant lifestyle. Not only does he waste his own salary, but he never uses the extra money he gets from Louisa to pay his debts so he starts making plans to steal money from Mr. Bounderby’s bank. Meanwhile, Mr. Harthouse gets more information about Louisa and he finds out her weakest point which is the fact that she hates her husband. He also learns that Louisa married Mr. Bounderby just for the sake of her brother. Using Louisa’s secret, Mr. Harthouse tries to be closer to her. But in fact, it is just a new sensation. Dickens writes that what exactly he looks for is not real love, but a sensation he will be occupied with or an engagement he will spend his time with.

Mr. James Harthouse began to think it would be a new sensation, if the face which hanged so beautifully for the whelp, would change for him. (*Hard Times*, 150)

Dickens also describes his nature with his own words in a conversation with Louisa. Mr. Harthouse says that:

'Mrs. Bounderby, no: you know I make no pretence with you. You know I am a sordid piece of human nature, ready to sell myself at any time for any reasonable sum, and altogether incapable of any Arcadian proceeding whatever.' (*Hard Times*, 152)

However, Mr. Harthouse establishes a confidence with her, artfully excluding her husband. As Dickens writes that "he had artfully, but plainly, assured her that he knew her heart in its last most delicate recesses; he had come so near to her through his tenderest sentiment; he had associated himself with that feeling; and the barrier behind which she lived, had melted away." (157) They start to meet secretly. When they have been noticed and caught in a very private conversation by Mrs. Sparsit, who is Mr. Bounderby's clerk in the bank, she informs Mr. Bounderby about this immediately, implying that Louisa would elude with Mr. Harthouse, hoping for a kind of a reward or at least a compliment for her deed. Instead of a compliment she receives curses from Mr. Bounderby. Luisa never lets her relationship go further with Mr. Harthouse. She decides neither to continue her marriage with Mr. Bounderby, nor to elope with Mr. Harthouse, as she is extremely confused what to do in a matter of love. Mr. Harthouse finds himself in a very *ridiculous situation* when he is easily convinced by Sissy to leave the town, giving him a message that Louisa has no intention to see or speak with him anymore. He is shocked as he has never expected to get a reply from Louisa. Actually, he has not been so serious in this matter so that he decides to leave the town instead of insisting to find a way to communicate with Louisa.

Louisa bursts out to her father at home and criticizes him painfully with tears in her eyes. While crying she points out how awfully she has been brought up and asks him:

'How could you give me life, and take from me all the inappreciable things that raise it from the state of conscious death? Where are the graces of my soul? Where are the sentiments of my heart? What have you done, O father, what have you done, with the garden that should have bloomed once, in this great wilderness here!' (*Hard Times*, 193)

Mr. Gradgrind realizes his great mistake when Louisa falls on her feet and bitterly points out the fact that his philosophies of life and teachings have been useless to her. He is the one who has been responsible for improper education and the unreasonable marriage and he has consciously neglected her heart in these important cases. When he sees her collapsing at his feet, he really regrets how awful he has been to her in terms of his teachings. The scene also implies the collapse of his philosophy and his teaching. Dickens points out these facts in the novel as follows:

All that I know is, your philosophy and your teaching will not save me. Now, father, you have brought me to this. Save me by some other means!

He tightened his hold in time to prevent her sinking on the floor, but is she cried out in a terrible voice, 'I shall die if you hold me! Let me fall upon the ground!' And he laid her down there, and saw the pride of his heart and the triumph of his system, lying, an insensible heap, at his feet. (*Hard Times*, 196)

Mr. Gradgrind's second model child, Tom, ruins not only his own life because of his addiction to gambling, but he also destroys Stephan Blackpool's life by laying on him the blame of his theft. In his plan, Tom makes Mr. Blackpool appear around the bank a few days before he leaves the town. In fact, Blackpool has just been an innocent worker at Mr. Bounderby's factory who is fired by Mr. Bounderby when he cannot be convinced to break the strike against his friends although he does not share the method of his friends to get pay rise for their work. Everybody suspects Mr. Blackpool for the theft, but in the end it is figured out that Tom has stolen the money and has made Mr. Blackpool behave so in order to cast suspicion on him. Mr. Gradgrind agrees to make plans to send Tom abroad with the help of Sissy and Mr. Sleary. Just before Tom escapes from Coketown, Bitzer appears in the scene and attempts to spoil their plan. Because Bitzer has got his education at Mr. Gradgrind's school his questions or comments such as: "have you a heart?", "is it accessible to any compassionate influence?", "what motive can you have for preventing the escape of this wretched young and crushing his miserable father?", "See his sister here. Pity us!" do not make any sense to him unless he is promised to be rewarded with a sum of money as he believes that "the whole social system is a question of self-interest." (*Hard Times*, 257)

As for Mr. Bounderby, he is a rich man and a very close friend of Mr. Gradgrind's although he is quite different from him in his behavior – especially in his rude and unkind manners –. He enjoys talking about his *hard times* in the past and boasts his self-made richness with his determination. He exaggerates the poor conditions he used to suffer. Dickens describes Mr. Bounderby's appearance and character as:

He was a rich man: banker, merchant, manufacturer, and what not. A big, loud man, with a stare, and a metallic laugh. A man made out of a coarse material, which seemed to have been stretched to make so much of him. A man with a great puffed head and forehead, swelled veins in his temples, and such a strained skin to his face that it seemed to hold his eyes open, and lift his eyebrows up. A man with a pervading appearance on him of being inflated like a balloon, and ready to start. A man who could never sufficiently vaunt himself a self-made man. A man who was always proclaiming, through that brassy speaking-trumpet of a voice of his, his old ignorance and his old poverty. A man who was the Bully of humility. (*HT*, 12)

His 'vaunting' with his self-made recent position and his endless 'boasting' about his old ignorance and poverty makes him a kind 'bully' who is not ashamed of *showing off*. However, a true gentleman is supposed to be humble and modest about his accomplishments or successes. Dickens points out his unkind and ill-mannered character, due to his ignorance and his rejection of his *real past*. Another important fact about this character is his unkind behavior towards his *modest* mother. Dickens keeps the secret of Mrs. Pegler, but by the end of the novel, his unfaithfulness to his mother is discovered by everybody. Mr. Bounderby, who denies his past, never gets ashamed to tell lies and always brags. He becomes rich most probably in illegal ways –Dickens implies *collusion* and *nepotism* in close relationship with the *honorable gentlemen* in the parliament–, and destroys the ecological system of the town with the smoke and sewage from his factories as well as the workers' lives with hard work, small wages and monotonous lifestyle, compared by Dickens with the machines used in the factory. Mr Bounderby may thus be the twin brother of the (most) devious and harmful gentleman in the novel, Mr. Gradgrind. Mr. Bounderby and Mr. Gradgrind work collaboratively in the ruining of the lively creatures in the world; while Bounderby destroys the ecological system of the town, the workers' lives and the economy of the country, Mr Gradgrind ruins the society by bringing up *self-interested* human beings whose hearts and imagination are ignored systematically with an *unrealistic* education system which is passed in the parliament by Gradgrind-like *honorable gentlemen*. While Louisa and Tom are the *artistic productions* of Mr. Gradgrind, Coketown is the *masterpiece* of Mr. Bounderby.

Coketown, where the story takes place and which is shaped according to the philosophy of these "honorable" gentlemen, is described by Dickens as follows:

It was a town of red brick or of brick that would have been red if the smoke and ashes had allowed it; but as matters stood, it was a town of unnatural red and black like the painted face of a savage. It was a town of machinery and tall chimneys, out of which interminable serpents of smoke trailed themselves for ever and ever, and never got uncoiled. It had a black canal in it, and a river that ran purple with ill-smelling dye, and vast piles of building full of windows where there was a rattling and a trembling all day long, and where the piston of the steam-engine worked monotonously up and down, like the head of an elephant in a state of melancholy madness. It contained several large streets all very like one another, and many small streets still more like one another, inhabited by people equally like one another, who all went in and out at the same hours, with the same sound upon the same pavements, to do the same work, and to whom every day was the same as yesterday and to-morrow, and every year the counterpart of the last and the next. (*Hard Times*, 19)

What these devious as the opposite meaning of "honorable" gentlemen manage to do is just blackening and destroying their surroundings. Blackened towns, mechanized dwellers and dummed young brains are just some of their "*admirable great works of art*". Dickens successfully portrays not only the *gloomy* atmosphere in the town with 'smoke', 'black canal', 'purple river with ill-smelling dye', but also the extremely boring lifestyle which the workers or dwellers are obliged to endure the *monotonous* life here.

Mr. Bounderby's shameful lie, what he has said about his mother, is uncovered. He used to say that he was born in a ditch, was abandoned and used to call his mother the worst woman that ever lived in the world. When his mother, Mrs. Pegler, is brought up to his office by Mrs. Sparsit's, as a result of her suspicious presence around the bank and is accused of the

bank robbery, she tells the whole truth about him and herself. It is revealed that Mr. Bounderby has been misinforming everybody with his disgusting lies for a long time and, worse than that, instead of taking close care of his own humble mother, he pretends to have no mother according to the agreement which she has been obliged to respect. Since she is the mother and has a mother's heart, she has been content to see her only son secretly from a distance once a year. Even though, she spends all the money she could save in a year, she never hesitates to spend it just to see her son for a very short time. Mrs. Pegler states the truth as follows:

'And my dear boy knows, and will give you to know, sir, that after his beloved father died, when he was eight years old, his mother, too, could pinch a bit, as it was her duty and her pleasure and her pride to do it, to help him out in life, and put him 'prentice. And a steady lad he was, and a kind master he had to lend him a hand, and well he worked his own way forward to be rich and thriving. And I'll give you to know, sir - for this my dear boy won't - that though his mother kept but a little village shop, he never forgot her, but pensioned me on thirty pound a year - more than I want, for I put by out of it - only making the condition that I was to keep down in my own part, and make no boasts about him, and not trouble him. And I never have, except with looking at him once a year, when he has never knowed it. And it's right,' said poor old Mrs. Pegler, in affectionate championship, 'that I should keep down in my own part, and I have no doubts that if I was here I should do a many unbecoming things, and I am well contented, and I can keep my pride in my Josiah to myself, and I can love for love's own sake! And I am ashamed of you, sir,' said Mrs. Pegler, lastly, 'for your slanders and suspicions. And I never stood here before, nor never wanted to stand here when my dear son said no. And I shouldn't be here now, if it hadn't been for being brought here. And for shame upon you, Oh, for shame, to accuse me of being a bad mother to my son, with my son standing here to tell you so different!' (*Hard Times*, 234-235)

Pretending as if nothing had happened, Mr. Bounderby sees off everybody without any explanation and rudely says that he is not bound to deliver a lecture on his family affairs. Mr. Bounderby's reputation of being a sincere, honorable gentleman is destroyed by his own mother. Dickens reveals his lies about his family, yet he leaves unveiled the way in which Bounderby has raised his money. Such *devious gentlemen*, who usually prefer working with the '*honorable gentlemen*' in the parliament, raise their money in unknown ways. Not only had the neglect of the workers' welfare, but also the pollution of the environment affected the lives of the people in Coketown. Dickens criticizes the negative effects of the 'industrial revolution' by creating the particular word '*Coketown*' and by clearly implying that the whole '*town*' smells '*coke*' vaporized from the '*chimneys*' as a result of the consumption of '*coal*' in the factories.

III. Conclusion

With *Hard Times*, Dickens portrays how innocent lives are destroyed in a sullen system set up by devious gentlemen. Although Dickens is criticized for his 'sullen socialism' with this novel by critics like Thomas Babington Macaulay (Davis, 153), he combines the innocent social groups, such as children and workers who used to be treated badly or whose 'natural' needs used to be neglected consciously during their life time. The *grinding* system at home, school and work which neglects children's imagination and people's social welfare and makes them spiritless robot-like-individuals has negative impacts on the social life as well as on the natural life. The destruction starts in the minds and then it reaches anywhere where anybody lives like an infectious disease or a deadly virus which spreads rapidly anywhere. Wicked and devious gentlemen play important roles in such mass destructions. Dickens warned the Victorians in his lifetime with works like *Hard Times* and, to some extent, he is continually warning the individuals and giving his invaluable messages about the *villains* disguised as *gentlemen* in real life.

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Mahmut Terci PhD, is the Head of English Department at the Beder University, Tirane, Albania. His fields of interest and research are British & American literature and culture, and methodology in ELT. He worked at SELT Publishing as a writer publishing ELT course books, reading and grammar books for young learners, namely, *Speed Up-Course Book 2*, *Get to Point 3*, *Speed Up-Grammar 2*. He has been participating to national and international conferences. He has currently done a PhD research on "Victorian Gentleman in Charles Dickens's fictions" at the Faculty of Letters, Ovidius University, Constanta, Romania.

Context-Based Science Curriculum Development

Mohammed Yousef Mai

Faculty of Education,
Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris,
35900 Tanjung Malim, Perak Darul Ridzuan
dr.mohd.mai@gmail.com

Abstract

Numerous reports and commissions address the need to reform science education in elementary and high schools. In the USA, for example, many reports call for changes in science education that ought to provide functional and useful learning for all students (Yager, 2002). In recent years, there is a new form of education being adopted worldwide. It is based on the concept that the progress of all sciences and development and applications of new technology is, by nature, social processes. The purpose of this research is to describe the process of developing context-based science curriculum. The process of curriculum development starts with the "situation analysis" stage, this is done through documentary analysis, and the review of the previous studies on science education. As a result, the proposed developed context-based physics curriculum caters for relevant objectives, content, learning activities, and evaluation methods.

Keywords: Curriculum development, models of curriculum development, context based curriculum, science education.

Introduction

worldwide, science education should develop the students' understanding of the natural and physical worlds in which they live, and the effects of such worlds on human living. Also, it should explain how human living affects the natural and physical worlds and how students who study science should discover these worlds. Yager (1993) outlines a contemporary set of curriculum goal clusters for science that are eventually adopted by National Science Teachers Association (NSTA). The original goal clusters include:

1. **Personal Needs:** Science education should prepare individuals to utilize science for improving their own lives and for coping with an increasingly technological world.
2. **Societal Issues:** Science education should produce informed citizens prepared to responsibly deal with science-related societal issues.
3. **Academic Preparation:** Science education should allow students who are likely to pursue science academically as well as professionally to acquire the academic knowledge appropriate for their needs.
4. **Career Education/Awareness:** Science education should give all students awareness of the nature and scope of a wide variety of science and technology-related careers open to students of varying aptitudes and interests.

Science curriculum ought to enhance the personal development of students and contribute to their lives as citizens. Students strive to understand their everyday experiences, and they do not currently feel that science relates to their daily lives simply because they do not apply scientific knowledge outside the classroom. Aikenhead observes that learning canonical science content is meaningfully and simply not achievable for the great majority of students in the context of traditional school science (Aikenhead, 2005).

According to Eijkelhof and Lijnse (1988), it would be necessary to entirely develop new science curricula. To achieve this, there is a need to change some of the traditional practices, to focus more on helping students think scientifically rather than memorize facts, and to attempt to change the curriculum as well. Instead of a list of facts to be covered, the "curriculum"

should be holistic. In fact, we need to make different curricula and instructional decisions as we develop courses of study or use instructional materials so that we can have a science curriculum that is for all students.

NSTA in US in its report "Science Education for Middle and Junior High Students" recommends the following: "The primary function of science education at the middle and junior high level is to provide students with the opportunity to explore science in their lives, and to become comfortable and personally involved in it" (Brunhorst & Padilla, 1986).

Therefore, the purpose of science curriculum is to create citizens who understand science in ways that will enable them to participate intelligently and to make decisions on how science and technology can change the society. Such science curriculum is human and society focused, problem centered, and responsive to local issues (Blosser & Helgeson, 1990).

Professional science educators have framed the science education problem in different terms. Yager (1991) sums up the crisis in science education in two related problems: the first is general while the second is specific. The general problem refers to the greatest failure of science education "as not bringing about mass scientific /technological literacy among our citizenry". The specific problem has to do with the outcomes of science teaching. According to Yager, students of science typically remember little of what they have been taught in science, and ultimately express less interest in science after taking a formal course than before (Cited in: (Wraga & Hlebowitsh, 1991)).

Pondering over many studies, Yager (1993) concludes that the most critical problems with traditional science teaching are:

1. Students generally cannot use science (either concepts or processes) that they learn. The number of misconceptions that typical high school students have is large.
2. Well over 90% of all high school graduates do not attain scientific literacy even though they pass courses and generally perform well during such courses.
3. Interest in science and further study of science declines across the K-12 years.
4. Typical science instruction causes students to be less curious, less prone to offer explanations, less able to devise tests, and less able to predict causes and consequences of certain actions.
5. There is no evidence that traditional science teaching results in people who possess the traits which characterize scientifically literate people.

Aikenhead (2003) is much of the opinion of Yager and pinpoints the major failures of science education which are documented in various studies:

1. The first failure is concerned with the primary goal of school science: to produce knowledgeable people to go into careers in science and related jobs; or at least support those who do. The results from many researches show that students lose their interest to continue studying science during high school, and then during university undergraduate programs. Most researches on students' views of the science curriculum conclude that school science transmits content, which is socially sterile, impersonal, frustrating, intellectually boring, and/or dismissive of students' life-worlds.
2. The second major educational failure of the traditional science curriculum is that some strong science students lose their interest in taking further science classes, some students become interested in science for the wrong reasons, and many students become illiterate citizens with respect to the nature and social aspects of the scientific enterprise.
3. The third documented major failure dates back to the 1970s research on student learning: most students tend not to learn science content meaningfully. Furthermore, much of the research suggests that the goal of learning canonical science meaningfully is simply not achievable for the majority of students in the context of traditional school science.

According to Tytler (2007), there are four main elements to the crisis in science education:

1. Evidence of students developing increasingly negative attitudes to science over the secondary school years.
2. Decreasing participation in post-compulsory science subjects, especially the 'enabling' sciences of physics and chemistry.
3. A shortage of science-qualified people in the skilled workforce.
4. A shortage of qualified science teachers.

In other words, the development of modern science and technology and the continuous progress of society have ushered in completely new concepts, new modes of thinking, new teaching materials, new teaching methods, and new technical means in the field of education.

Effects of context-based approaches

Bennett, Hogarth, and Lubben (2003) summarized meta-analysis of 66 studies of the effects of context-based approach. They reviewed studies of approaches in the teaching of secondary school science that used contexts as the starting point for the development of scientific ideas. The meta-analysis showed the following interesting results:

- There is some evidence to support the claim that context-based approaches motivate pupils in their science lessons.
- There is evidence to support the claim that such approaches also foster more positive attitudes to science more generally.
- There is good evidence to support the claim that context-based approaches do not adversely affect pupils' understanding of scientific ideas.

Similarly; Aikenhead (2005) obtained the same results about STS science education in terms of curriculum development, student learning, and teacher orientations toward such a curriculum. This revision has been able to document the claims that students in STS science classes (compared with traditional classes) can significantly improve their understanding of social, their attitudes towards science, towards science classes, and towards learning, as well as they can make modest as well as significant gains in thinking skills as a result of learning STS content. Besides, some students can enhance their socially responsible actions, and can make moderate gains in their decision-making skills.

In conclusion, the reported outcomes of context-based approaches are positive from an affective development perspective, but they are somewhat disappointing from a cognitive development point of view. The absence of effects on learning outcomes can be caused by a weak relationship between contexts and relevant concepts in the perception of students and teachers (Bennett et al., 2003).

Objectives of the Study

In view of the current call for making a link between the students' life and science curriculum and the reflection of this trend in science curriculum, this study aims :

1. to discuss the curriculum development process.
2. to propose a model curriculum for developing context-based physics curriculum.

Definition of Terms

Curriculum

Different people identify a curriculum in different ways and sometimes in multiple ways depending upon the context in which the concept is used. The most common perceptions of curriculum expanded substantially from the types identified by John Goodlad (In: (Saylor, Alexander, & Lewis, 1981)) and suggested by Glatthorn (In: (Print, 1993)) which may be described as:

- The ideal / recommended curriculum : Beliefs of scholars as a solution to meet the need and consequently perceived as the most appropriate curriculum for learners;
- The entitlement curriculum: What society believes learners should expect to be exposed to as part of their learning to become effective members of that society;

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- The formal curriculum (Explicit/ intended/ written curriculum): What organizations develop for the learners in their educational systems and what should be done in the class as seen in syllabi, guidelines, textbooks, etc.;
 - The instructional/ perceived curriculum :what teachers report they do or trying to do;
 - The operational / observed curriculum :what actually goes on in the classroom;
 - The experiential curriculum: what the students are perceiving and reacting to; and
 - The attained curriculum: the measurement of student learning (usually through a testing process) which reveals those learnings acquired by students.

According to the traditional view, the curriculum definitions emphasize on the rule of the teacher and the ways of organizing the knowledge, while the contemporary view of the curriculum emphasis on the learning experiences and the students positive role in the learning process. Its clear that the learners' planned experiences in the school will survive under the teachers' guidance.

In this research, the curriculum definition is "the plans made for guiding learning in schools, usually described in documents (textbooks, curriculum guides, course syllabus, lesson plans) of several levels of generality, and the execution of those plans in and out the classroom. As experienced by learners; those experiences take place in a learning environment (classroom, laboratory, outdoors) which also influences what is learned" (Hassard, 2005). This definition means that 'curriculum' is not only what is written in the syllabus but also encompasses among others things, courses and subject designs, course development and approval of content, teaching and assessment strategies, facilities, timetabling and access to information. Importantly, the curriculum is affected by what is and is not included.

Curriculum Development

According to the literature review of curriculum development, the term 'model' has been used to explain both the nature and process of curriculum development. Print (1993) points out that the frequently used models in developing curriculum are the graphical models that enable curriculum developers to visualize curriculum elements, their relationships, and the processes of development and implementation. Curriculum Development is a comprehensive, ongoing, cyclical process "to analysis the situation; to develop aims or objectives to address the results of the situation analysis; to determine an appropriate content, teaching methods, learning activities and teaching evaluation; and to carry out a formative evaluation of the context-based curriculum that results from these processes".

Context-based science curriculum

In context-based science curricula – such as ChemCom, PLON, Salter's Science, Chemie im Kontext and Physik im Kontext – practical applications and/or socioscientific issues act as a starter for the teaching-learning of science (Kortland, 2011). It is an "event centered learning" whereby real-life events or occurrences provide the impetus for curriculum planning (Pedretti, 1996). It was and still is expected that relating science to 'everyday life' would make science teaching more interesting for a larger proportion of the students, that they would be more motivated to learn about and thus would reach a better understanding of the subject knowledge involved. This implies that the science content presented is necessary, and thus its learning is meaningful, for solving a practical or theoretical problem set by the context.

The developed curriculum is context-based. In this approach, the contexts and applications of science are used as the starting point for the development of scientific ideas. This means that taking the students' 'life world' as a starting point, the process of curriculum development takes into account technology, natural phenomena, socio-scientific issues, the nature of science and the interrelations between science, technology and society in secondary physics curriculum.

Models of Curriculum Development

A model is a simplified representation of reality that is often depicted in diagrammatic form. The purpose of a model is to provide a structure for examining the variables that constitute reality as well as their interrelationships. Scientists in curriculum development have accepted the use of the term 'model' to explain both the nature and process of curriculum development. The models may be considered in many different ways, depending upon the purpose for which they are intended. In general, curriculum development models are graphical models since they enable curriculum developers to visualize curriculum elements, their relationships, and the processes of development and implementation (Print, 1993).

A review of literature in the curriculum area reveals that many ideas have been suggested for models or steps to be taken in curriculum development process. The salient curriculum development process model were appreciated are classified into three categories; rational, cyclical and dynamic. A representative sample of the different aspects has been included in the form of a continuum of curriculum models (figure 1).

The continuum (as seen in Figure 1) describes two extremes of the curriculum process. The rational or objectives models are sequential, rather rigid approaches to viewing the curriculum process, while at the other extreme may be found dynamic or interaction models, which view curriculum processes as flexible, interactive and modifiable. In between, models gradually change from one type to the other.

1. Tyler's Model (As an example of objectives models)

In his book "Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction" in 1949, Tyler argues that curriculum development needs to be treated logically and systematically (Print, 1993). Briefly, his model for the curriculum process is outlined in figure 2.

It is clear from the diagram that the model is linear in nature; it consists of four steps, the four steps are "objectives", "content", "method" and "evaluation". The first step of this model is to think about educational aims and objectives, and secondly about the kinds of subject matter or experiences that require effective organization to help students achieve those objectives. These two views then need to be put together programmatically. The results of using the curriculum need to be evaluated in some way, so the final step in Tyler's process was to determine whether the objectives had been achieved or not.

Certainly, Tyler has had a significant effect upon curriculum developers and writers for the past three decades of the twentieth century.

2. Hilda Taba (As an example of objectives models)

Of the several books that Hilda Taba wrote on curriculum, the most well known and influential was "Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice" published in 1962. In this work, Taba outlined her ideas of the process of curriculum development. Taba's model is linear in approach; it's similar to Tyler's basic model. In fact, she modified Tyler's model to become more representative of curriculum development. So that she argued for more information input at each stage of the curriculum process. Taba argues that if curriculum development was to be logical, orderly; the way of developing the curriculum would follow seven sequential steps as outlined in figure 3 (Sada'a & Ibrahim, 2004).

Furthermore, Taba contends that scientific curriculum development needs to draw upon analyses of society and culture, studies of the learner and the learning process, and analysis of the nature of knowledge in order to determine the purposes of the school and the nature of its curriculum (Print, 1993).

3. Wheeler's Model (As an example of cyclical models)

Wheeler's model for curriculum design is an improvement upon Tyler's model. Instead of a linear model, Wheeler developed a cyclical model (figure 4). Evaluation in Wheeler's model is not terminal. Findings from the evaluation are feedback into the objectives and the goals, which influence other stages (Print, 1993; Sada'a & Ibrahim, 2004).

In his model, Wheeler contends that:

- Aims are formulated from the general to the specific in curriculum planning.
- Content is distinguished from the learning experiences which determine that content.

4. **Print's Comprehensive Model** (As an example of Dynamic/interaction models)

After analyzing many curriculum development models, Print (1993) adopted a comprehensive model of curriculum development. Print views his model as logical and sequential in approach, cyclical in its development of a curriculum product and yet concerned with applying the model to realistic situations. It is a model that has the flexibility to be used for developing many types of curriculum.

Three phases organization, development and application are considered to form the basis of this model of curriculum development. Figure 5 depicts the three phases. Print (1993) illustrates these three phases as follow:

Phase 1: Organization

According to Print, the curriculum presage concerns of the foundations or forces that influence developers' ways of thinking about curriculum. These curriculum foundations are the components that influence and control the content and organization of the curriculum. They are based upon values one has developed about knowledge, society, learning, and the individual. Curriculum foundations derived from philosophical, sociological and psychological sources.

Phase 2: Development

To achieve the second phase; developers follow the cyclical procedure in the model as seen in figure 5. In other words, they follow the sequence of curriculum elements that begin with situational analysis and continue with aims, goals and objectives; content; learning activities; evaluation and then continuing on to situational analysis again.

Phase 3: application

The third phase of the model "application" which in turn incorporates three sets of activities:

1. Implementation of the curriculum: For any curriculum document, materials or project to be implemented in a school or school system, change must occur. To make this change occur effectively and with minimal disruption and confusion, a plan for implementing the curriculum innovation must be devised.
2. Monitoring of and feedback from the curriculum: It is an important step in gauging the success of the curriculum activity, and the implementation of the curriculum is a short-term activity, while the monitoring and feedback aspects of the third phase are likely to span several years.
3. The provision of feedback data to the presage group: it relates to life forwarding of feedback data to the curriculum presage group.

Appropriate Curriculum Model

The previous description of the models of curriculum development shows that there are many types of models. According to their characteristics, they could be classified into three types: the rational or objectives /classical models, the cyclical models, and the dynamic or interaction models. In between, models gradually change from one type to the other.

Rational models sometimes referred to as objectives/classical/means-end models, these approaches to the curriculum development beginning with objectives and following a sequential pattern from objectives to content, method and finally evaluation. Two principal proponents of rational models are Ralph Tyler and Hilda Taba. The main advantage of these models is providing simple, time-efficient approaches to meet the curriculum development, while a significant weakness of the objectives model arises from the unpredictable nature of teaching and learning. The model prescribes specified objectives to be achieved, but often learning occurs beyond these objectives due to factors that could not have been foreseen.

On the contrary, Cyclical models view elements of the curriculum as interrelated and interdependent, so that the distinctions between the elements are less clear than in the rational model. Strengths of cyclical models derived from a logical sequential structure upon which curricula may be devised, otherwise, employing situational analysis as a starting point, provide baseline data upon which effective objectives may be devised, and these models are flexible and less rigid in their application than the others. Inherent weaknesses within cyclical models are more difficult to locate largely, and the fundamental problem in utilizing such models is the amount of time required to undertake an effective situational analysis.

Comparing with rational models, the interactive or dynamic models of curriculum offer an alternative view of the process of curriculum development. Proponents of these models argue that the rational and cyclical models do not reflect the reality of curriculum development process. They contend that it does not follow a lineal, sequential pattern and can commence

with any curriculum element and proceed in any order. The dynamic models have emerged from the analyzing of what really happened through the process of curriculum development.

Unlike the objective model, this model does not consider objectives to be important, and the content involves procedures, concepts and criteria that can be used to appraise the curriculum. While, it is not difficult to suggest that dynamic models appear confusing and lacking in direction. According to Print (1993) it's impossible to suggest that only one model of curriculum development is appropriate in all contexts and to all curriculum developers. This is why Curriculum developers should select the most appropriate model for their context.

Oliva (2005) confirmed that before choosing a curriculum development model, it is important to outline the criteria or characteristics that should be in. Oliva pointed out that the model should show the following:

1. Major components of the process, including stages of planning, implementation, and evaluation
2. Customary, but not inflexible "beginning" and "ending" points
3. The relationship between curriculum and instruction
4. Distinction between curriculum and instructional goals and objectives
5. Reciprocal relationships among components
6. A cyclical pattern
7. Feedback lines
8. The possibility of entry at any point in the cycle
9. An internal consistency and logic
10. Enough simplicity to be intelligible and feasible
11. Components in the form of a diagram or chart

Curriculum development refers to all aspects of the curriculum process including review of the current situation, development of aims and objectives, decisions on content and structure, detailing learning activities and teaching methods, developing assessment strategies, as well as evaluating and reviewing the procedures. Therefore, the researcher has modified and adapted parts of the existing materials and integrated them with the new units and format.

The process of Context based curriculum Development

The existing science curriculum in general could be characterised by a 'correct explanations' and a 'solid foundation' emphasis. The shift of emphasis strived for in the Context based curriculum is to balance these with the five additional curriculum emphases of 'everyday coping', 'science, technology and decisions', 'scientific skill development', 'structure of science' and 'self as explainer'. As the basic questions set the scene for the units, these curriculum emphases should be reflected into these questions (Kortland, 2005).

According to Print (1993) there are five major stages in the process of curriculum development. Those are:

1. Situational analysis
2. Formulation of objectives.
3. Selection and organization of content.
4. Selection and organization of learning activities/teaching methods.
5. Evaluation.

These five stages constitute the curriculum development process.

1. Situational Analysis

Curriculum development should begin with a realistic appraisal and analysis of the existing situation. An 'analysis of the situation' provides an opportunity to gather, analyze and report data regarding the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and impediments related to the curriculum. By that, developers can then devise appropriate content. Similarly appropriate learning activities can be organized so that the content is learnt effectively and thus the objectives achieved.

2. Aims, Goals And Objectives

The process of aims and goals' determination is the first and most important step in the curriculum planning and design process. Aims and goals are the essential element that guide the process of choosing the unique content, methods and teaching strategies, learning activities, and the assessment and evaluation processes for the learning outcomes that the curriculum developer intends to achieve.

The aims of education put forward by the context based science curriculum into a balance between preparing students for further education and/or future employment and for coping with their (future) life roles as a consumer and citizen in a technologically developing, democratic society. Considering the nature of Arabic countries and the Islamic perspective, the researcher suggests the following aims for the developed context-based science curriculum.

A. Attitude and Values

1. Encourage the learners to develop deep belief in Allah and their Islamic beliefs, and develop positive attitudes towards Islam and the Islamic values.
2. Value the contributions to scientific and technological development made by Arab and Moslem scholars.
3. Increase the learner's awareness of the efforts of a society to encourage and develop science and taking the benefits from its outcome for comprehensive development.
4. Enable students to appreciate the contributions of science and technology towards national development and the well-being of humanity.
5. Enable students to consider further studies and careers in science and technology-related fields.
6. Encourage the students to develop attitudes that support collaborative activity.
7. Encourage the students to demonstrate a concern for safety in science and technology contexts.

B. Knowledge:

1. Provide the learner with a coherent and functional scientific knowledge, facts, concepts, generalizations, principles, and theories in the different fields of science.
2. Provide the learners with a historical perspective about biology, ecology, chemistry, and physical science in the 19th century.
3. Increase the learner's awareness that theories and scientific methods are changeable and developed as a results of individuals and communities, and realize that its applications are useful for individuals, environment and communities.
4. Provide the learners with culture and scientific preparing for increase their interest in further studying of science, and pursue career possibilities within science-related fields.
5. Increase the learner's awareness of the importance of dealing effectively towards the different applications of science, and take care of his health and environment and play an active role in its preservation and conservation.
6. Acquire knowledge to analyze and explain the interrelationship between science, technology, society and environment; and how the individuals influence them.
7. Acquire knowledge to explore the nature of science and its domains, and outline the importance of science and its relationship with other disciplines and technology.
8. Enable learner to acquire new scientific and technological knowledge and use it to evaluate and make decisions about real-world issues related to the applications and limitations of science and technology, considering a variety of perspectives.

C. Skills

1. Enable the learner to acquire the scientific, critical, and objective thinking skills, which underlie the scientific approach to problem solving.
2. Ask questions about observed relationships and plan investigations of questions, ideas, problems, and issues by using demonstrate safe and skillful a broad range of tools and techniques to gather and record data and information.
3. Work as a member of a team in addressing problems, planning and carrying out investigations, as well as in generating and evaluating ideas.

The previous curriculum outcomes identify what students are expected to know and value by the end of grades 12 because of their cumulative learning experiences in science.

3. The Content

According to Aikenhead (1994) there are three essential groups of possible curricula (each linking everyday contexts and school science). Figure 6 illustrates these three groups. A context-based means that the science courses taught through issues from society (and/or technology); while context-infused, related to science courses that incorporate issues from society (and/or technology); and the context-focused products courses about issues in society (and/or technology) including the required science.

The choice of contexts to be incorporated in the curricula ideally would be influenced by the differences in interest, abilities and plans for the future among students, and by long-term developments in society. The different needs of students could be met by choosing a variety of personal, social and scientific contexts (including nature, culture and technology). The introduction and use of contexts should be accompanied with a lot of care for bridging the gap between meanings of concepts in a daily life context and meanings of these concepts in a science context. The following are the characteristics of adequate contexts (De Jong, 2006):

- Contexts should be well-known and relevant for students
- Contexts should not distract students' attention from related concepts
- Contexts should not be too complicated for students
- Contexts should not confuse students

It is very important to select adequate contexts for incorporating in student courses, especially when contexts are used as starting points for teaching concepts. First, the contexts may be not really be relevant for students and will not motivate them to study the science content. Second, and in contrast with the former cause, the contexts can be so interesting that they distract students' attention from the related concepts. Third, the contexts can be too complicated for students to help them to make proper links with concepts. Finally, the contexts can be confusing for students, because everyday life meanings of topics do not always correspond with science meanings. In conclusion, an important condition for improving context-based chemistry teaching is a careful selection of contexts (De Jong, 2006).

Teaching methods

Compared to the traditional curricula, the context based curriculum required more practical and more open-ended investigations including reporting by students and whole class discussions. From the constructivism points of view, students actively construct meaning for themselves because of direct, hands-on science experiences, minds-on simulations, and social interactions with other students and/or the teacher will be the considered in the learning activities. This instruction encompasses simulation games and role-playing, forums and debates, individual and cooperative learning, active research fieldwork, guest speakers, and community action.

Teacher-student interaction

In relation with the changes in teaching methodology, the 'distance' between teacher and students became smaller: less frontal classroom teaching, and more giving guidance to small groups of students. During the reporting sessions, the students completely took over the teaching role of the teacher, with the teacher now in the role of observer with the task of giving adequate feedback on the students' presentations. Overall, the activities will shift the teacher's role to a classroom manager (managing time, people resources and the emotional classroom environment), away from the role of a classroom performer (Hofstein, Aikenhead, & Riquarts, 1988).

The Sequencing of Instructional Topics

Aikenhead (1992) has developed a model of the interface between science, technology, and society (Figure 7), this model may help in the sequencing of instructional topics for context-based curriculum. Aikenhead attaches a ring of "technology" around a circle of "science content," and places this on a backdrop of "society." Imagining a vector passing through the diagram, we can follow his idea of sequence. Making decision and taking action is the main goal of teaching any context-based content. Accordingly, the sequencing of instructional topics will be as the following:

1. The instruction could start with a discussion of the societal aspects of an issue.
2. The instruction could cover technological aspects of the issue, in order to understand a societal problem; there is usually some technology to examine. The domain of technology is represented by the gray donut in Figure 7.
3. The instruction could present science concept information related to an issue; this science content will help students understand the technology and the societal issue.
4. Finally, the arrow in figure 7 ends in the domain of society. Here students often address the original key question or issue and then make a decision and take actions.

This sequencing could bring many benefits, once the science concepts are understood; the students reconsider the technological and societal issues, and attempt to make informed decisions or predictions about the issue.

4. Evaluation

Evaluation is broader in scope than measurement in that it involves the interpretation of measurement data. In planning evaluation, we can use a broad range of strategies in an appropriate balance to give students multiple opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Many types of assessment strategies can be used to gather such information, including, but not limited to, the following:

- Formal and informal observations
- Work samples
- Anecdotal records
- Conferences
- Teacher-made and other tests
- Portfolios
- Learning journals
- Questioning
- Performance assessment
- Peer assessment and self-assessment

Results of assessments and evaluations have a wide variety of uses, such as:

- providing feedback to improve student learning
- determining if curriculum outcomes have been achieved
- certifying that students have achieved certain levels of performance
- setting goals for future student learning
- communicating with parents about their children's learning
- providing information to teachers on the effectiveness of their teaching, the program, and the learning environment
- meeting the needs of guidance and administration personnel

Assessment and evaluation are essential components of learning and teaching in science. The STS issues-based science curriculum emphasizes having a classroom environment in which students will be encouraged to learn scientific processes and knowledge within meaningful contexts. It is important that assessment strategies reflect this emphasis and are consistent in approach.

Conclusion

The context-based curriculum emphasizes the importance of the students' 'lifeworld', it was taken as a starting point, with an emphasis on technological artefacts and natural phenomena, supplemented with an emphasis on socio-scientific issues and the nature of science. The aims of science education put forward by the context-based curriculum to achieve a balance between preparing students for, on the one hand, further education and/or future employment and, on the other hand, coping with their (future) life roles as a consumer and citizen in a technologically developing, democratic society.

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Figures

Figure 1 Continuum of curriculum models

Rational/objectives models	Cyclical models	Dynamic/iteration models
Tyler	Wheeler	Walker
Taba	Audrey and Nicholls	Skilbeck
		Kerr
		Beauchamp
		Print

Figure 2 Tyler model of the curriculum process

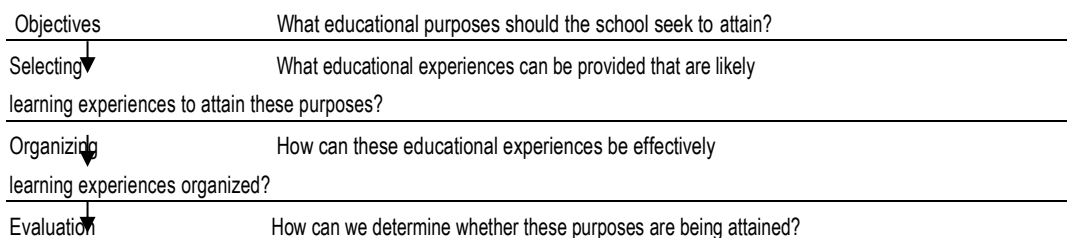
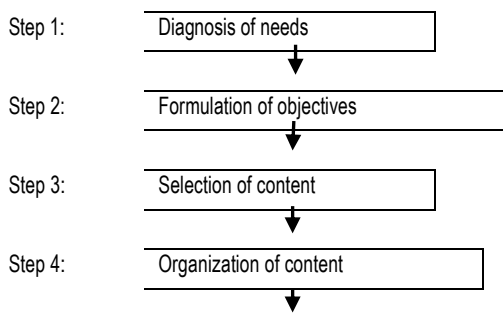


Figure 3:Taba model of the curriculum process



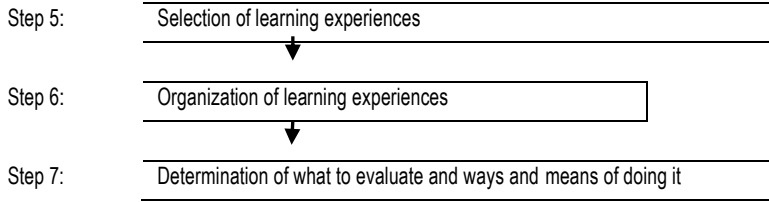


Figure 4: Wheeler's model

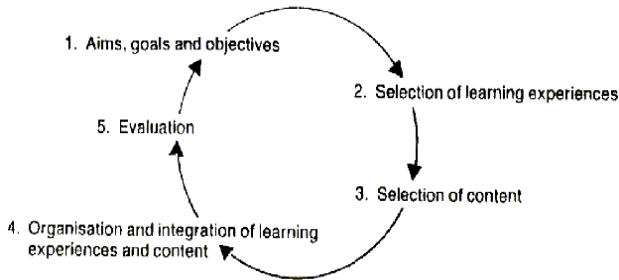


Figure 5: Print's Comprehensive Model

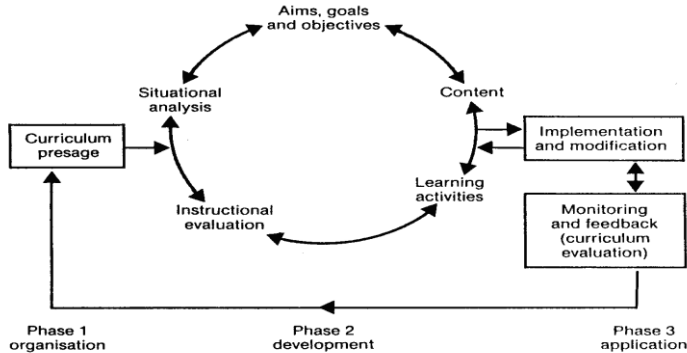


Figure 6
everyday contexts and school science

Ways of linking

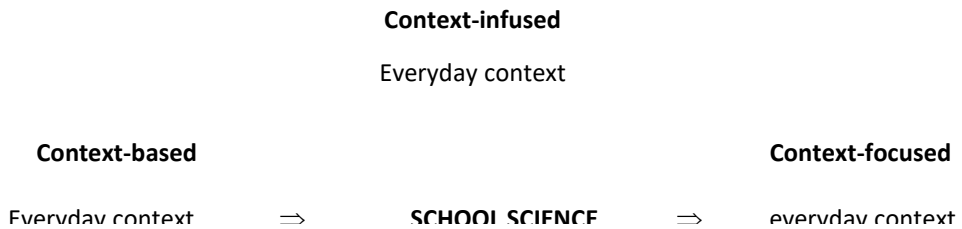
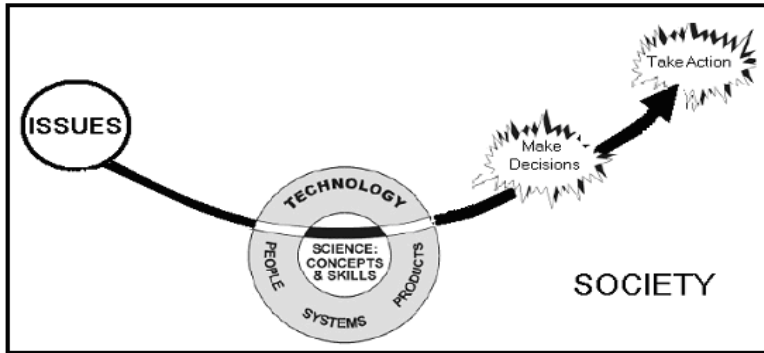


Figure 7 A schematic illustrating a possible sequencing of instructional topics



Distributed Leadership and Empowerment Influence on Teachers Organizational Commitment

Hairuddin Mohd Ali

International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM)

Email: hairuddin@iab.edu.my

Tel: +60179534801

Salisu Abba Yangaiya

Isa Kaita College of Education Dutsinma, Katsina State, Nigeria

Email: yangaiya@yahoo.com

Tel: +2348032877965

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of school distributed leadership (DL) on teachers' organizational commitment (TC) and to investigate if teachers' empowerment (TE) mediates the relationship between distributed leadership and teachers' organizational commitment. The study distributed 750 questionnaires to the sampled respondents out of which 550 or 73% were returned. However, after excluding questionnaires with serious missing information 499 usable returned questionnaires were used for this study. The study used SPSS and AMOS (versions 16.0) to analyze the data collected. The findings indicate that school distributed leadership has considerable effect on teachers' organizational commitment (standardized coefficient .39). The study also proved that teacher empowerment considerably mediates the relationship between distributed leadership and teachers' commitment (standardized coefficient .26). As for the implications, the findings of this study bring to the fore the need for head teachers, zonal directors and other stakeholders to find more means of distributing leadership in secondary schools in order to enhance teachers' commitment and empowerment. The study is one of the few studies conducted to investigate the influence and the relationship of distributed leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and the mediating role of teachers' empowerment on distributed leadership and teachers' commitment, in Katsina state in particular and Nigeria in general.

Keywords - Distributed leadership, Teacher commitment, teacher empowerment, principal component analysis, confirmatory factor analysis.

Introduction

Defining leadership from one's faith perspective almost certainly triggers substantial reactions from certain quarters. Besides Bass's theory of leadership (Bass, 1985a, 1985b, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1993), the Muslims in particular are convinced that Prophet Adam (AS) (and his wife Eve) was dispatched to earth by "Allah" (God) as *khalifah* which is synonymous to successor, steward, trustee, viceroy and guardian whereby all of these characteristics are recognized to be the attributes of excellent leadership as far as Islamic faith is concerned. This is justified by a verse from Al Quraan,

"Behold thy Lord said to the angels: 'I will create a khalifah on earth.' They (the angels) said 'Will You place therein one who will make mischief and shed blood? Whilst we do celebrate Your praises and glorify You with praises and sanctify Your (Name)?' He (God) said: 'I know what you know not.'" (Quran 2:30)

In contrast, the human kind history and knowledge believe that there are three basic ways of becoming a leader (Stogdill, 1948, 1974 and 1982) particularly originated from trait theory, great event theory and the most welcomed, transformational or process leadership (Stogdill, 1948, 1974 and 1982; and Bass 1990). In the latest development, Eacott (2007, 2008 and 2010), believes that the knowledge and scholarship of leadership term is perhaps becomes the central concept of interest in every sectors including educational administration. Pursuant to this argument, leadership has long been claimed as a major determinant to the success, achievements or failure of an organizations (Bass, 1990, 1993 and 1985). This assertion is more prominent in educational setting due to countless challenges, namely, the students population explosion, the

organizational bureaucracy and complexity, and teacher burnout are among others. Hence, this paper makes a stance that leadership is defined as an act of influencing the activities of all members of an organization towards goal setting and goal achievement (Aadaez, 2004 and Northhouse, 2007).

Reason for school distributed leadership (DL)

Gronn (2000, 2002a, 2002b, 2003 and 2009) stresses that there has been increasing dissatisfaction with the domination of the concept of the "focused" or "solo" leader in leadership studies. If the traditional leadership model focused only on one individual, distributed leadership suggests that the aggregate leadership is dispersed among the members of the organization. House and Aditya (1997) mentioned, leadership involves collaborative relationships that lead to collective actions such as distributed leadership can be delegated, co-leadership or peer leadership. Despite the use of term shared or collegiate, distributed leadership is perhaps the most common term used on "collective leadership". Gronn (2000, 2002a, 2002b, 2003 and 2009) continues to argue that the study of distributed leadership offers an exciting window of opportunity for qualitative, longitudinal field studies to explore contextual variables influencing distributed leadership. As a consequence, more studies beginning to move towards and beginning to support the role of the distributed as opposed to solo leadership (Spillane et. al 2004; Spillane, 2006 and 2001; Harris, 2007, 2008a; 2008b, Leithwood, 2007) and the literature recognized that the most contemporary interpretation of distributed leadership theory is the one that is provided by Spillane (2001, 2004 and 2006).

Previously, leadership in school was regarded as the responsibility of a valiant, solo or courageous leader, who are able to direct, lead and influences the future direction of the school. Nevertheless, to Hartley (2007 and 2010), leadership in school setting in particular has changed from transformational and traditional setup to distributed leadership. Efforts to better understand how leadership influences successful schools and student performance is now being extended from individual leadership (of Principal) to distributed and collective leadership approach (Mascall, Leithwood, Straus and Sacks, 2008). As proposed by Harris (2004, 2007, 2008a, 2008b), in schools, as different people seek and are tacitly or openly granted leadership functions, a dynamic pattern of distributed leadership gradually takes over. There must be an enormous reason for this and as claimed by Hulpia and Devos (2010a), the challenge that the schools are facing probably can be overpowered through the internalization and practice of distributed leadership.

However, there should be a reciprocal principle here where it should be stressed that before a school can obtain committed teachers, those at the helm (leaders and administrators) must ensuring the presence of conducive environment, through the provision of needed facilities, provision of positive climate, enhancing capacity building, involving teachers in decision making on issues related to teaching and learning among others. In other words, the leaders must carry out the necessary changes in the way things are being done in their respective schools and this wish list is rather only a dream wants. In schools of today, we are very much less fortunate as the heroic leaders cannot effectively change the environment and hence not able to realize the teachers' commitment (Angelle, 2010). Thus, it is pertinent that the leadership is shared by all organizational members for the betterment of the organization.

Harris (2004, 2007, 2008a, 2008b) also noted that the belief of changing schools through the effort of an individual leader is quickly changing because, although good leaders with exceptional vision and action are available, but unfortunately they are not in large supply to take care of the demands and challenges of today's schools. Due to this, a single and "stand-alone" leader cannot effectively operate as efficient as if the roles are distributed across members of his/her organization. It is however gladdening that those who study and those who practice the art of leadership have started looking at leadership as a collective effort of all members of the organization. This is what this paper is looking at, that is the practice of distributed leadership. Furthermore Spillane et. al.(2001, 2004) and Spillane (2006) noted that by stressing the aspect of leadership practice and by assuming that leadership practice is the product of interaction between leaders, followers and their situations, distributed leadership perspective provides another way of viewing leadership in our schools.

Hulpia and Devos (2010a), recognize distributed leadership as the sharing of leadership functions among the leadership teams, which is a group of people within the organization with leadership roles. Distributed leadership pave the ways for

teachers to be involved in decision making, especially on issues related to teaching and learning. Considerable number of studies reveal a positive relation between teachers' participation in decision-making processes and their organizational commitment (Hulpia and Devos, 2010b). It is worth noting also that distributed leadership encourages social interaction between the leaders as well as followers and that social interaction contributes a lot in enhancing teacher commitment, teacher effectiveness and student engagement (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999, 2000a, 2000b; Leithwood et al., 2006, 2007 and 2010). They also note that that teacher leadership practices has a significant effect on student engagement (achievement). Another study proved that there is a positive relationships between the teachers involving in decision making and ranges of student outcomes such as student motivation and self efficacy and educational outcome (Muji, 2011).

Teacher Organizational Commitment (TC).

Organizational commitment implies that the members of an organization actually incline to be the main players and hence play their active roles in their organization. As a result, these certainly have positive impacts on activities in the organization such as sense of possessing high status, willing to contribute and contribute beyond what is expected out of them (Bogler and Somech, 2004). Furthermore, Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) viewed organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification and involvement in a particular organization.

Particularly in a school setting, the need for teachers commitment cannot be overemphasized because with the absence of committed teachers, the school cannot materialize its objectives and goals particularly with regard to effective, efficient teaching and learning process. In supporting the assumption, Razak, Darmawan and Keeves (2009) note that quality education cannot be realized without the effort and contribution of dedicated and committed teachers. Furthermore, Graham (1996) states that teacher organizational commitment is a critical factor that affects effective teaching- learning processes in schools.

According to Firestone and Penuel (1993) and Firestone and Martinez (2007), before effective organizational commitment is applicable in a work place, at least six factors must be addressed and these are: teacher autonomy and efficacy, participation, feedback, collaboration, learning opportunities and resources. Graham (1996) notes, teachers who experienced most of these factors exhibits higher organizational commitment compared to those who do not. Furthermore, Harris (2008a, 2008b) states that, if the goal of reform is to create a conducive learning environment for the students, then it is worth noting that teachers equally require an enabling environment that promotes hard work, acceptance of challenging tasks, risk taking and promotion of growth.

Mediating role of Teacher Empowerment (TE)

In general, empowerment is about the impression amongst members of the organization about their own organization, rather than something that management does to the employees (Dee, Henkin and Duemer 2002). Furthermore, Renihan and Renihan (1992) viewed empowerment as availing teachers and students with opportunities to give their input for decision making in specific situations that really matters which will ultimately lead to the shaping of organizational goals. Ripley and Ripley (1992), argue that empowerment is a process of granting members of the organization to carry out decision making or approval the power where normally such power was the prerogative of those at the helm of affairs. It is not a case where the management and leadership surrenders the power to their subordinates but it is only modifying and changing the way that control is put to use in the organization (Ripley and Ripley, 1992).

Empowerment also has been found to reinforce the factors such as knowledge, autonomy, feedback and importance that enable the employees to function effectively in his/their work place (Dee et al., 2002). In addition some of these factors such as knowledge and importance have been found to influence employee commitment in the organization (Bogler and Somech 2004). Moreover, Krishna (2007) also found that goal internalization and perceive control (sub-scales of empowerment) have influence on affective and normative commitment. Knowing the concepts and factors of empowerment, the second research question is to seek the strength of the mediating role of TE against the relationship between the DL and TC.

Purpose and framework of the study

Pursuant to the previous discussion, the main purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship and influence between distributed leadership (DL) and teacher's organizational commitment (TC) in selected secondary schools in Katsina State, Republic of Nigeria. The study also is trying to investigate if teacher empowerment (TE) variable will in some way mediate the relationship between the DL and TC. Transforming the research purpose to research question (RQ), the study generate the RQs and hypotheses (HPs) such as follows:

RQ1: Is there a direct and significant relationship between DL and TC?

HP1: There is a direct and significant relationship between DL and TC.

RQ2: Does TE mediate the relationship between DL and TC?

HP2: TE mediate the relationship between DL and TC.

Figure 1 below demonstrates the framework of the study and the details of the hypothesized relationships between the variables under study, DL, TC and TE.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the study.

The quest for highly eminent committed teachers in Katsina State, Republic of Nigeria's secondary schools where effective teaching and learning can take place is so significant since without committed teachers the goal of quality education can hardly be realized. Therefore it is relevant and appropriate to emphasize on investigating the influence and relationship of school distributed leadership on teachers' commitment and also to explore if teachers' empowerment mediate the relationship between distributed leadership and teachers' commitment. Moreover, another objective of the study is to find out how the findings of the study implicate on the efforts of the stakeholders to improve the quality of education in Katsina State in particular and Republic of Nigeria in general.

Methodology

Research design and instrumentation

The study was fully committed to the survey method in collecting the primary data from the respondents (schools and teachers). Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS versions 16.0) were employed in analyzing the data obtained. The advantages of AMOS computer software enabled the study to conduct the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and estimation of the hypothesized model of the study. All these are part and parcel of full fledge structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM was employed because SEM is the only analysis that allows complete and simultaneous tests of all the relationships (Ullman, 2007).

The study decided to determine, adopt and adapt all three instruments employed in this study. The instruments are; organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), distributed leadership inventory (DLI) and teacher empowerment scale (TES). The instruments were adopted from Mowday et al. (1979), Hulpia et al. (2010a and 2010b), Devis (2009) and Spreitzer (1995) respectively. The Mowday et al. (1979) short version of organizational commitment questionnaire consists of nine positively worded items and is uni-dimensional in nature. The adoption of the version was informed by its simplicity to respondents and the fact that the psychometric properties of the long and short versions of the instruments are almost the same (Mowday et al 1979). The distributed leadership inventory was a five dimensions scale. The dimensions are: cooperation of leadership team, participative decision making, principal leadership, teacher leadership, and artifacts. The first three components were adopted and adapted from Hulpia et al. (2010a and 2010b) and the last two were adopted and adapted from Devis (2009). In total, the distributed leadership inventory consist of 31 items. Spreitzer's (1996) Teacher empowerment scale consists of four dimensions namely meaning, impact, self determination and competence. The dimensions are measured by twelve indicators, with three indicators measuring each of the four dimensions of

empowerment. All three instruments were rated on 7 points Likert scale where: 1 = strongly disagree (SLD), 2 = moderately disagree (MLD), 3 = slightly disagree (SD), 4 = neither agree nor disagree (N), 5 = slightly agree (SLA), 6 = moderately agree (MLA) and 7 = strongly agree (SA).

Data collection and handling

The survey instruments were administered to seven hundred and fifty (750) teachers from both junior and senior secondary schools in Katsina State, Republic of Nigeria. Five hundred and fifty (550) or 73% of the questionnaires were returned, out of which thirty seven (37) or 6.5% of the questionnaires contain serious missing information. The study then decided to exclude the data set for this study prior to analysis (Creswell 2010, Sekaran & Bougie 2010). Further investigation led to the exclusion of another fourteen (14) set of returned survey questionnaires due to multivariate outliers. The final remaining survey questionnaires ready for further data treatments were four hundred and ninety nine (499).

Demographic background

Table 1 below exhibits the characteristics background of the respondents. The respondents were the teachers of junior and senior secondary schools in Katsina State, Republic of Nigeria. Three hundred and thirty six (336) or 67.3% of the respondents were male while one hundred and sixty three (163) or 32.7% of the respondents were female. According to age class, one hundred and eighty nine (189) or 37.9% are between twenty to thirty years, one hundred and fifty five (155) or 31.9% are between thirty one (31) to forty years (40) while one hundred and fifty five (155) or 31.9% are above forty years (40) of age. The age of the respondents ranged from 20 to 62 years with an average of 35 years. Furthermore, Table 1 also exhibits that one hundred and ninety three (193) or 38.7% of the respondents possessed 1-5 years working experience, one hundred and sixty one (161) or 32.3% possessed 6-10 years working experience and one hundred and forty five (145) or 29.1% possessed more than 10 years working experience. Moreover, the working experience of the respondents ranged from 1- 35 years with an average of 9 years.

Table 1: Demographic Background of Respondents

Statistical analyses

The study was unequivocal in employing descriptive statistics, principal component analysis (PCA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) for its data analyses. Descriptive statistics was purposely used in data screening and the analysis of demographic data of the respondents, PCA was used to reduce the items and obtained the marker variables that were used in subsequent analysis (Tabachnick and Fidel, 2010). CFA was used to assess the psychometric properties of the scales while SEM was employed to investigate the relationship between the exogenous and endogenous variables. The ultimate selection of SEM in conducting the analyses was due to its effectiveness compared to other multivariate techniques in establishing multiple dependant relationship between variables simultaneously (Hoe, 2008). To conclude, SPSS version (16.0) was employed in for descriptive statistics and PCA, while AMOS version (16.0) was employed for CFA and SEM.

Results

Principal component analysis (PCA) of underlying factors for DL, TC and TE.

The instruments used in this study were adopted and adapted and their owners have established their psychometric properties in different occasions. Therefore the main reason of conducting PCA here is only to reduce the number of indicators so as to extract marker variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2010), that will be used for CFA and subsequent analyses. Moreover, it has been argued that if instruments validity and reliability has been established, the researcher can proceed with other analysis without necessarily conducting EFA (Pallant, 2007).

School distributed leadership

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation using was conducted on each of the five factors that were hypothesized to be the factors of distributed leadership. All five factors that were analyzed possessed eigenvalues greater than one, and

variance explained ranging from 48.9 to 63.6 % of total variance. It should be noted that nineteen (19) variables loaded strongly on these factors. Table 2 below shows the factors and the indicators loaded to each component. In general, all indicators loaded satisfactorily ($> .5$) to its respective component. The loading ranges from .57 to .87, for cooperation of leadership team and teacher leadership components respectively. The five factors were named, cooperation of leadership team (COLT), participative decision making (PDCM), principal leadership (PRIN.L), artifacts (ART) and teacher leadership (TCH.L). On reliability basis of the factors retained, Cronbach's alpha of the five factors of distributed leadership were good and within the threshold values of $\geq .7$ set for this study. The reliability indices of the five factors ranging from .85 to .80 which means much better off from the standard threshold values.

Table 2: School Distributed Leadership (DL) Factor Loadings, Cronbach's alpha, KMO, BTS and % of Variance Explained

Teachers commitment

A principal component analysis was conducted on Mowday et. al. (1979) authentic survey questionnaire using varimax rotation and led to the extraction of only one factor. The factor accounted for 55% of variance explained and 4.99 eigenvalue. In addition the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) was statistically significant ($p=.000$), while Kaiser Meyer-Olkin (KMO), measure of sampling adequacy was .92 and the correlation among the indicators was within the cutoff point of $\geq .30$ which is recommended by Tabachnick and Fidel (2010). Furthermore the Cronbach's alpha of the factor was .89, which is good and larger than the threshold value of $\geq .70$ (Pallant, 2007). Table 3 below exhibits the loadings, Cronbach's alpha, KMO, BTS, variance explained by the factor extracted among others.

Table 3: Teacher commitment (TC) Factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, KMO, BTS and % of Variance explained

Teachers empowerment

The study conducted PCA with varimax rotation for each of the four factors hypothesized as components for teacher empowerment, using the data collected from the teachers of secondary schools in Katsina State, Nigeria. A total of twelve (12) indicators loaded on to four hypothesized factors, i.e. three indicators each for each component. Table 4 below shows the factor loading, for each indicator as well as the variance explained, KMO, reliability among others for each factor hypothesized to measure the teacher empowerment model. On reliability of the factors, Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the four factors were good and within the threshold of $\geq .7$. The reliability indices of the four factors extracted was .71, .70, .70 and .76 for impact, self-determination, competence and meaning respectively.

Table 4: Teacher empowerment (TE) Factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, KMO, BTS and % of variance explained

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) estimation of measurement models for DL, TC and TE.

To confirm the underlying factors of the latent variables (DL, TC and TE), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood (ML) estimation (Byrne 2010) was run to estimate the measurement model of DL, TC and TE using AMOS Version 16.0. The results of the CFA are exhibited by Table 5 below. As for DL measurement model, the results of the analyses exhibits that all estimated values are within the threshold values as recommended by scholars such as, Byrne (2010) and Hair et al. (2010): CMIN/DF = 2.70 (≤ 5.0), RMSEA = .059 ($\leq .08$), CFI = 0.918 (≥ 0.9), TLI = 0.933 (≥ 0.9), GFI = 0.918 (≥ 0.9), Chi-Square (CMIN) = 389.250, P value = .000. Furthermore, for TC measurement model, the results of the analyses also exhibits that all estimated values are within the threshold values: CMINDF = 2.58 (≤ 5.0), RMSEA = .056 ($\leq .08$), CFI = .989 (≥ 0.9), TLI = .98 (≥ 0.9), GFI = .984 (≥ 0.9), Chi-Square (CMIN) = 23.238, P value = .006. Lastly, for TE measurement model, the results of the analyses also exhibits that all estimated values are within the threshold values such

as: CMINDF = 3.7 (≤ 5.0), RMSEA = .074 ($\leq .08$), CFI = .930 (≥ 0.9), TLI = .903 (≥ 0.9), GFI = .947 (≥ 0.9), Chi-Square (CMIN) = 179.40, P value = .000.

Table 5: CFA results of DL, TC and TE measurement models

Development and specification of measurement and structural models of the study.

In order to get a good fitting structural model, the study resolved to specify the measurement model of the latent variables of the study first before attempting to specify the hypothesized structural model. It has been argued that once the measurement model is specified and fitted well, fitting of the overall structural model will be easier (Hair, et al. 2010). Figure 2 below exhibits the overall measurement model of the latent constructs of the study.

The hypothesized measurement model was assessed and estimated using a full fledge Structural Equation Modeling computer software AMOS Version 16.0. The model was also estimated using MLE with several key fit indices particularly the CMIN/DF, CFI, RMSEA, TLI and GFI, among others. The CMIN exhibits a value of 211.410 and $P = .000$ indicating a statistical significance. Although a model fit based on chi-square should not be statistically significant (in SEM), however, it has been argued that chi-square is usually affected by sample size (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2010). By inspecting other key fit indices such as CMIN/DF = 2.47, RMSEA = .054, CFI = .949, GFI = .943 and TLI = .938, they indicated that the measurement model of the latent variables fit the data very well as all the fit indices were above the threshold values (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al. 2010). It was also argued that the fitting of the measurement model to the data would pave a way for fitting the structural model (Hair et al., 2010).

Figure 2: Estimation of the Measurement Model of the study

Following the successful fitting of the measurement models (as exhibited by Figure 2), it is assumed that fitting of the structural model of the study will not be a difficult job. Based on the theoretical framework couple with the empirical findings, the structural relationships among the latent variables used to assess the measurement model below were assessed and estimated based on MLE and several key goodness-of fit indices such as CMIN/DF, RMSEA, CFI, TLI and GFI. The estimated and specified structural model of the study will be used to answer and test the research questions and the research hypotheses respectively. Figure 3 below depicted the generated hypothesized structural model of the study.

An investigation of the generated hypothesized model of the study goodness-of- fit indices below, indicated that the chi-square was significant (CMIN = 214.910) and the P value = .000 of the chi-square ought to be insignificant to indicate good fit. However, taking into consideration the fact that chi-square is affected by large sample size (> 400) used in this study the result is not unexpected. Furthermore, other fit indices indicated that the model fit the data fairly well. This was established with a CMIN/DF = 2.47 which is smaller than the threshold value of 5 that usually used in SEM literature (Hair et al. 2010). The RMSEA = .054 which is smaller than the threshold of $\leq .08$ set for this study indicated a good fitting model. The values of goodness-of-fit indices such as CFI = .949, TLI = .938 and GFI = .943 are all within the threshold values set for this study indicated that the model fit the data well. It should also be noted that the overall fit of the measurement models and the structural model of the study are almost the similar. This signifies the fact that the structural model fit the data very well (Hair et al. 2010).

We should bear in mind that in assessing the hypothesized structural model validity, employing the fit indices are not the only criteria as there is requirement for checking the path coefficients and loading estimates to determine if they are within the acceptable range (Hair et al. 2010). Furthermore, Hair et al. argued that a structural model is regarded as valid if the parameter estimates are statistically significant and in the direction earlier as predicted that is if the value is above zero it indicates a positive relationship while below zero, it indicates a negative relationship.

An inspection of the generated hypothesized structural model of the study in Figure 3 indicated that all the parameter estimates are statistically significant and flow in the direction as predicted. The finding reveals that there is a statistically direct significant relationship between DL and TC (standardized coefficient = .34) hence supports Hypothesis I. The result is inline with earlier findings by Hulpia and Devos (2010a) and Hulpia et al. (2010b). Moreover, the study also reveals the

influence of mediating variable TE at certain degree on the relationships between DL and TC. This resulted an indirect significant relationship between DL and TC with a standardized coefficient = .26. In addition the total effects of DL on TC is .60 (standardized coefficient). Hence, the result evidently supports Hypothesis 2 of the study.

Figure 3: The generated hypothesized structural model of the study.

Discussion and implication

The present study was designed to examine and investigate the influence of DL on secondary school's TC. In addition, the study also examined the mediating effect of TE on the relationships between DL and TC. The data collection was conducted using the distributed leadership inventory (Hulpia et al., 2010a), organizational commitment questionnaire (Devis, 2009) and Mowday et al. (1979), and teacher empowerment scale (Spreitzer, 1996). CFA was conducted on the data collected and the results found were relatively in line with the results found by the owners of the instruments or scales. For the realizations of the above objectives, two research questions and two research hypotheses were developed and listed as follows:

RQ1: Is there a direct and significant relationship between DL and TC?

HP1: There is a direct and significant relationship between DL and TC.

RQ2: Does TE mediates the relationship between DL and TC?

HP2: TE mediates the relationship between DL and TC.

As for the purpose of answering RQ1 and testing the HP1, we are directing the discussions towards the information offers and exhibited by Figure 3 above. Here, DL is measured by five indicators such as COLT, PDCM, PRIN.L, TC.L and ART while TC is measured by six indicator items (TC2, TC4, TC5, TC6, TC8, and TC10). All indicators for these latent variables (DL and TC) were signified by high loadings and these would help to ensure the close relationships between these latent variables. As exhibited, it is obviously clear that DL has a direct and significant relationship on TC as indicated by a high standardized coefficient value .34. Hence the study had successfully resolved RQ1 and proved that HP1 was supported. It is worth to mention that the result supports earlier findings by Hulpia et al. (2010a), and Hulpia and Devos, (2010b) on the relationship between DL and TC. So, it is importance to formulate a statement that as far as the schools in Katsina State, Republic of Nigeria are concerned, the study proved that the school distributed leadership practice managed to have significant effect (at certain degree level) on teachers commitment as indicated by a considerable high standardized coefficient value of .34.

The study also attempted to investigate the effect and influence of the mediating variable, TE on the relationship between DL and TC as stated by RQ2. In this case TE is measured by four indicators; IMP, SEL. D, COMP and MEA. The validity and reliability status of TE measurement model is undeniable as it is signified by considerable loading values of every indicators of TE. As exhibited by Figure 3, mediator TE seems to influence the relationship between DL and TC. The results signified the direct effect is .34 (standardized) while indirect effect is .26 (standardized) and hence the total effect is .60 (standardized) which indicates that TE played its important role as a mediator. Hence, HP2 is supported. The study obviously proved that if considerable empowerment given to the teachers of the schools in Katsina State of Nigeria, this may leads to high teacher organizational commitment. The findings of this study support previous studies such as Bogler and Somech (2004) and Gaziel (2009). It is worth stressing that although the studies on the mediating effect of teacher empowerment were relatively few, however, there were many studies conducted on the effect of empowerment on teachers' commitment.

The findings from this study lead to both theoretical and practical implications. First and foremost, the finding of the study successfully enriched the existing literature as it was replicated in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular. We can say that there is some added value to the distributed leadership body of indigenous knowledge in the African continent, at least in Katsina State of Nigeria. In terms of practical implication, the school leaders need to ensure that they distribute the roles

of leadership among the academics and staff so as to provide sufficient space for them to lead and to execute certain decisions at their own levels. Hence, distributing the roles of leadership among the teachers is in somewhat congruent to the concept of empowerment of the teachers and it was successfully that proved that it positively affect the teachers commitment. Without committed teachers, no meaningful progress can be achieved in addressing the challenges that the schools are facing (Hulpia et al., 2010b).

Future research and conclusion

This study is not without limitations and further research is needed. This study focused on public secondary schools; as such research that will incorporate private secondary schools should be conducted. Probably there are going to be another new and interesting findings as it has been argued that school leaders in private schools are more likely to distribute leadership, compared to their counterpart in public schools (Spillane 2006; Spillane et. al. 2001, 2004). Moreover, further research should be conducted in elementary schools and also possibly tertiary institutions where the management structure is slightly different. Since the present study used a uni-dimensional construct dependant variable (organizational commitment), the future studies are recommended to employ other measures of organizational commitment with more than one dimension. As a conclusion, it is worth to mention that distributed leadership concept and theories are apparently and greatly contribute to the teachers' commitment because teachers (as followers) are the implementers of every decisions made by the leaders. Wrong decisions by leaders will definitely lead to wrong executions by the followers and hence the organization will suffer.

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Table 1: Demographic Background of Respondents

Demographic Components	Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	336	67.3%
	Female	163	32.7%
	Total	499	100%
Age	20-30	189	37.9%
	31-40	155	31.9%
	41+	155	31.9%
	Total	499	100%
Working Experience	1-5	193	38.7%
	6-10	161	32.3%
	11+	145	29.1%
	Total	499	100%

Table 2: School Distributed Leadership (DL) Factor Loadings, Cronbach's alpha, KMO, BTS and % of Variance Explained

ITEM NO	COLT	PDCM	PRIN.L	ART	TCH. L	α	KMO	BTS	% of VE
1	.760					.83	.91	.000	49.5
2	.742								
3	.718								
8	.712								
4	.710								
14		.824				.81	.85	.000	53.2
15		.760							
16		.748							
13		.744							
30			.847						
31			.834			.84	.83	.000	63.6
28			.797						
27			.759						
17				.844					
18				.822					
19				.794		.80	.78	.000	63.2
20				.716					
23					.766				
22					.757	.85	.74	.000	48.9

Table 3: Teacher commitment (TC) Factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha,

ITEM NO.	LOADINGS	α	KMO	BTS	% of V E	KMO, BTS and % of
6	.821	.89	.92	.000	55.4	
2	.777					
8	.766					
4	.766					
10	.764					
5	.733					

Variance explained**Table 4: Teacher empowerment (TE) Factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, KMO, BTS and % of variance explained**

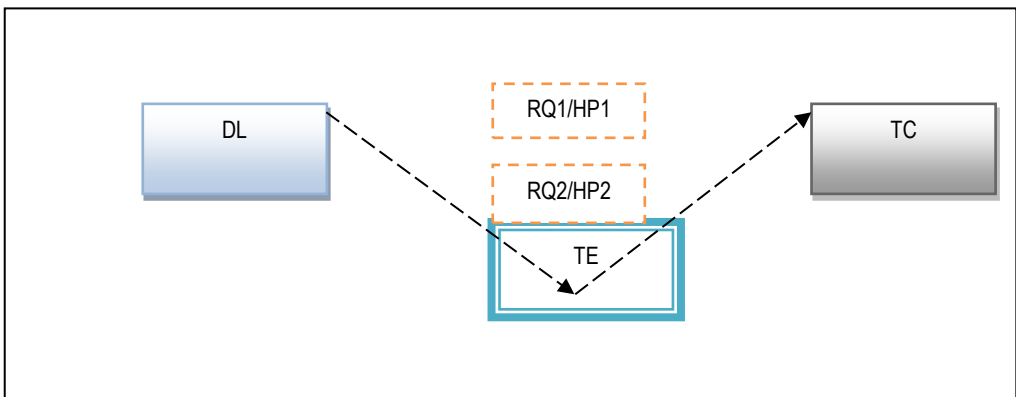
ITEM	IMP	SELF. D	COMP	MEA	α	KMO	BTS	% of V E
1	.858				.71	.636	.000	63.6
2	.806							
3	.723							
6		.817			.70	.673	.000	63.6
7		.807						
8		.768						
11			.841		.70	.644	.000	62.5
12			.803					
13			.723					
16				.861	.76	.683	.000	68.0
17				.820				
18				.794				

Table 5: CFA results of DL, TC and TE measurement models

Measurement Models for:	CFA Results	Threshold Values
DL	<i>CMIN/DF = 2.70</i> <i>RMSEA = .059</i> <i>CFI = 0.918</i> <i>TLI = 0.933</i> <i>GFI = 0.918</i> <i>Chi-Square (CMIN) = 389.250</i>	

	<i>P value = .000</i>	
	<i>CMIN/DF = 2.58</i>	
TC	<i>RMSEA = .056</i>	<i>CMIN/DF ≤ 5.0</i>
	<i>CFI = .989</i>	<i>RMSEA ≤ 0.08</i>
	<i>TLI = .98</i>	<i>CFI ≥ 0.9</i>
	<i>GFI = .984</i>	<i>TLI ≥ 0.9</i>
	<i>Chi-Square (CMIN) = 23.238</i>	<i>GFI ≥ 0.9</i>
	<i>P value = .006</i>	
	<i>CMIN/DF = 3.7</i>	
TE	<i>RMSEA = .074</i>	
	<i>CFI = .930</i>	
	<i>TLI = .903</i>	
	<i>GFI = .947</i>	
	<i>Chi-Square (CMIN) = 179.400</i>	
	<i>P value = .000</i>	

Figure 1:
Conceptual Framework of the study.



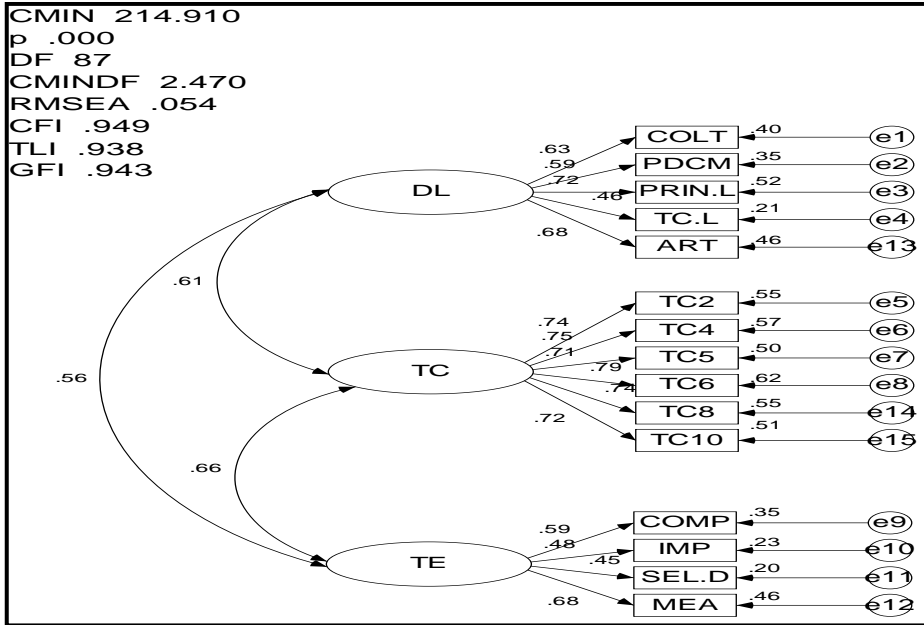


Figure 2: Estimation of the Measurement Model of the study

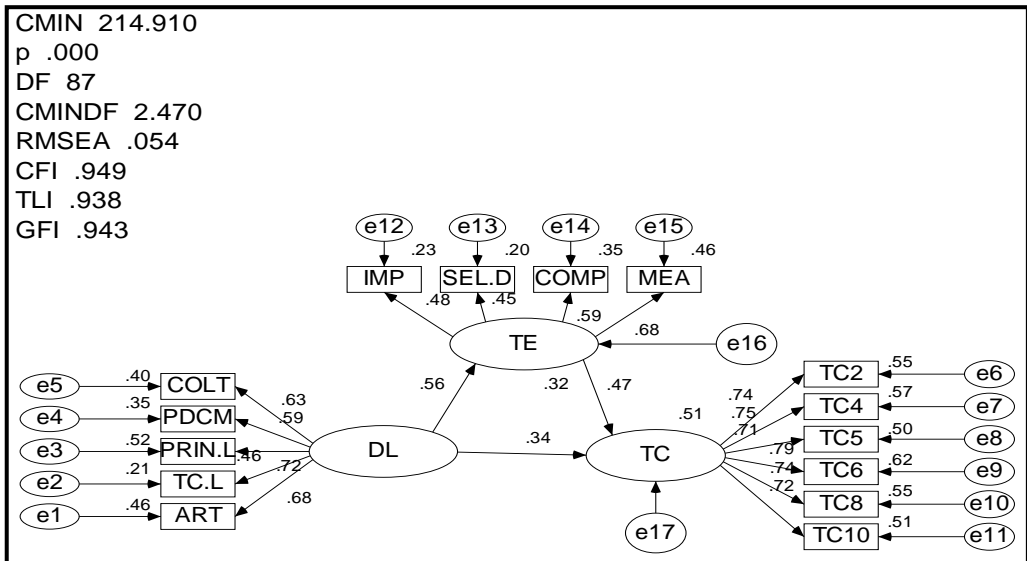


Figure 3: The generated hypothesized structural model of the study.

Role and Impact of Budget as Instrument of Financial Policy and Developmental in Kosovo

Enkeleda Lulaj, PhD. Cand.

University "Haxhi Zeka" in Peja

enkeleda.lulaj@unhz.eu

Abstract

In this scientific paper will be presented a detailed description of the methodology for analysis the budget and the improving connections and budget planning for the provision of financial and developmental policies in Kosovo. This paper will try to write the so that read and easily understood by non-specialists a field of economics and finance. State budget is one of the most important economic instruments, to have Government of Kosovo in available .Draft and spending the budget Kosovo has been competence of local institutions since the establishment of the Provisional Institutions. However, even after more than a decade from the time when local institutions have enjoyed the right to drafting and costs of the state budget, there are major problems in drafting procedures, expenditure and budget reporting. Kosovo budget in some cases is approved hastily and without debate in the Assembly in Kosovo. The current form of appropriations and budget reports is not at that level of detail as to enable the members of the Assembly and citizens understand clear, way divisions and expenditure of public money.

Keywords: state budget, expenditure, revenue, budget organizations, budgetary allocations, budgetary reporting

Introduction

Që nga themelimi i Institucioneve të Përkohshme Vetëqeverisëse (IPVQ) më 2001, hartimi dhe aprovimi i Buxhetit të Kosovës (i njohur fillimisht edhe si Buxheti i Konsoliduar i Kosovës) ka qenë kompetencë e institucioneve vendore. Por të drejtën finale të aprovimit, madje edhe të ndryshimeve rrënjësore, deri më 2008 e kishte Përfaqësuesi Special i Sekretarit të Përgjithshëm (PSSP) i OKB. Edhe pas shpalljes së pavarësisë së Kosovës, hartimi i buxhetit mbeti kompetencë ekskluzive e institucioneve shtetërore të Republikës së Kosovës. Para shpalljes së pavarësisë dhe në kohën kur institucionet vendore njiheshin si IPVQ, buxheti shtetëror në të shumtën e rasteve është miratuar me procedura të përpjektuara, apo edhe duke përdorur kompetencat e rezervuara nga ana e PSSP. Ministria e Financave, si institucioni kryesor i cili koordinon procesin buxhetor, dhe organizatat buxhetore veç e veç, duhet te jete transparente në publikimin e të dhënave të detajuara buxhetore. Pra ,buxheti shtetor luan rol te rëndesishem ne zhvillimin dhe stabilitetin ekonomik .

What is State Budget?

Buxheti i Shtetit reflekton në mënyrën më të plotë dhe domethënëse politikën e një qeverie. Buxheti është në thelb një akt politik. Ai përbën instrumentin kryesor të aksionit ekonomik të qeverisë dhe zë një vend madhor në politikën ekonomike e një vendi . Buxheti i Shtetit është i balancuar në termat e arkëtive dhe të pagesave. Arkëtimet dhe pagesat e qeverisjes së përgjithshme kryhen nëpërmjet llogarisë së unifikuar të thesarit, e mbajtur në lekë dhe në valuta të huaja. Llogaria e unifikuar e thesarit mbahet në Bankën e Shqipërisë .**Arkëtimet ne Kosove** përfshijnë të hyrat që rezultojnë nga transaksione të ndërsjella dhe jo të ndërsjella, të ardhurat nga shitja e mallrave dhe shërbimeve, nga shitja e aktiveve afatgjata, të ardhurat nga tatimet, taksat dhe tarifat, nga frytëzimi i aktiveve në pronësi shtetërore, nga grantet nga të tretët, nga kontributet e detyrueshme, nga interesat, nga huatë, nga transaksionet financiare, etj. **Pagesat ne Kosove** përfshijnë shpenzime që lidhen me transaksione të ndërsjella dhe jo të ndërsjella, shpenzime për blerjen e mallrave dhe shërbimeve, për blerjen ose formëzimin e aseteve afatgjata, pagesa për huamarrje, transferta qeveritare,grante dhënë të tretëve, kontribute dhe donacione, pagesa financiare dhe të principaleve të borxhit, shpenzime për interesa, shpenzime për qira financiare, etj.Buxheti analizohet në funksion të Klasifikimeve Buxhetore si më poshtë:

✚ **Klasifikimi administrativ**, i cili përfshin klasifikimin e njësive të qeverisjes së përgjithshme deri në nivelin më të ulët të njësive shpenzuese;

✚ **Klasifikimin ekonomik**, i transaksioneve sipas natyrës dhe / ose sektorit ekonomik;

- ✚ **Klasifikimi funksional**, sipas funksioneve ose objektivave ekonomiko-socialë, që njësitë e qeverisjes së përgjithshme synojnë të përmbushin ,
- ✚ **Klasifikimin sipas programeve**, i cili përfaqëson programet, nënprogramet dhe projektet, në përputhje me objektivat e njësisve të qeverisjes së përgjithshme;
- ✚ **Klasifikimin sipas burimeve të financimit** .

The Budget Process in Kosovo

Buxheti i Kosovës përgatitet nga Ministria e Financave (MF) në koordinim me organizatat buxhetore dhe miratohet në fund të vitit në Kuvendin e Kosovës. Buxheti për vitin e ardhshëm përgatitet në vitin aktual përmes një zinxhiri veprimesh i njohur si proces buxhetor. Deri në marrjen e formës finale si Projektligj për buxhet, dhe para prezantimit për miratim në Kuvend, procesi buxhetor zakonisht zhvillohet në mes të Ministrisë së Financave dhe organizatave buxhetore. Këto të fundit, konform udhëzimeve nga MF, dërgojnë propozimet e tyre për buxhet sipas planeve dhe objektiva të përcaktuara me plan të punës. Sipas Ligjit për menaxhimin e financave publike dhe përgjegjësitë, *“organizatë buxhetore do të thotë një autoritet ose ndërmarrje publike e cila drejtpërdrejt pranon një ndarje buxhetore.”* Në procesin e hartimit të buxhetit, Ministria e Financave dhe organizatat buxhetore veprojnë në mes vete në dy drejtime: nga poshtë-lartë - kur organizatat buxhetore e kanë lirinë e projektimit të shpenzimeve dhe kërkesave për buxhet varësisht nga planet e tyre, dhe nga lartë-poshtë - kur organizatave buxhetore iu ndahet buxheti duke marrë për bazë buxhetin dhe shpenzimet e asaj organizate gjatë vitit paraprak, dhe jo duke marrë parasysh nevojat për buxhet të këtyre organizatave. Sikur në shumë vende, Kosova aplikon një formë të përzier të të dy drejtimeve, do të thotë organizatat buxhetore e përgatisin apo e propozojnë buxhetin e tyre për shpenzim gjatë një viti (drejtimi poshtë-lartë) por edhe janë të kufizuara në këtë përgatitje si rezultat i një tavani buxhetor siç njihet në këtë fushë (drejtimi lartë-poshtë).

Reporting of Budget

Raportimet e shpenzimeve të buxhetit kuptohen në dy drejtime: i pari lidhet me raportimin e organizatave buxhetore në Ministrinë e Financave, dhe i dyti, raportimi për të gjitha këto nga Ministria e Financave në Kuvend të Kosovës. Nëse i referohemi raportimit të organizatave buxhetore në Ministrinë e Financave, Ligji për menaxhimin e financave publike dhe përgjegjësitë, edhe Udhëzimi për procesin buxhetor i përgatitur duke u bazuar në ligj, tregojnë një numër mekanizmesh përmes të cilëve organizatat buxhetore i raportojnë shpenzimet e tyre në këtë Ministri. Sistemi i Menaxhimit Financiar i bazuar në *“FreeBalance”* ku të gjitha organizatat buxhetore kanë qasje në të përmes programit të instaluar në secilën organizatë, është mjeti kryesor i raportimit të shpenzimeve nga organizatat buxhetore në Ministri të Financave. Ky sistem iu mundëson organizatave buxhetore edhe të kontrollojnë shpenzimin e buxhetit përmes lajmërimeve që bëjnë vetë softueri përmes tri mënyrave: ndalo shpenzimin, ngadalëso shpenzimin, dhe nevoja për alokim shtesë të buxhetit.

Budget Appropriations Unclear

Kjo pjesë shqyrton problemet me emërimin, definimin dhe kuptueshmërinë e shpenzimeve buxhetore, në veçanti të atyre kapitale. Qëllimi është që t'i identifikojmë disa prej problemeve tipike gjatë analizimit të shpenzimeve buxhetore dhe kategorizimit të tyre. Një emërtim që hasim sidomos tek ndarja e buxhetit nëpër Komuna është që shuma të mëdha buxhetore emërohen si *“Bashkëfinancim me donatore”*. Nëse shikojmë buxhetin e vitit 2013 për Komuna shohim se së paku 5.5 milionë euro të këtyre shpenzimeve kapitale janë të emëruara në këtë mënyrë. Ky lloj emërtimi i përgjithshëm, përveç që lejon mundësi manipulimi të buxhetit në bazë të interesave të individëve që menaxhojnë këto fonde, njëkohësisht krijon probleme edhe me kategorizim të shpenzimeve nëse publiku është i interesuar të dijë se në çfarë fushe qeveria apo komunat kanë orientuar shpenzimet e tyre.

The Revenues Budgetary for the Year 2014

Në bazë të analizës së mjedisit afat-mesëm makroekonomik dhe nën parametrat ekszitues të politikës fiskale (parametra këto që rezultojnë nga politika të formuluara në pajtueshmëri me nevojat afatgjate të ekonomisë Kosovare) është bërë parashikimi i grumbullimit të të hyrave buxhetore për vitin 2013. Projektioni për vlerën e përgjithshme të grumbullimit të të hyrave rezulton nga supozimet e skenarit bazë mbi ecuritë makroekonomike. Ky parashikim përbën pikën fillestare për

përcaktimin e nivelit të përgjithshëm të shpenzimeve dhe, rrjedhimisht, për përzgjedhjen e financimit të projekteve prioritare buxhetore në mesin e shumë kërkesave që reflektojnë nevojat e ekonomisë. Në pajtueshmëri me dispozitat ligjore në Republikën e Kosovës, procesi përgatitor buxhetor fillon nga rifreskimi i Kornizës Aftamesme të Shpenzimeve në Prill të vitit paraprak, dhe në vazhdimësi përcjellat nga përgatitje të cilat çojnë në skenarin final të projekteve makroekonomike dy muaj para periudhës referente të buxhetit vjetor.

Revenue Collected in Country

Planifikimi për arkëtimin e të hyrave nga kategoritë tatimore që grumbullohen nga Administrata Tatimore e Kosovës (ATK) shënon një zgjerim prej €13 milion nga buxheti i vitit paraprak, dhe paraqet një rritje prej 4.5% mbi këtë bazë. Rritja në këtë kategori të hyrash, e cila përfshin kryesisht të hyrat nga tatimet direkte (në të ardhura personale, korporative, dhe ato nga interesi) si dhe një pjesë të tatimeve indirekte (TVSH-së), buron nga rritja e projektuar e konsumit dhe investimeve për vitin 2013, çka edhe pritet të përkthehet në ngritje të hyrash personale dhe korporative, si dhe në vlerë të shtuar nga aktivitetet ekonomike që mbështesin rritjen e konsumit dhe investimeve.

Collected Revenues in Frontier

Në pajtim me skenarin bazë makroekonomik 2013-2015, dhe me vrojtimin e trendeve të deritanishme arkëtuese për vitin 2012, bruto të hyrat nga kufiri parashihet të arrijnë vlerën prej €915 milion përgjatë periudhës Janar-Dhjetor 2013. Nën supozimin e realizimit të plotë të të hyrave në kufi përgjatë vitit 2012, rritja e parashikuar e kësaj kategorie të hyrash kap vlerën prej 4.6%.

Other income of budget: non-tax revenues; revenues from concession fees from royalties, dividends, and income from donors

Për buxhetin e vitit 2013, të hyrat vetanake të nivelit komunal dhe atij qëndrorë janë paraparë të rriten me 11.5%, nga €122 milion në €136 milion. Duke qenë se kompetencat e Qeverisë Qëndrore janë të kufizuara në ndikimin e grumbullimit të të hyrave në nivel komunal, të hyrat vetanake të nivelit komunal janë projektuar në nivel të njejtë me vitin paraprak për arsyë buxhetimi, përkundër rritjes së theksuar nominale të BPV-së, dhe përkundër potencialit të akumuluar për ngritjen e kësaj kategorie të të hyrash.

Budget Expenditure

Shpenzimet e përgjithshme buxhetore për vitin 2013 përfshirë edhe shpenzimet për AKP dhe rikthimin e kredisë nga KEK-u janë planifikuar të jenë në vlerë €1,586 milion apo rreth 4.0% më të larta se shpenzimet e planifikuara me rishikim të buxhetit të vitit 2012. Kjo rritje e nivelit të shpenzimeve buxhetore për vitin 2013 vjen si rezultat i rritjes së të dy kategorive të shpenzimeve si atyre rrjedhëse po ashtu edhe atyre kapitale. Në këtë kontekst shpenzimet rrjedhëse gjatë vitit 2013 janë rritur për rreth 7%. Duhet theksuar faktin që rritja më e lartë e shpenzimeve rrjedhëse për vitin 2013 krahasuar me rritjen e projektuar të shpenzimeve kapitale, vjen si rezultat i dy arsyeve: (i) rritjes së konsiderueshme të bazës së shpenzimeve kapitale (ruajtja e pjesëmarrjes së lartë të tyre në shpenzimet e përgjithshme Korniza Aftamesme e Shpenzimeve paraqet koherencën, koordinimin dhe ndërlidhjen funksionale ndërmjet prioriteteve të përcaktuara me dokumente strategjike të qeverisë në njërin anë si dhe përfshirjen e tyre konkrete në projeksionet buxhetore për periudhën aftamesme. Për qëllime të orientimit sa më të mirë të ndarjes së mjeteve buxhetore gjatë procesit të ardhshëm buxhetor është hartuar Deklarata e Prioriteteve Aftamesme të Qeverisë 2015-2017 përmes së cilës konfirmohet përkushtimi i qeverisë për t'i dhënë efekt prioriteteve kryesore strategjike duke synuar rritje të qëndrueshme ekonomike, vendosjen e standardeve të larta të qeverisjes së mirë dhe sundimit të rendit dhe ligjit, zhvillimin e kapitalit njerëzor dhe përmirësimin e standardit jetësor dhe mirëqenies sociale të qytetarëve të Republikës së Kosovës. Kosova do të vazhdojë përkushtimin e saj në promovimin e investimeve duke krijuar një ambient të favorshëm për qëllim të rritjes së investimeve të brendshme dhe të jashtme dhe për të promovuar revitalizimin ekonomik dhe industrial të vendit. Përkrahja për Ndërmarrjet e Vogla dhe të Mesme (NVM) do të fokusohet përmes inicimit të skemës për garantimin e kredive për bizneset fillestare dhe bizneset të cilat kanë potencial për eksportim, politikë që gjithashtu pritet të përkrahët nga partnerët zhvillimor. Modernizimi dhe

zhvillimi i infrastrukturës përbënë një element të rëndësishëm të investimeve të Qeverisë, të cilat investime kanë për qëllim përmirësimin, zhvillimin dhe mirëmbajtjen e transportit duke synuar integrimin e Kosovës në korridoret pan-evropiane në përputhje me standardet evropiane. Vazhdimi i përkrahjes për zhvillimin rural dhe bujqësi do të bëhet përmes rritjes së buxhetit për këtë sektor në masën prej 100%, duke synuar avancimin e infrastrukturës për zhvillimin rural dhe të bujqësisë, rritjen e prodhimit të ushqimit, uljen e importit të produkteve bujqësore dhe zëvendësimin e tyre me produkte vendore, ofrimin e shërbimeve këshillimore për fermerët dhe njëherit gjenerimin e vendeve të reja të punës. Qeveria e Kosovës edhe gjatë periudhës së ardhshme do ta ketë rritjen e shkallës së punësimit si synim strategjik që tenton ta arrijë jo vetëm përmes këtij prioriteti por edhe përmes zhvillimit të tërësishëm të burimeve njerëzore. Analiza makroekonomike e cila mbështet planin fiskal tre vjeçar të elaboruar në këtë dokument parashihet rritje të të ardhurave vjetore për kokë banori nga 2,960 Euro më 2014, në 3,276 Euro më 2017. Me një mesatare afat-mesme inflacioni prej 1.1%, dhe rritje reale të BPV-së prej 4.4%, performanca makroekonomike në vitet vijuese pritet të jetë reflektim i ngritjes së përgjithshme të potencialit gjenerues të ekonomisë, dhe jo vetëm i lëvizjeve ciklike përbrenda kapaciteteve ekzistuese. Udhëheqës të rritjes ekonomike pritet të jenë konsumi dhe investimet private, të përcjellura me mbështetje të eksportit dhe investimeve publike. Këto parashikime janë në përputhje edhe me zhvillimet e pritura në sektorin e jashtëm, gjegjësisht pritet për përsheptim të rritjes në ekonomitë e shteteve me të cilat Kosova ka marrëdhënie tregëtare, apo ka të përqëndruar në to diasporën e saj. Pritet për zhvillim të mëtutjeshëm ekonomik bazohen po ashtu edhe në parashikimin për thellim të mëtutjeshëm financiar të

ekonomisë së Kosovës, të përcjellur me kushte më të favorshme kreditore, dhe zgjerim të përgjithshëm të portfolit të depozitave dhe kredive. Mbi këtë performancë makroekonomike është zhvilluar edhe parashikimi i të hyrave buxhetore për periudhën 2015-2017. Të hyrat pritet të arrijnë në 1,598 milionë Euro më 2017, nga 1,458 milionë Euro sa janë buxhetuar më 2014. Nën parashikimet për shkallë të ulët inflacioni (dhe çmime rënëse të importit), kjo rritje që dominohet nga rritja e të hyrave tatimore pritet të vijë nga volumi i shtuar i aktivitetit ekonomik. Të hyrat buxhetore 2015-2017.

Revenues by Source of Cashing

Të hyrat buxhetore pritet të kenë strukturë të ngjashme përgjatë periudhës së parashikuar afatmesme, me një rritje graduale të pjesëmarrjes së të hyrave vendore. Për shkak të arkëtimit të përbashkët të Tatimit në Vlerën e Shtuar nga Dogana dhe Administrata Tatimore në Kosovë, struktura e të hyrave edhe më tej parashihet të dominohet nga të hyrat doganore, me një pjesëmarrje mesatare prej 59%. Përdërisa në vitin 2010 pjesëmarrja e të hyrave vendore në të hyrat e përgjithshme ishte 18.5%, falë rritjes së efikasitetit në arkëtimin e të hyrave nga Administrata Tatimore e Kosovës, përgjatë periudhës afatmesme kjo pjesëmarrje pritet të arrijë në 27%, që dëshmon për një përkushtim të vazhdueshëm në implementim të reformave për të siguruar zhvendosje të mbledhjes së tatimeve nga kufiri brenda vendit, për të siguruar një financim të qëndrueshëm gjatë periudhës afatmesme.

Expenditure by Budget Categories 2015-2017

Buxheti i vitit 2014 dhe korniza afatmesme fiskale është përgatitur duke respektuar parametrat e lejuar sipas Ligjit për Menaxhimin e Financave Publike dhe Përgjegjësitë për deficitin e përgjithshëm. Andaj, bazuar në parashikimin për trendin e të hyrave të përgjithshme buxhetore, shpenzimet e përgjithshme janë planifikuar të rriten me një normë mesatare prej 2% përgjatë periudhës afatmesme. Pavarësisht kësaj, niveli si dhe struktura e shpenzimeve mund të ndryshojë varësisht nga aprovimi dhe implementimi i iniciativave të reja ligjore si dhe realizimit të të hyrave. Përgjatë periudhës së vrojtuar, shpenzimet rrjedhëse parashihet të përbëjnë rreth 71% të shpenzimeve totale përdërisa shpenzimet kapitale prezantojnë 27% të tyre. Pjesën tjetër të shpenzimeve e përbëjnë shpenzimet për servisim të borxhit

si dhe shpenzimet tjera.

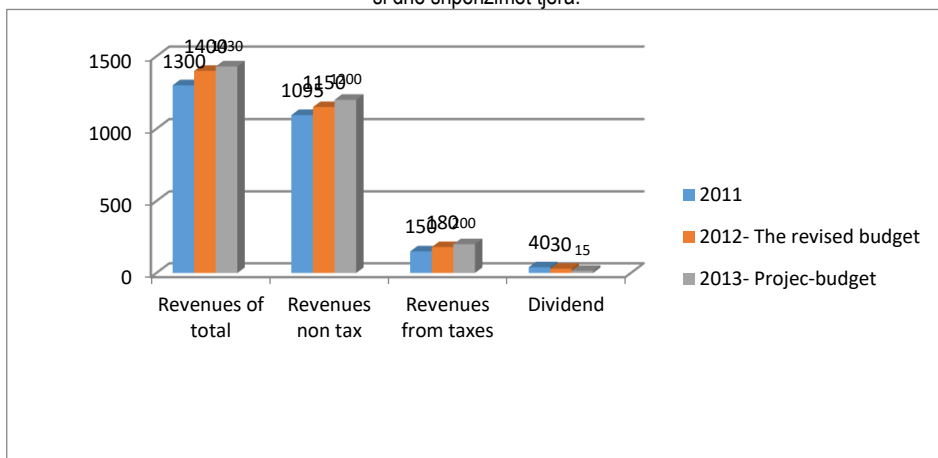


Fig.1. Trend of budgetary revenues in millions.

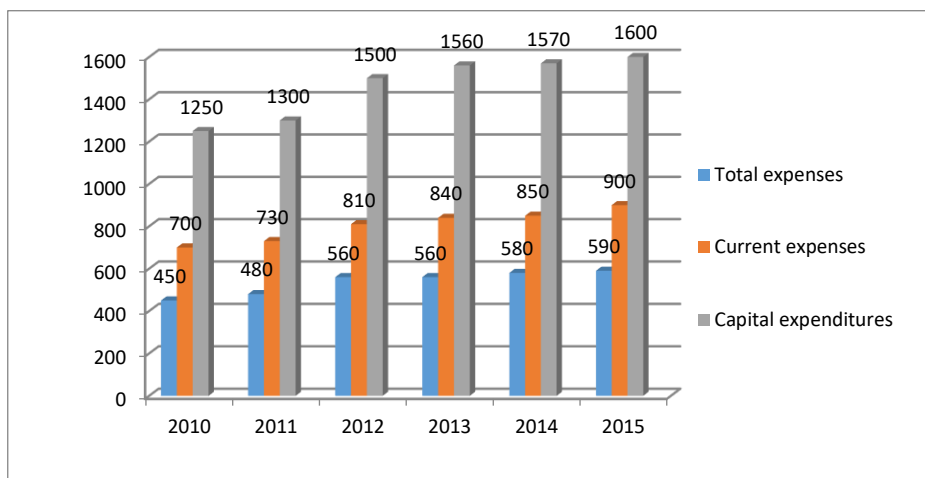


Fig.2. General budgetary expenditures in millions.

The Financing

Pas anëtarësimit në BERZH, EIB si dhe institucionet tjera financiare, një pjesë e shpenzimeve planifikohet të financohet nga huamarrja e jashtme. Ashtu siç është sqaruar edhe më lartë, supozimet për fillim të implementimit të rregullës fiskale nga viti 2014 e tutje ka kushtëzuar planifikimin e matur të shpenzimeve publike duke e kufizuar rritjen e deficitit buxhetor në 2% të BPV-së. Nën supozimin e ekzekutimit të plotë të shpenzimeve dhe arkëtimit të të hyrave deficitit buxhetor pritet në mesatare të arrijë në 2.0 % të BPV-së.

Përshkrimi	2012 Buxheti Rishikuar	2013 Buxheti	2014 Proj.	2015 Proj.
<i>Në miliona euro</i>				
1. TË HYRAT E PËRGJITHSHME	1,384	1,423	1,426	1,498
Te hyrat nga tatimet	1,128	1,182	1,230	1,297
Te hyrat vendore	288	301	327	359
Te hyrat doganore	875	915	938	974
Kthimet	-35	-35	-36	-37
Te hyrat jo-tatimore, THV	170	208	195	200
Te hyrat jo-tatimore	46	44	48	49
<i>nga te cilat: interesi</i>	2	2	1	1
Të hyrat vetanake	122	136	115	117
Niveli Komunal	63	63	64	65
Niveli Qëndror	59	73	51	52
Taksa Koncesionare	2	6	10	12
Tantiemat	-	22	22	22
Dividenda	45	30	-	-
Mbështetja Buxhetore	37	-	-	-
KE	-	-	-	-
BB	37	-	-	-
Grantet e Projekteve	4	3	1	0
2. SHPENZIMET PRIMARE	1,524	1,586	1,650	1,666
<i>nga të cilat: AKP</i>	8	8	9	10
Rrjedhëse	896	959	1,001	1,009
Pagat dhe Mëditjet	410	435	447	449
Mallrat dhe shërbimet	204	225	227	229
Nga te cilat: komunalite	23	23	23	23
Subvencionet dhe transferet	282	299	327	331
Transferet sociale	246	268	296	300
Subvencionet per NP	36	31	31	31
Shpenzimet Kapitale	614	621	636	643
<i>nga të cilat: shpenzime me financim të rregullt buxhetor</i>		-	528	600
<i>financim i njëhershëm dhe bartje të nënshpenzimit</i>		-	108	43
Rezerva	3	4	4	4
Neto kredidhenia	11	-6	-	-
<i>Nga te cilat: kredite per NP</i>	15	-	-	-
<i>kthimet nga NP</i>	-4	-6	-	-
3. BILANCI PRIMAR	-140	-163	-224	-168
3.1 BILANCI PRIMAR (perjashtuar AKP)	-131	-155	-215	-158
3.2 BILANCI PRIMAR (sipas rregullës së propozuar fiskale)	-	-	-116	-125
Pagesa e interesit	-13	-18	-19	-18

4. BILANCI I PËRGJITHSHËM	-152	-181	-243	-186
5. FINANCIMI	152	181	243	186
Financimi i jashtëm	93	7	-16	-26
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<i>nga te cilat: FMN</i>	92	-	-	-
Pagesa e principalit të borxhit	-11	-16	-23	-27
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Huazimi i brendshëm	75	80	100	140
Financimi i njehereshem	64	326	108	43
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Ndeshimi në mjetet tjera financiare	-4	-14	-3	-
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Ndeshimi në bilancin banker	-43	-222	50	24
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Tab.1. Revenues and Expenditures of General Government

Conclusions and Recommendations

Në bazë të shpjegimeve dhënë më lartë në kete punim shkencor, mund të përfundohej se buxheti luan rol mjaftë të rëndësishëm për shtetin dhe funksionimin e tij

Duke u bazuar në këtë përfundim si rezultat i analizimit të raportimit të buxhetit, mund të rekomandoje që MEF duhet të jete me l qarte në hartimin e politikave fiskale si në zbatimin e buxhetin që do të ndikojë në rritjen e konomike ,duhet të shmangen ndarjet e paqarta buxhetore që do të thote një planifikim me l mire buxhetor .Ministria e Financave duhet të ndryshoj formën e raportimit buxhetor në baza tre mujore dhe vjetore. Raportimi buxhetor duhet të përfshijë të dhëna të detajuara për zbatueshmërinë e të gjitha atyre projekteve për të cilat janë kërkuar mjete me Ligjin për buxhetin.

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Shpenzimet publike dhe llogaridhenia financiare

Vleresimi i menaxhimit te financave publike

Për buxhetin e republikës së kosovës për vitin 2015

Korniza afatmesme e shpenzimeve

Raporti gjashtëmujor i buxhetit 2014

Raporti i buxhetit per vitin 2013

Raporti vjetor financiar -buxheti i republikës së kosovës

Raportimi mujor i te hyrave dhe shpenzimeve

Qarkorja buxhetore 2013– 01 për komuna

Qarkorja buxhetore 2014-01 përgatitjet e para dhe kufijtë fillestar për buxhetin e vitit 2014 nga organizatat buxhetore qendrore

Islamic Education Teaching Practice Based on the Cultural Diversity of Students

Noraini Omar

Mohd Aderi Che Noh

Fakulti Pendidikan Universiti
Kebangsaan Malaysia

Abstract

The teaching of Islamic Education is not only meant to convey the contents of the curriculum of Islamic Education, but actually to establish students' good character, and practicing the skills presented in the classroom. It should be noted that, classrooms consisting of students from various cultures can be challenging for teachers to provide teaching and learning. In this case, the teacher must meet the needs of each student so that they get a fair education. Therefore, the sensitivity of the teachers and their skills in the delivery of education require the appropriate use of approaches, strategies, methods and techniques. Approaches are direct or indirect, teacher-centred or students-centred strategies. This article briefly explores the concept of teaching based on the cultural diversity of students be it the languages, practices, beliefs or values held by students. This is because teachers' understanding of the concept of cultural diversity of students will help them provide the appropriate teaching materials. Thus this preliminary study aims to analyze and provide recommendations based on literature research on how the teaching based on the diversity of students can be implemented in the teaching of Islamic Education. It is hoped that this article can serve as a guide in realizing teaching based on cultural diversity.

Keywords: Islamic Education, Islamic Education teaching, Cultural diversity

Introduction

The Quran specifically laid the foundation that human diversity is to stimulate and promote the occurrence of interaction, cooperation and complementarily rather than isolation or conflict. In fact, Islam has emphasized its followers to be fair to all, regardless of ethnicity, race and culture (an-Nisaa' 4:58), and in fact the difference is not a reason for us to deny or discriminate them (al-Maaidah 5:8). Islam also recognizes that the differences are blessings bestowed by Allah the Almighty to His servant and aimed at making them interact and do good, and these differences comprise one of the factors of the pillar of faith, which is the equality of every human being (Ismail Suardi, 2012). Ethnic diversity, ethnicity and race, of course led to the diversity of cultures, lifestyles, beliefs and thought patterns and these make life so wonderful to be shared (Nazri et al., 2011). Thus, the diversity indirectly affects the overall procedures of human life either in the relationship with Allah the Almighty and relationships with other people (A.Aziz, 2000; Ramli, 2003; Sidi Gazalba 1977).

In the context of multi-cultural education in Malaysia, Islamic education is seen as a medium to integrate this diversity. This is because the goal of the teaching of Islamic Education is to produce students who have the following characteristics: a strong and resilient faith and devotion as a fortress of self defence, mastering religious obligation (far 'ain and fard kifayah), as their guidance and way of life, to practice the demands of religious obligation and to fulfil religious and moral responsibility which complements the self, and the culture (Islamic Education Syllabus KBSM 2002, Department of Islamic and Moral Education, Ministry of Education Malaysia). This is consistent with the resolution that has been achieved in the National Level Seminar on Islamic Education from 2-5 October 1995, which concluded that Islamic Education should be the core of the national education system in the implementation of an integrated education system which is based on the integration of knowledge, reason, and revelation, towards eliminating dichotomy and dualism in education.

Therefore, the Islamic Education curriculum supports the pure and superior ideals consistent with the intent and philosophy of the National Education. This is because the goals, philosophy and values brought by Islamic Education are sourced from the Quran and Hadith. In conclusion, the goals, philosophy and values in Islamic Education originating from Quran and Hadith is the basis of culture and civilization. Similarly, the functions to develop behaviours, skills, personality and outlook

on life as a servant of Allah for the development of individuals, society, the environment and the country should be appreciated and understood by educators that this goal can be nurtured in the hearts of students.

Therefore, as educators, teachers need to understand the concept of Islamic Education itself and the cultural diversity that exists among students so that all that is intended by the philosophy of Islamic education can be achieved.

The Concept of Islamic Education

The discussion of the concept of Islamic education will encompass two main perspectives i.e. Islamic Education as a comprehensive education system or concept and Islamic Education as a subject in the existing education system (Hassan, 1995). Discussion on Islamic Education as a comprehensive system or concept include theoretical and conceptual aspects such as the concepts, processes, purposes, scopes and objectives of Islamic education and its function. While the discussion on the aspects of Islamic Education as a subject in the existing education system will be discussed in the operational context of the existing education system, such as the concept of teaching and learning Islamic Education and is limited to specific skills such as the Quran, faith, worship, morality, history and civilization.

In particular, the concept of education in Islam is referred to as an independent social framework and the prearranged work based on the traditions that has been revealed in the teachings of Islam and accepted in the *sunnah* of the Prophet P.B.U.H. (Gamal, 2002), as well as to train the subtle feelings of students thus forming their attitudes toward life, all actions, decisions and approaches to all kinds of knowledge, through profound spiritual and ethical values of Islam (Syed Ali Ashraf, 1994). According to Munir Muhammad Musa (1980) in Ghazali (2008), the purpose education (*al-tarbiyah*) is synonymous with the word *al-ta'lim*, *al-adab* and *al-tahzib*. The word *al-tarbiyah* originated from the word *Rabbi*, which means to produce, build *aqliyah* and *khuluqiyah* strengths that are based on the divine nature of the word *Rab*. Therefore, the process and the goal must be based on this word of faith. He also explained that Islamic Education should be based on the methodology of Islamic teachings in order to achieve the purpose to seek knowledge, skills and experience.

Tajul Ariffin (1997) and Khursid Ahmad (1979) describe the Islamic Education as spiritual and physical guidance based on the laws of Islam leading to the formation of the character according to Islamic criterion, thus the goal of education must begin with the strength of *tawheed*, belief and faith. In accordance with the concept as a training of the mind, physical and spiritual, then the goal of Islamic Education is to produce a highly cultured man, honourable, capable of discharging his responsibilities as a good person and a good citizen. Similarly, Abdullah Ishak (1995) provides the definition that Islamic Education is basically a process of training the mind, physical, moral, and social sense to be a good man and a good citizen.

These differ with that of Hassan Langgulung (1995), who provides analysis of the concept of Islamic Education as having two purposes:

The **first** is that education is public in nature, which includes spiritual, physical, emotional, social, political, cultural, economic, and other types of education relating to human life. Public education is to educate people to practice the teachings of Islam in their daily lives which include economic, cultural, social, and so on. **Second**, Islamic Education is limited i.e. provides commonly called religious knowledge such as; *tawheed*, *fiqh*, *faraid*, Sufism and others comprising of knowledge and knowledge on compulsory religious obligations. He also concluded that, Islamic Education is the process of preparation of young people to fill their role in the transfer of knowledge and Islamic values that are aligned with the function of humans to do good in this world and reap the rewards in the Hereafter (Hassan Langgulung, 1995). Here, Islamic Education is a process of forming the individual based on the teachings of Islam. Through this process, the human is developed to achieve a high prestige and is able to reach his duty as Allah the Almighty vicegerent on earth (al-Baqarah 2:31).

In terms of process, the Islamic Education is the educational process through which children are educated with the conscious guidance which includes the mind, emotion, spirit and physical to produce a civilized human being (Muhammad Uthman El-Muhammady, 1987). Islamic Education is a learning process which includes the instruction, prohibition, the laws, the ethics and assisted by teaching materials sourced from al-Quran and al-Hadith. In other words, a person educated with Islamic Education, his mind is always thinking of something good either for himself, his family, community and nation from an Islamic perspective.

Whereas in terms of functions, Mohd. Kamal (1981) stipulates that Islamic Education serves to produce human knowledge and has parallels with the basis of the Islamic life. Knowledge is defined as the knowledge that includes the knowledge of the relationship between humans and the Creator (Allah the Almighty) which is manifested in the knowledge of faith. According to Mohd. Kamal (1988) Islamic Education is the only means in which a generation is molded. Moral education is stressed in the teaching and learning of Islamic Education. Therefore, to make it an effective moral education, is necessary to ensure that all elements of the education system such as curriculum, school administration, teachers and even the whole society, becomes a tool to strengthen the enrichment of students' noble values. Similarly, Ramayalus (2005) pointed out that, in terms of Islamic Education's function, it is to increase the faith and piety to Allah the Almighty, and therefore the school must work to develop the faith and piety through effective counselling and teaching.

The Concept of Cultural Diversity in Islam

Human beings by nature are created by Allah in the form of different groups and cultures and everyone must accept and respect diversity and differences as a common law of nature that will continue to occur. According to Ahmad Ali (2011), the diversity of cultures in Malaysia is in line with Islamic principles on the issue of ethnicity. In this case, Islam recognizes the dignity of every human being, regardless of ethnicity. Diversity and difference is not a factor for fragmentation and hostility (Nazri et al., 2011). We should get to know one another and assist each other to live together so that peace and prosperity can be achieved. This is in line with the word of Allah in Surah Al-Hujurat 49:13 which mean:

O mankind, indeed We have created you from male and female and made you peoples and tribes that you may know one another. Indeed, the most noble of you in the sight of Allah is the most righteous of you. Indeed, Allah is Knowing and Acquainted.

(Abdullah Basmeh, 2011)

Fathi (1997) stated that this verse specifically laid the foundation of human plurality and diversity is to stimulate and promote the occurrence of interaction, cooperation and complementarily rather than isolation or conflict. This is because people as a whole are the same in Islam. Similarly, religious differences among people are accepted by Allah the Almighty. Allah the Almighty gave freedom to his creatures to make a choice whether to believe it or not. It fulfils the word of Allah in Surah an-Nisaa' 4:1, which mean:

O mankind, fear your Lord, who created you from one soul (Adam) and created from it its mate (Eve) and dispersed from both of them many men and women. And fear Allah, through whom you ask one another, and the wombs. Indeed Allah is ever, over you, an Observer.

(Abdullah Basmeh, 2011)

Sayyid Qutb (2000) also explained that the distinction language and skin colour, different habits and morals, abilities and talents are the differences that should not lead to disputes and quarrels, but these differences should lead to the nature of mutual assistance and cooperation to carry out the task and duty of humanity and complete the requirements of mankind. This is because skin colour, race, language, nation, and so on do not have any value in the consideration of Allah, because only the righteousness determines the value and advantage of mankind. With a view to the righteous as a measure of value in the consideration of Allah, then there are no more values and points of differences. Thus only righteousness became the basis for a referral human who comprise of various colours and types.

While Islam recognizes the nature of grouping people into families, tribes and nations, as the rules have been created and defined by God (Hassan Langgulong, 1995), but no one in Islam is of a higher position over another because of his wealth, status, progeny, and tribe. This is consistent with the words of the Prophet P.B.U.H.: "All men are descended from Adam, and Allah the Almighty has created Adam of clay." Allah the Almighty requires man to devote or worship, both in his relation to Allah and also in his relationships to other men so that there is peace in their lives.

For example, in the issue of the diversity of language and a mastery of the mother tongue of an ethnic group, Islamic Education teachers need to be aware that in the context of *da'wah*, the relationship between language and socio-culture is

important. This is because language remains influenced by cultural factors. Therefore, to determine the meaning of something accurately, we have to refer to cultural factors. For example, when translating, cultural elements have to be translated to fit the particular culture (Azman and Azhar, 2010). Although Arabic is selected as the language of the final revelation, the previous prophets received revelations in their own language as described in the words of Allah the Almighty in Surah Ibrahim 14:4, which mean:

“And We did not send any messenger except [speaking] in the language of his people to state clearly for them...”
(Abdullah Basmeh, 2011)

This shows that Islam is for all mankind and emphasized solidarity. Linguistic diversity that exists is also as a sign of God's glory (Azman and Azhar, 2010). This is difference with Christianity which considers the diversity of language as a punishment. The basis of linguistic diversity is based on what Allah the Almighty says in Surah al-Baqarah 2:83, which means:

“And speak to people good [words]...”
(Abdullah Basmeh 2011)

Although Islam has made Arabic the official language of Islam, but that does not mean that other languages are not functioning, in fact Islam has recognises all of the languages used in the world. Thus the essence of the Islamic teachings can be suitable for incorporation into the use of any language whatsoever. In the context of *da'wah*, it is an advantage of the *da'i* if he can master more than one language. As recorded in the Quran about the advantages of Prophet Solomon who can master the languages of animals, spirits, and so on. The ability to capture the diversity of languages simultaneously will help to capture the culture of a people and various nations. This is because the preacher is a spokesman for Islam to man (Syed Abdurahman, 2005).

According to Mohd. Kamal Hassan (1981) as men is the slave of Allah and of the same lineage, the basis of human relations is fraternity, cooperation and the desire to help one another. Hostility, conflict and unfair competition shall be contained so that peace can be maintained in a personal relationship. In this regard, the Prophet Muhammad P.B.U.H. when he captured Mecca without bloodshed, declared to the public. Prophet P.B.U.H said that Allah has remove the arrogance that is maintained by some people in the Age of Paganism and abolished any show of loftiness attributed to heredity. For example, the Charter of Medina (Piagam Madinah) itself has guaranteed equality of rights and liabilities of all persons and also offers freedom of belief, faith and culture for all, regardless of race or religion (Mat Saad Abdul Rahman, 1999). Jews are also required to spend with Muslims during the war. They must also help in facing the enemies of the country, they are jointly liable for one another and support each other to do good and to refrain from all acts of sin (Ramble, 2003).

In conclusion, Islam has developed the concept of unity among nations and tribes that has never been seen in history before. The integration brought by Islam in addressing issues of cultural diversity has made Islam as a religion that is respected by non-Muslims. Thus the wisdom shown by the Prophet P.B.U.H. should serve as a role model for teachers in providing equal education to all students, especially those in classrooms with culturally diverse students.

The Practice of Teaching of Islamic Education Based on Cultural Diversity

The Quran states that the Prophet Muhammad P.B.U.H. was a great teacher and educator throughout the ages. As Allah the Almighty stated in Surah Al-Jumu'ah 62:2 which means

“It is He who has sent among the unlettered a Messenger from themselves reciting to them His verses and purifying them and teaching them the Book and wisdom - although they were before in clear error.”
(Abdullah Basmeh 2011)

In carrying out education of the companions, the Prophet highly celebrated the distinction of each individual who learns whether those who were given the *da'wah* or those who inquires (Abu Guddah, 2009). He interacts with each individual based on his understanding and in line with his position. He also takes care of the feelings of people who are just beginning

to learn, where the Prophet did not teach them what is taught to those who have been learning for a long time. He answered the questions posed based on the interests and circumstances of the person. Here it shows that although he strongly encourages people to go for *jihad* and migrate, but in this case he looks at the situation and the ability of the companions and the situations of the people who are asking. Sayyidina Abdullah bin 'Amr bin Al-As said: a man came to the Prophet, who then said:

"I gave the oath of allegiance to you for emigration and to wage *jihad* in order to get the reward of Allah. The Prophet said: Are any among your parents still alive? Yes, in fact they both are: the man replied. The Prophet said: Do you want the reward of Allah? The answer is: Yes! The Prophet continues by saying: Go home to your parents and serve them."

(Sahih Sunan An-Nasa'i, Kitab al-Jihad, 3103; Sahih Sunan Tirmidhi, Kitab al-Jihad, 1671)

Based on the above hadith, it is clear to us that he really took into account individual differences and needs while imparting knowledge or advice. The use of his method or celebrating the diversity of students as used by the Prophet P.B.U.H. is applicable in implementing the values of cultural diversity in the teaching of Islam and this has made the teaching of the Messenger effective on the companions.

The same goes to the effectiveness of teaching and learning of Islamic Education which includes motivation, needs and interests of students, ensure learning objectives, identify the level of maturity of the students, knowing the individual differences, observing the understanding, integration of existing knowledge with the origin, and the process of education as a pleasing experience for students (Maimun Aqsa Abidin Lubis et al., 2013). In the teaching of Islamic Education based on cultural diversity, the culture of the school should be driven to make the elements of culture such as values, symbols, beliefs and norms are supported and cultivated and inserted incidentally in the teaching (Federal School Inspectorate, 1993).

Atan (1980) has highlighted three important aspects in shaping the effectiveness of a teacher, which is the teachers' personality, knowledge background on the lessons to be taught and the methods or means of delivery. Meanwhile, Al-Shaibani (1979) argues that the concept of teaching and learning is a good method to help students acquire the knowledge, skills and to change attitudes and behaviour and also to instil the desired values. Teachers are also suggested to deliver lessons in accordance with the level of students' level of thinking (Al-Shaibani, 1979; Al-Ghazali, 1988; Ibn Khaldun 2000). Usually the existing skills and knowledge of students will become blurred and more complicated if the teacher delivers a lesson without any advance regardless to the level of students' thoughts and achievements.

In the context of the teaching of Islam, cultural diversity based instruction is a perspective and a strategy to understand the culture of students of various races and cultures in the class. Teaching based on cultural diversity is needed to help students understand the diversity of cultures in the country and they are directly involved in teaching and learning. The aim of education should be able to bring awareness to students about the existence of different cultures and language in the community and that there exists similarities in culture and language variety (Asmah Haji Omar, 1992). Mastery of the mother tongue for example, help students avoid using a language without violating the norms or rules of language that has been set by a society that uses the language. Thus a more harmonious relationship can be created during the interaction.

According to Banks (2001), education based on cultural diversity is a concept or idea related to beliefs, admission and recognition of diversity and the diversity of cultures and ethnicities that exist that affect the lifestyle, social experience and personal identity of a nation. Multicultural education aims to: (1) develop an understanding of other cultures, (2) shape attitudes towards cultural and racial diversity, and (3) a process to learn new experiences about the values and culture of others. Banks (2001; 2005), states that multi-cultural education from a variety of programmes, courses and practices carried out by educators are responses to the needs, desires and aspirations of various groups. These include gender, nationality, age, gender, marital status, race, ethnicity, social class, religion and culture.

Based on the above discussion, the teaching of Islamic Education based on students' cultural diversity can be illustrated by Figure 1.1 below:

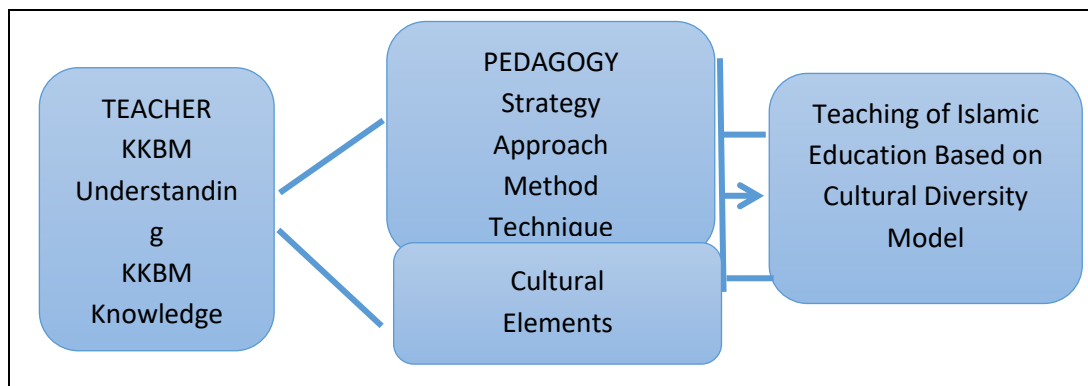


Figure 1.1: The practice of teaching of Islamic Education Based on Cultural Diversity

In terms of its importance, educational system which based on the cultural diversity is important for a developing country with a multiracial population. This step can shape and create a united people, to create and maintain the identity of the country and improve the quality of life and spirituality of the humanity as a whole. Lewis (1994) pointed out that an understanding of the culture of other ethnic groups will increase tolerance. This will make one more inclined to practice the values accepted by society. At the same time, one would know and understand more cultures.

Ibn Khaldun (2000) also explains that, in order to see the civilization of a nation, one must refer to the nation's culture, including elements of the language, lifestyle, religion and habits of dressing and practiced values. While acknowledging the existence of the tribe or nation in human society, Islam recognizes the existence of varying cultures and ways of life. According to Ismail Hamid (1996), some jurists argued that *urf* (custom) for a nation that does not conflict with the legislation can be considered as a source of law that was not already explained by the Quran and Hadith.

Education on cultural diversity is not only meets the requirements of Islam as in Surah Hujurat 49:13, but can also achieve the National Education Philosophy. Education on cultural diversity is also compatible with the Islamic concept of the issues related to ethnic relations. This is because, multi-cultural education views mankind as a macro and micro creature thus tied to each culture and ethnicity (Rina Hanipah Muslimah, 2010). Islam has always provided a procedure on relationships between Muslims and non-Muslims based on a solid, sturdy and tidy foundation which include tolerance, justice, charity and compassion that has never been seen in human history before Islam.

Conclusion

Islamic Education teachers are advised to utilise the appropriate approach in their teaching so that they can meet the needs of students comprising of different backgrounds. The wisdom of teachers in using appropriate methods will help students to understand the content of the lessons that they learned more easily. This will be helpful in our efforts to produce a balanced human being on all dimensions such as the physical, emotional, spiritual, intellectual, and social and strive to create students who can appreciate values and thus contribute to the nation. The sensitivity of teachers in implementing elements of multi-cultural education demonstrates that teachers of Islamic Education has the mindfulness and responsibility in implementing elements of multi-cultural education in the subject of Islamic Education. Elements of various cultures should be incorporated into the curriculum to ensure the effectiveness of teaching students who are culturally diverse.

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Linguistic Contexts and Contacts in Infantile Discourse

Kledi SATKA (SHEGANI), (Doç.) Dr.

Lecturer University of Tirana, Faculty of History and Philology,
Linguistics Department,
e-mail. kshegani@yahoo.com,
tel. 00 355 6922 38 076

Lindita XHANARI (LATIFI), Assistant Professor

Lecturer, University of Tirana,
Faculty of History and Philology,
Linguistics Department,
e-mail. lindalatifi@yahoo.com,
tel. 00 355 6635 60 477/00 355 6731 29 982.

Abstract

Nowadays when multilingualism seems to be a very tangible reality in our environment it is of interest to study some linguistic elements, which enable the analysis of the linguistic awareness of the speaker in language set. This analysis should in fact be realized in certain contexts that can easily summarize the study: family contexts, school and society, also by analogy with Fishman hypothesis regarding early bilingualism, whereby three are the areas in which this phenomenon should be studied: family, peers (peer group) and schools. Our paper will bring data regarding the acceleration of the psychological development of tender age , 0-3 years even under the influence of mass media such as radio TV , DVD , that being for hours in the eyes and ears of the juveniles facilitate the introduction of words and terms that until recently were regarded as "property " of adults . We note two indicators of this new linguistic reality of the language acquisition from the child in the new social and linguistic context. First; acceleration of capturing elements of written language in a real visual aspect that appears today, since the age of two years. We take in the account the delivery of some children, not as exception, but as a product of the experiences of today's new orientation in the civic onomastic our country. A more significant example is that of children who differ: QTU, EHV, KMY, etc., still without any idea what these letters represent itself etc. Second; situation almost multilingual of modern Albania, especially in Tirana and major centers and the addition of mixed marriages with foreigners and Albanians. Linguistic context actually is the determinant of coordinates of the contacts that the child sets as a speaker that have embezzled more than a linguistic system. Context sets the type of linguistic contacts. The bilingual child in certain language contexts selects the discourse code, depending on the interlocutor and the situation. Usually the words chosen to implement such communication in bilingual contexts constitute what we might call "emergency language"; the kind of language that fits the context of the speaker to realize the only intention, communicating.

Keywords: Linguistic Contexts, Contacts in Infantile Discourse

Social Context and Language Contacts

In the study of language, children's speech is an area which should be the first station where scientific thought should stop. Often we forget the basics of the language we receive in our early childhood, at the time when we are still unaware of the importance of language in social life. From the first moments of life, the child is an open system that is organized, managed and gradually involved in the development of its natural and human environment. Studies of children and language are multilateral; it is the lecture, or the spoken language, that is the mirror of reality with which the child comes in contact since the first days of life.

According to Bruner, intellectual development is influenced by the way in which human beings gradually learn to present the world through action, image and symbol. ¹

In today's environment, when multilingualism appears to be a very tangible reality. It is of interest to study some linguistic elements, which enable the analysis of linguistic awareness of the speaker within the linguistic community. In fact, this analysis should be realized in certain contexts that can be summarized to facilitate the study in: family, school and social life contexts. Regarding early bilingualism, the analogy with the Fishman hypothesis states that there are areas which should be studied within this phenomenon: family, peers (peer group) and schools. ² These are the contexts in which a man establishes contact, not only linguistic, with himself and with others. Language contacts are like "a kaleidoscope influx of impressions to be organized largely by the linguistic system of our minds." ³

It is very interesting to study a different view, that of the binomial, language-child, in the light of new coordinates in which our society has shifted with the overwhelming influence of television and other sources of global information to which children fall into contact in their developmental years. Conformity and individualism are two sides of the same coin that the child accredits to the surrounding environment trying to get from it as much as possible.

The Child Speaks and Understands Both Languages

When talking about multilingualism and in particular for the acquisition of two languages in early childhood, one thing can be said with certainty: the child raised in a bilingual environment (*biling*) can understand and speak both languages simultaneously. This conclusion belongs to the spoken language, as with the written language is not quite the same thing. Usually, the process of literacy begins later, moreover after 6 years of age, but occurs only in one of the languages and usually in the language in which the child goes to school and then in the second language.

The child located in a bilingual environment has learned two languages, which represent two different systems. But is clearly proven by numerous studies that "children from a very early age adjust their lecture to their social context." ⁴

Social contexts play the role of linguistic variables in the bilingual system of communication. Thus, if a child living in Italy possesses the Italian language as an official language should shift to another social context, in Tirana for example, there will be a different result. This of course will be obtained in communication and will be reflected in the discourse. The child begins to set in motion an active fund of Italian words and a passive fund of Albanian words to structure its thinking, and begins to communicate in Albanian, or Albanian and Italian, according to the situation and interlocutors. So, in this case, it is the linguistic context that gives its effects on teaching. "An individual may be associated with many distinct networks each predictable by their linguistic norms." ⁵

In the ages 5-6 years old, children begin to reshape the linguistic rate offered by their parents within the peer group. It can be said that a bilingual child builds a multidimensional model of his language by knowing in what situation to use one language and in what to use the other one. Having conversed with other children, playing with them, the child follows the linguistic rules of the community where it belongs. In the transition from home to school, the language of the family from the one at school makes the relationship between language and social context change completely.

¹ Bruner, J., (2000), *La cultura dell'educazione, nuovi orizzonti per la scuola*, Fetrineli Editore

² Fishman, J., (1965) *Who speaks, what language, to whom and when*, "La linguistique" 2.

³ Whorf, B., (1940) "Science and Linguistics" *Technological Review* 42 229-311

⁴ Andersen, E. (1990) *Speaking with style. The sociolinguistic skills of children*, London Routledge.

⁵ Hudson, R., (2002) *Sociolinguistika, Botime : "Dituria"* faqe 202.

The best part of communicative situations in the context of family and various game events are characterized by practical functions, unplanned language models, and spontaneity. The school is a structured linguistic environment, with multidimensional functions and conducted under the direction of the teacher.

School has a strong impact on children's linguistic formation, because it creates a new context, wherein new uses of language are developed. Each student is, in fact, the co-author of its formative process and school plays the role of catalyst of the linguistic influences on the communicative competence and of early bilingualism. This is obviously being conditioned from socio-cultural variables, which, no doubt with their value, they influence the formatting of the child's ability to know and speak both languages.

Bilingual Concrete Situations in the Social Albanian Context

For the majority of the Albanian children living abroad with Albanian parents (where their families speak mainly English) they experience the acquisition phase of the new conversation code (the language of the country where they live) in the early stages where they alternate between the two languages. This is due to the lack of linguistic competence suitable for every context. "The purpose of mixing of codes, apparently symbolizes a somewhat ambiguous situation in which any language used alone will not be sufficient."¹

Children create needed experiences of communication to express their needs and desires. This gives them the motivation and the opportunity to discover the organization of the formal systems of linguistic stocks from the imitation of the adult speech to the realization of intentional communication in both languages, according to certain contexts. In one case, a 2-year-old girl who was born and raised in Italy, but who spoke Albanian, was obviously influenced by her mother tongue and family environment. But at the time that she went to kindergarten she was influenced by the language spoken there, although she understood Albanian very well, school had begun "to destroy" from her active vocabulary the Albanian words. But those words "reawaken" only when she comes into contact with people who speak Albanian.²

From the examples observed during our work, we noticed that the child in a bilingual environment, eg: Italian-Albanian knows how to adapt and respond "by country, the assembly". So, when she is talking with the Italian mother she responds in Italian, and when talking with the Albanian father, she speaks Albanian. This kind of communication extends even further with the grandparents and other relatives, even in kindergarten with peers and teachers. So, we are dealing with her mastery of both codes of discourse, of which she has been affected since birth and is being served from them according to the situations.

Let us mention the case of a child who lived in Athens, Greece. He had been living there for 4 years. He had visited Albania several times over those years, where he stayed 7-10 days and sometimes more than one month. He was born in Athens and until the age of two, he had stayed at home alone with his mother. His mother said that they spoke Albanian while at home, but during the gathering with friends who lived and Greece, the Greek language was spoken as well. Thus, the child learned a few words of Greek language even though often not accurately spoken. He began using the words: *ela*- come; *psomi*-bread (when he wanted to eat). After two and a half years of age, he went to kindergarten. There, an immediate

¹ Hudson, R.(2002) Sociolinguistica, Botime : "Dituria" faqe 65.

² Satka, K. Gjuha e fëmijëve përballë informacionit global, Seminari XXVII Ndërkombëtar për Gjuhën, Letërsinë dhe Kulturën Shqiptare , faqe 304.

change of his speech became apparent. His speech was enriched more and more with Greek words. From then on, the child would hear the Albanian language only at home.

During his visits in Albania the child learned Albanian words. But the stock of his words contain more Greek than Albanian words. But in Albania, he would say words like: agac-thug; leka-money, eze-aunt or even mix of codes such as "ikim valta" (lets go for a walk) or "ksilo mami (mom will beat you), etc. Even the Greek word "oqi", he would say it as "eqi". When he would come to Albania, people would spoil him and would speak to him with incomplete words, removing some letters. Under the influence of this situation, the child redesigned language saying AJA for the uncle, una for me, i logel for small, etc. Over time, he began to better articulate the words in Albanian, but only when he came to Albania. In Athens he was influenced by the language of the kindergarten and spoke only Greek although he understood the Albanian language quite well.

Children with Albanian parents living in the English-speaking community that come in Tirana, according to case studies, observe the fact of using the genitive case. "I like Leksa's stuff," said the 6-year-old child E.A, admiring her dolls and toys. The sentence is a mixture of Albanian-English codes and in the terms of genitive case it is noticed that the children find it easier to use the English language form. We have encountered this phenomenon in many case studies. Specifically here are some examples: *I love Era's Barbie, I need Alku's book, I want a ball like Henry's.*

They select the "characters" with whom they speak English and those with whom they speak Albanian. With the parents they speak English in Tirana, although in Toronto, they speak Albanian with them. While with others who live in Albania, they speak and communicate in Albanian, or with a mixture of Albanian-English codes.

The choice of English-speaking parents to speak Albanian while in Tirana, and to speak English while in Toronto is a phenomenon that presents a great deal of interest from sociolinguistic perspective. To establish communication, the child chooses the code of the discourse and the interlocutors relying on the context without the need for the grammar rules of the language. One element to be highlighted is the acceleration of capturing the written elements of the language in a real visual aspect that appears today, since the age of two years. We consider the deliveries of some children, not as an exception, but as a product of the today's experiences of the orientation in the new civic onomastic and of our country. A very significant example of this is that of children who differ: TEG, EHV, KMY etc., without even any idea what these characters represent in themselves.

The fund of passive vocabulary in the Albanian language appears to such proportions that allows the child to understand and speak good English with a mixture of linguistic codes. Such sentences as: I miss my *mami*, I want *buke*, I want *akullore*, I like to go *ne plazh*, I'm listening to *muzike shqiptare*, are clear evidence that the child empowers the entire bilingual arsenal to communicate his message, and to do so in a broad multi-lingual manner. These sentences are constructed in such a way that, although they don't obey grammatical rules, they are understood by the interlocutor. So the child chooses and selects the interlocutors and situations to use its taught linguistic knowledge. In such a case we are able to anticipate that by adjusting the grammar, this person can move easily within two linguistic systems and pass from one to another depending on the situation. This theoretical explanation applies closely to a bilingual speaker facing two language systems, with syntactic constructions and lexical elements that intertwine and sometimes are used separately, according to their respective linguistic system.

To achieve the correct effect, speakers “balance two languages with one another in a sort of linguistic cocktail, a few words from one language, then some few words from the other language, then back to the first language with a few more words, and so on. Generally switching from one language to another occurs more or less at random, according to the topic of the conversation.”¹

Summary

In conclusion, it can be said that it not merely the linguistics but the the context and the contacts which are important elements that determine aspects of language behavior associated with the discourse of social behavior. It is the context that decides the sets of linguistic contacts. The bilingual child in certain linguistic contexts may select the conversational code depending on the interlocutor and the situation.

At different levels of language, the thing that kids do easily is to understand others is bilingual lexical selection, which is set in motion in mixed syntactic constructions according to linguistic models of one or another language. Usually, the words chosen to establish communication in such bilingual contexts constitute what we might call "emergency language".

This is a kind of language, which fits the context of the speaker to realize the only goal: communication. This language somehow avoids linguistic norms of the two systems and makes an adjustment with the context that realizes the communication. This means that to communicate, the child uses its own conceptual and linguistic “grammar” according to certain social contexts. “Recent pedagogical, psychological and linguistic studies have shown that the child has a greater capacity to build empirically, through relationships with members of its community, a bi-verbal or multivalve skill, thanks to which it gains a mastery of two - or multiple linguistic systems.”²

Faced with this spectrum of systems, sociolinguistic value is transmitted through communication being shifted from one social context to another with tools and more diverse ways; direct contacts, mental images, games, chats, imagination, media outlets etc. Bilingual language contacts are indicative of stages through which passes the altered conversational codes in a consciousness language of the speaker until the total completion of linguistic formation as the highest degree of the possession of two linguistic systems.

The language of children should be considered as the foundation of formatting a human personality which runs from stuttering and baby-talk, to imagination, and ultimately to processed logical thinking. In recent times, everywhere in the world, and now also in the Albanian environments, as a result of increased incentives of the “electronic discourse” (games with sounds, words, sounds, music, etc.) “as well as cartoons that are provided by television channels with videotapes or DVDs, we can observe an acceleration of the overall development of mental and linguistic in children.

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¹ Hudson, R., (2002) Sociolinguistica, Botime :“Dituria” faqe 65.

² Shkurtaj, Gj., 2003 Sociolinguistika, SHBLU ,Tiranë, faqe 179.

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Reading Comprehension Problems Encountered by Foreign Language Students, Case Study: Albania Croatia

Irena Shehu

PhD Candidate, European University of Tirana,
ALBANIA, aneri-87@live.com

Abstract

Reading Comprehension is a crucial component of second language acquisition. As a core part of language learning it is, obviously, not an effortless process. Students often complain of not understanding a text, therefore they fail in answering to the comprehensive questions. Unfortunately, this is a reality evidenced and proven from unsatisfactory results of students in English Language Matura Exam in Albanian high schools (as these students have been the objective of this study). In this context it is very important to *reveal* why do students have difficulties in comprehending a text. At first, it is necessary to detect the problems that generally appear along this process. In this context, focus should be given to questionnaires as their results are good detectors of problems encountered by students. This would direct us to a proper strategy for problem solving and improving the situation. The survey in question was submitted to students from three different high schools in Albania, using questionnaires, sample texts, observations, focus groups etc. Second, theories related to these problems and strategies that could be of help should be provided. Basically, theories and approaches of Reading Comprehension are: '*bottom-up*', '*top-down*' and '*the meta cognitive view*'. Third, but not less important, focus should be given to questionnaires as their results are good detectors of problems encountered by students. This would direct us to a proper strategy for problem solving and improving the situation. The survey in question was submitted to students from three different high schools in Albania, using questionnaires, sample texts, observations, focus groups etc.

Key words: Reading comprehension problems, '*bottom-up*', '*top-down*' and the meta cognitive view, unsatisfactory Matura Exam results

1. Introduction

Learning English Language is very important nowadays, especially if we focus in Albania. This is due to the new policies and regulations of the Ministry of Education and Sports which has imposed new rules even to the students of the high school, who in order to get graduated have to successfully pass the English Language Test.

Actually there is not a satisfactory level of students' outcome as they have shown a lot of problems concerning second language acquisition, respectively English Language. The word "problems" includes a lot of aspects, but this study will be focused on Reading Comprehension.

Since reading is considered to be the core part of language acquisition, it is necessary to make a proper study about this process, the identification of the core problems faced during reading comprehension which create obstacles on language learning.

Another objective of the study is finding out some strategies that best work in solving reading comprehension problems.

2. Methodology

Study case key points

Location: three different Albanian High schools

Method: quantitative in the form of questionnaires (see appendix 1).

Focus :

-students' opinions about problems encountered on Reading Comprehension process through their experience of working with texts at school

-what they think the best text is

- the students' own ideas on how to best work with literature

Sample

When selecting the students for this study, there were chosen students from three different high school of Albania., "Havzi Nela" high school, Kukes, "Kostandin Kristoforidhi", Elbasan, " Qemal Stafa", Tiranë This was partly to minimize the risk of different schools having different policies of teaching , English level etc.

In each school there were a few students that could not attend when the questionnaire was handed out for various reasons. In total the questionnaires were filled in by 150 students.

Questionnaires

This study was done with the help of questionnaires hand out to the students in order they give opinions about the difficulties they face during reading comprehension.

The entire survey, the introduction as well as the questions, was written in Albania, This was because the questionnaire was not intended to test their understanding, but to get as reliable answers as possible by avoiding misunderstandings as some of the terms are difficult enough in the students' first language. A further reason was that at the end of the questionnaire there were two open-ended questions, and by being allowed to write in their first language, students would feel more comfortable writing and giving suggestions.

The questionnaire consisted of an introduction informing each student of the general subject of the survey, namely to investigate their opinions of problems they encounter during reading comprehension process. It was also declared that participation was voluntary, and that they could opt out at any time without being questioned why. In the last part of this short introduction, students were kindly requested to be sincere while giving an answer.

In the questionnaire there were mainly two types of questions. The first type was multiple-choice questions, and here students were told to give the answer they thought agreed with their own opinions.. For the second type of question, the closed ones, there was rating using words, like *Every day, Often, Rarely, and Never*; or using numbers as in this example: *Choose a rating of difficulty from 1 (easy) to 5 (the most difficult) for the reading comprehension problems below.*

The students were here asked to circle only the one option they thought was closest to their opinion.]

Since these two types of questions were closed (and semi-closed), there was a need for the students to be able to say something in their own words at the end of the questionnaire. So in addition, as mentioned above, there were two open-ended questions at the end. In the first question, they were asked to give their opinion about any other reading comprehension problem they encounter and why.

3. Theories on reading comprehension problems and strategies.

There a lot of theories concerning reading comprehension, different authors have given their contribution to this important aspect of language learning. Since the focus of this paper is reading comprehension problems we are going to be focused on these two important approaches: '**bottom-up**' and '**top-down**'

'**Bottom up**' theory is the traditional standpoint that has been used to understand the reading comprehension process. According to Nunan (1991), reading in this view is basically a matter of decoding a series of written symbols into their aural equivalents in the quest for making sense of the text. It is based on the smallest linguistic units of a text from which particular knowledge schemas are activated. In this view, the comprehension process starts with words (their pronunciation, semantic value, morphology, etc.), which later give access to more extensive units (syntagmas, sentences, paragraphs) and finally to interpreting the whole text. Based on this approach the whole message of the text is considered the sum of the information in each paragraph. The interpretation of each paragraph is determined by the previous interpretation of each sentence which is the result of interpreting each word, and so on.

'**Top-down**' approach is in direct opposition to the '**bottom-up**' model. According to Nunan (1991) and Dubin and Bycina (1991), the psycholinguistic model of reading and the top-down model are in exact concordance. **Thus the 'bottom-up'**

standpoint is that comprehension begins with more general aspects such as: the title, the basic idea of each paragraph, etc; and subsequently, goes into smaller linguistic units. In this way, this type of processing is principally based on the prior knowledge the speaker has and in the communicative situation. Thus in order to understand a message, first we have to understand a paragraph then later turn to the sentences and words that make up the message. Top-down may allow the understanding of an ambiguous text because it activates high level schemas that guide the reading process. Thus it is very important to use the prior knowledge and reader expectations in the comprehension process.

Both top-down and bottom-up perspectives now form the basis of every study related to reading comprehension. However, several authors have developed different theories in order to explain reading comprehension in relation to memory, thus giving a contribution to the identification of the problems related to reading comprehension. We will make a quick review of the theoretical accounts that try to explain how information is activated (or reactivated) from background knowledge during reading.

The metacognitive view

According to Block (1992), metacognition is the control readers execute on their ability to understand a text. In this way, Metacognition involves thinking about what one is doing while reading. Klein et al. (1991) stated that strategic readers attempt the following while reading:

- Identifying the purpose of the reading before reading
- Identifying the form or type of the text before reading
- Thinking about the general character and features of the form or type of the text. For instance, they try to locate a topic sentence and follow supporting details toward a conclusion
- Projecting the author's purpose for writing the text (while reading it),
- Choosing, scanning, or reading in detail
- Making continuous predictions about what will occur next, based on information obtained earlier, prior knowledge, and conclusions obtained within the previous stages.

4. General Problems Faced by Students on Reading Comprehension

When we refer to problems related to Reading Comprehension certainly there are a lot and they vary from the simplest to the biggest ones, and to our surprise they may be different from what we think. The first question of our inquiry is: Which are the main problems faced by high school students in Reading Comprehension? To answer this question we did a study with the help of the questionnaires and surveys in two important high schools in two different cities in Albania.

The result showed that Reading Comprehension difficulty occurs frequently even in students who are good in decoding and spelling. This difficulty in reading comprehension occurs for many reasons, the three most important ones are listed below:

Vocabulary . New words are seen by students as a great obstacle to comprehend a text. It is necessary for students to properly comprehend the words or the vocabulary of a written passage in order to be able to decode the message, thus comprehend a written text.

Working memory. The students often complain of the fact that they cannot recall the information they just read. They need to hold the information in working memory long enough for the information to be more extensively processed, and often some of them lack it.

Absence of extensive reading. Students read a little or nothing. This is considered to be a great obstacle for students to comprehend a written text. These were the aims of the study, and the results will be presented in the following. If a breakdown occurs in one of the aspects mentioned above then the students usually fail to decode a text, and analyze its meaning, which often results in reading comprehension problems and failure.

Type of text. The type of text is another factor that influences a lot reading comprehension. It is considered to be one major barrier. Some texts are easy to be perceived some others are very difficult. Which are these so called easy and difficult text according to students? Why are they called so? These are two other questions which will be answered on this paper.

5. Results and Analysis

Based on the questionnaires we did in some of the high schools of Albania, as described in the Methodology section, we are going to show the results on the chart below. Students were asked to answer several questions about problems they face while trying to comprehend e text.

Based on their answers we ranked seven important so called problems. Most of them correspond to Bottom –up model. Thus, they first start with New Words and finish with Pronouns.

1. New words 20 %
2. Background knowledge 18 %
3. Type of the text 15%
4. Organization 13%
5. Lack of illustration 15%
6. Tenses 10%
7. Linking words 10%
8. Pronouns 5%

Chart nr.1

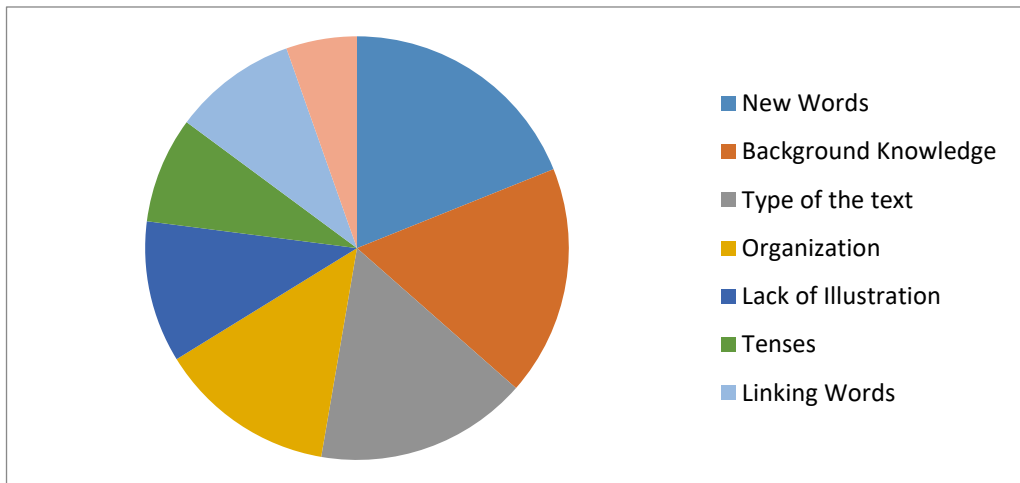
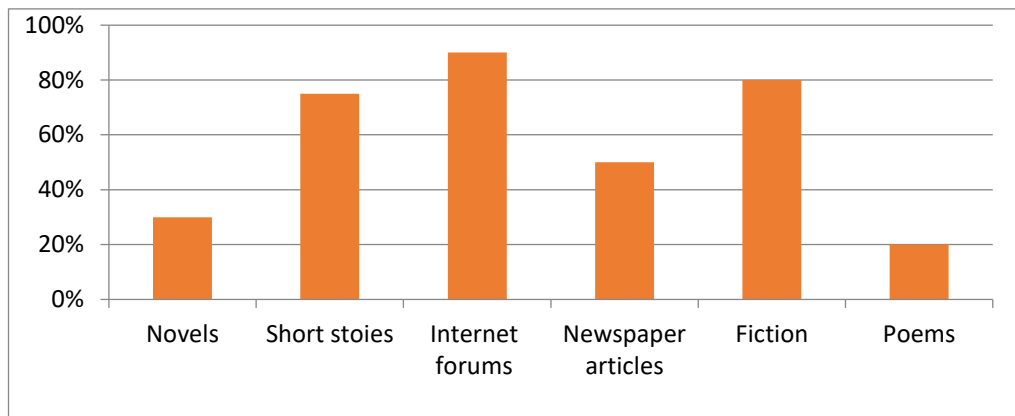


Chart.2 The type of texts students want to work with in school



As we see in the chart, students prefer some types of text to work with it in schools, while others they consider to be not interesting, thus difficult for them. In these context students should be encouraged to do extensive reading and use some sort of techniques to encourage them. As for instance when reading novels it's highly recommended to use these techniques in the classroom:

- Talk about what happened in the text
- Write about what happened in the text
- Dramatize what happened in the text.

7. Conclusions and Recommendations

As discussed above Reading Comprehension in the second language is not an easy process. It is affected by many factors which are analyzed from the perspective of students. They vary from new words to the type of text students work with in the classroom.

Students face difficulties in both two approaches, bottom up and top down approach.

Thus, it is important to encourage students, especially foreign language students to read as much as possible because in this way they will find a great help in their process of language learning.

Not only the students, but also the schools and other groups of interests should be encouraged to discuss about rules and policies that encourage extensive reading at schools.

While facing new words, the most common problem reported from students it is highly recommended to follow these advice:

- Do not spend minutes reading and re-reading a sentence just because you don't understand one word.
- Each question is only worth 1 point. Make a guess and move on.
- There are questions that are difficult for native speakers too. Don't get stuck.

Another recommendation is the use of Reading Comprehension strategies as listed below:

Provide students with a variety of opportunities to review what they have read. Try story maps, or story re-telling.

Encourage students to make connections between the reading passage and their worlds. Connection charts can be set up where students are encouraged to link what they learned to their experiences and world knowledge.

Use cooperative learning activities. Assign each student a part of the reading they are responsible for teaching to other group members. This provides the opportunity for students to paraphrase what they have read, which may help commit the information to memory.

Encourage students to re-read passages. They will be able to read with increased speed and fluency, which will allow them to extract more knowledge from what they read.

Allow students to demonstrate their understanding of readings in a variety of ways. Students may like to draw pictures, make charts, write a poem, write a play, etc.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONARE (PYETESOR)

Pyetesor nr.2

Qarko nga 1 tek 5 shkallen e veshtiresise se ketyre faktoreve gjate leximit te nje teksti:

1. Fjalet e reja
1 2 3 4 5
2. Stuktura e tekstit

1 2 3 4 5

3. Lloji i tekstit

1 2 3 4 5

4. Kohet e foljes

1 2 3 4 5

5. Koha ne dispozicion

1 2 3 4 5

6. Fjalet lidhese

1 2 3 4 5

7. Stili i te shkruarit

1 2 3 4 5

8. Peremrat

1 2 3 4 5

9. Mungesa e i ilustrimeve

1 2 3 4 5

10. Mungesa e nje strategjie te caktuar

1 2 3 4 5

Pyetje te hapura

1. Sa shpesh lexoni dhe analizoni nje tekst ne klase
2. Sa arrini te kuptoni nje tekst ne klase?
3. Cilet lloje tekstesh keni veshitresi te kuptoni?
4. Cfare ju pengon per te kuptuar nje tekst?
5. A ju duket e veshtire analiza e nje teksti ne klase. Nese po, pse?

Introducing Students to the Genre of Presentations for Professional Purposes

Sladana Živković, PhD

College of Applied Technical Sciences,
Faculty of Civil Engineering and Architecture,
University of Niš, Serbia
email: sladjanzivkovic.ni@gmail.com

Abstract

The present paper discusses the genre of spoken presentations and provides information about how to improve communication skills and design a successful spoken presentation in order to function effectively in professional settings which is important in today's globalized and highly competitive world. It proposes ideas concerning the efficiency of presentations, and discusses the ways of arranging presentations in the EFL classroom. In the age of globalization and information technology, communication and presentation skills have become an important aspect of the workplace. So, graduates need to be proficient in spoken communication in order to function effectively in professional settings. Mastering the skills and genre of professional spoken presentations in today's highly competitive world is more important than ever. Teaching principles of spoken presentations at schools and faculties is an especially relevant curriculum segment and is done with the ultimate purpose of better communicating professional knowledge. By making students aware of basic points, types, characteristics and styles of professional spoken communication, the paper is to serve as a starting point in an attempt to make them expand and perfect their communication skills.

Key words: genre, communication, spoken presentation

Introduction

This paper focuses on the genre of spoken presentations, and provides information about how to improve communication skills and design a successful spoken presentation in order to function effectively in professional settings which is important in today's globalized and highly competitive world.

College graduates are expected to have excellent communication skills, so, teaching principles of spoken presentations at faculties is an especially relevant curriculum segment. By making students aware of basic points, types, characteristics and styles of professional spoken communication, the paper is to serve as a starting point in an attempt to make them expand and perfect their communication skills. Webster (2002) argues that in order to create a safe classroom community of discourse, it is useful to offer learners explicit and systematic explanations of the way language functions in social contexts.

So, teaching students to design effective presentations implies training them insightful and well-trained thinking strategies that can produce clarity in communication without oversimplifying vocational issues. Improving the quality of presentation actually improves the quality of thought and vice versa. This is the ultimate result of a successful presentation.

The centrality of spoken presentation skills

To begin with, I would like to emphasize that globalization and the information technology revolution have reshaped workplace requirements. "Today's challenging economic situation means that it is no longer sufficient for a new graduate to have knowledge of an academic subject; increasingly it is necessary for students to gain those skills which will enhance their prospects of employment" (Fallows & Steven, 2000). In today's world of competition employers are demanding graduates with excellent communication competence (Morgan, 1997; Alshare & Hindi 2004). Therefore, with effective communication and presentation skills, experience and knowledge, students will gain a competitive advantage over others in the job market.

Therefore, making the course relevant to job or study needs is usually a good way to motivate the learner" (Ellis & Johnson, 1994). Students' presentations in the classroom need to become "an important element in delivering positive learning experiences" (Alshare & Hindi, 2004).

Introducing students to the genre of spoken presentations is an effective means of achieving a communicative goal (Swales, 1990). Bhatia (2008) explains genre as "language use in a conventionalised communicative setting in order to give expression to a specific set of communicative goals of a disciplinary or social institution, which give rise to stable structural forms by imposing constraints on the use of lexico-grammatical as well as discoursal resources".

Additionally, Gray (2010) argues that communication skills must be transferred from the classroom to the workplace. So, it is important to increase the number of spoken presentations to ensure that students are prepared for the professional environment after graduation.

The primary goal of foreign language teaching/learning

The primary goal of most foreign language learning, according to Littlewood (1981), is to develop the ability to use real and appropriate language to communicate and interact with others. The goal of foreign language teaching, consequently, is to extend the range of communicative situation in which the learners can perform with focus on meaning without being hindered by the attention he must pay to linguistic form (Littlewood, 1981).

Significantly, students should become clear about the goals of the course and their relevance to the program goals and the institutional contexts. It is also important to assess students' speaking skills based on their prior knowledge and experience and in direct relation to course activities. Keeping in mind these things, the first class begins with a course syllabus discussion activity.

Communication is more than merely an exchange of words between parties; it is a "...sociological encounter" (Halliday, 1978) and through exchange of meanings in the communication process, social reality is "created, maintained and modified" (Halliday, 1978). Communication task "involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the language" (Nunan, 1989).

Many professionals need to create spoken presentations "in one capacity or another over the course of their careers. Sometimes they will have to present new ideas or progress reports to their colleagues and bosses, or sometimes they will share the findings of their latest scientific inquiries with their peers" (Platow, 2002).

Moreover, exposing students to the genre of spoken presentations can be an effective method which motivates students to communicate, and can impart lifelong skill that extends beyond the academic context that is by strengthening the ability of students to transfer and apply their academic communication skills to the outside world.

Bridging the gap between language study and language use

"New work skills are emerging as crucial for success in the 21st century. These include skills of critical analysis, evaluation, experimentation, collaboration, communication, abstraction, system thinking, and persuasion" (Reich, 1991). Every professional is involved in some aspect of communication which usually involves gathering, analyzing, and distributing of scientific and/or technical information efficiently and accurately for specific audiences. Among the many advantages of oral presentations are: "bridging the gap between language study and language use; using the four language skills in a naturally integrated way; helping students to collect, inquire, organize and construct information; enhancing teamwork; helping students become active and autonomous learners" (King, 2002).

So, the aim is for the students to learn the structure of various kinds of communications and the appropriate style of speech. First, they are explained that learning the principles of spoken presentations is done with the ultimate purpose of better communicating professional knowledge to other professionals.

Special attention is paid for the students to understand that professional presentation communicates specific information about a specific subject to a specific audience for a specific purpose. Generally speaking, a presentation often focuses on resolving some problem or delivery of information. The purpose of a professional presentation may be to inform and/or persuade the audience that the speaker's method of resolving a problem is effective and efficient. The achievement of the preset purpose proves the validity of the presentation.

Spoken presentations – general characteristics

Spoken presentations are considered an integral part of almost every professional environment, as professionals may need to communicate with other professionals “by giving presentations in seminars, conferences and the workplace (King, 2002; Freeman, 2003). They demonstrate one of the most successful way “to get the student’s attention, encourage curiosity, create challenges“ (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and master the situation.

One specially relevant part of foreign language instruction curriculum at faculties refers to the principles of spoken presentation skills for professional needs (Živković, 2011, 2014). The importance of these skills lies in the fact that they have a completely practical purpose and are directly related with the real future needs of the students. All decisions as to content and method are based on the learner’s reason for learning (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Besides, it is important to note that the study of presentation techniques is a chance for students to gain insight into knowledge and skills that make a good lecturer.

“The introduction of oral presentations to EFL classrooms provides a rewarding and stimulating experience both for teachers in developing facilitating skills and for students in training themselves to have confident presentations in public“ (King, 2002). An oral presentation is one of the most important oral communication skills that entry level job candidates should possess (Campbell et al, 2001).

In addition, it is important to mention that the mastery of the subject topic and the good will to interact with others will allow them to actually enjoy sharing their knowledge in a constructive way, both for their audience and themselves with plan and organizational structure (Živković, 2013, 2014).

Conducting a spoken presentation

Spoken presentations are becoming important part of language teaching, especially in the university environment. Often the purpose of these classes is to prepare students for business presentations (Wardrobe, 1994). The focus of the class is often on the specific language for presentation, the use of visuals and the organization of the presentation.

Since spoken presentations involve multi-skills, carefully planned and constructed guidelines and instruction (Martin, 1990) will help develop students’ receptiveness to spoken presentations (King, 2002). If properly guided and organized, spoken presentations provide a learning experience and teach lifelong skills that will be beneficial to students in all school subjects, and later in their careers (Melony & Thompson, 1980).

Giving instructional objectives and style (Burke, 2011) can increase students engagement in the classroom, and enhance their performance with the ultimate goal of being a successful communicator in the future professional surrounding (Živković, 2014). So, it is needed to consider a number of factors when conducting a spoken presentation, and to develop “effective learning strategies for both language and communication skills“ (Sweeney, 1997).

- Shape the presentation

The presentation can have the following aims: to inform the audience about a topic, to persuade them to accept your argument, to motivate them to listen and agree with your attitudes, and finally, to inspire the audience with a powerful presentation. Depending on these, the structure and shape of the presentation will vary significantly.

The organization will depend on the overall purpose of the talk, but basically it may be of the following kinds (Živković, 2011):

- classifications - organizing information into groups that share common characteristics,
- partition - organizing information into sections and sub-sections,
- cause and effect - describing and persuading by means of identifying casual relationships,
- problem and solution - organizing material in response to a dilemma,
- experimentation - organizing the information given, the purpose, aim, materials, procedures, results and discussion.

A model for structuring a spoken presentation

Students need to learn the structure of various kinds of communication and the appropriate style of speech. Here is a model to help students structure their presentations.

A) Introduction

What is significant is to prepare a suitable introduction and establish contact with the audience. The introduction contains: greeting the audience, introducing yourself and your company, identifying the topic, and explaining the purpose of the talk. It is necessary to get and keep the audience's attention and interest by connecting their needs and knowledge to the topic of the speech.

- Greeting your audience

The first thing to be done is to greet the audience. Let's take a look at some samples:

Good morning ladies and gentlemen. Thank you for coming...

Good afternoon everyone. I'm very pleased to be with you today...

Good afternoon everyone. It's a great pleasure for me to be here with you today...

Good evening esteemed guests. Thank you very much for coming today...

- Introducing yourself and your company

Then, introduce yourself, and say a few words about your job and your company. Remember, the way you introduce yourself provides people with a first impression of you. Here are some expressions to do this:

I'd like to introduce myself...

My name is... I'm manager of...

Let me introduce myself... I'm a representative of...at (company name)...

- Introducing the topic

Tell the audience what you are going to speak about. Begin with a clear and appropriate topic. But remember, it depends on the needs of the learners in relation to their future jobs (Ellis & Johnson, 1994).

"Learners are free to choose any topic they prefer in three categories: event-or goal-oriented; student-initiated; and in-depth topic studies, in order to enhance their self-expression and creativity" (King, 2002).

You can introduce the topic by saying:

The subject of my talk will be...

My talk is concerned with...

The subject of my presentation is...

What I'd like to present to you today is...

Today's topic is...

In today's presentation I'd like to explain to you ...

In today's presentation I'm going to give you an overview of ...

In today's presentation I'm planning to explain ...

I'm going to talk about...

- Explaining the purpose of the talk

Familiarize the audience with the purpose/objective/aim, content, and the structure of the presentation. "Knowing the content of the functional areas of business is important, but to give life to those ideas - in meetings or in solo presentations - demands an effective oral presentation" (Murphy & Hildebrandt, 1990).

The main purpose of the talk refers to "whether the audience accurately perceives what the author has in mind" (Gopen & Swan, 1990).

Here are some phrases for stating the purpose of your presentation:

The purpose of today's presentation is...

The purpose/objective/aim today is

The subject of my presentation is ...

The purpose of my talk is ...

- B) The body of the presentation

You should outline your presentation to give the audience a clear overview of what they can expect. The body should be presented in a logical order for the audience to follow. It will be useful to divide the content into sections (and sub-sections), so, the audience will know where they are at any time during your talk. One of the good ideas is to pause between sections of your talk.

- Moving to the point

My presentation consists of three parts...

This talk is divided into three main sections.

In the first part (section) I will concentrate on...

The second part will focus on...

Finally, in the third part, I'll talk about....

In the last part I'll offer some solutions...

- Giving examples

For example...

Now let's take an example...

A good example of this is...

Let me give you an example...

To illustrate this point, I will give some example...

As an illustration...

- Introducing visual aids

We live in the age of visual communication, so, visual aids can effectively support oral presentations (Doff, 1988; Dudley-Evans & Maggie, 2002). There are many advantages in using visual aids during the presentation. They are used in order to create a powerful effect, keep audiences' attention. They are also used to illustrate points easier to understand in visual form and, overall, *to maximize the effectiveness of the presentation.*

They can be: slides, handouts, flipcharts, overhead projector, whiteboards, graphs, charts, maps, photos, drawings, images, posters, videotapes. Videotaping student presentations is an effective way of enhancing student presentation skills (Baker & Thompson, 2004).

Besides, by using visual aids, presentations are more persuasive, more understandable, more professional, more memorable, and more interesting.

What is worth noting is that visual aids are used to support the presentation, not to dominate it. Otherwise, the disadvantage of overusing visual aids is that the attention of the audience will be divided and students may stand aside and have visual aids take their place (King, 2002).

The following phrases can be used:

This graph shows you...

Take a look at this table...

If you look at this diagram, you will see...

This chart illustrates the figures...

This graph gives you...

This chart clearly shows ...

If you look at the screen, you'll see ...

This diagram/chart/slide clearly shows ...

C) Conclusion

Conclusion of your talk should include three parts: a brief summary of what you have shown in your speech, thanking the audience for listening, and an invitation to ask questions, make comments or open a discussion. This may take the form of a recapitulation of the main points.

- Summarizing

At the end of your presentation, you should summarize your talk in order to remind the audience of the key points. Here are some expressions:

Now, I'd like to summarise...

Well, that brings us to the end of our talk.

Now, just to summarise...

Let's quickly look at the main points again.

To summarise...

To sum up ...

Lets summarise briefly what we've looked at...

Finally, let me remind you of some of the issues we've discussed...

- Thanking

I'd like to thank you (all) for your attention.

Thank you all for your patience. Have a good day.

Thank you for your attention and interest in this discussion.

Thank you all for being here today and patiently listening to what I said.

I'd like to finish by thanking you (all) for your attention.

- Inviting questions

If you have any questions, please feel free to ask them.

Would you like to ask any questions?

If you have any questions, please ask them now.

Does anyone have any questions?

If anyone has any questions, I'll be pleased to answer them.

If you have any questions, I'll do my best to answer them.

As a summary to all mentioned above, it is important to point out that spoken presentations need to occupy a significant part of language teaching classes. By their nature they can be taught only as an interactive kind of lecturing. Through practice work, students reproduce the knowledge lectured through their own examples. The aim of such classes is practical and concrete. It is tailored according to the needs of specific professions and allows students to present the acquired academic knowledge in both academic and professional environment.

Conclusion

This paper has discussed relevant practical points related to the genre of spoken presentations in the EFL classroom.

Spoken presentations are an integral part of almost every professional environment, as professionals need to communicate with other professionals in seminars, conferences, business meetings, congresses. Hereby, students need a thorough in-depth instruction and practice in spoken communication.

So, students need to learn the structure of various kinds of communications and the appropriate style of speech. First, they are explained that learning the principles of spoken presentations in English is done with the ultimate purpose of better communicating professional knowledge. Special attention is paid for students to understand that professional presentation communicates specific information about a specific subject to a specific audience for a specific purpose. The audience element is crucial for the successful presentation. The presenter needs to make a precise judgment about who they talk to, and according to that adapt their presentation to the audience's needs, expectations, levels of understanding, background. It means, the presenter has to identify the audience as precisely as possible (experts, technicians, executives, nonspecialists). Different audiences require different amount and depths of information.

It is important to note that in this era of increasing internationalization, opportunities for students to study or work abroad are growing steadily, and being able to speak to a group with confidence and ease is an essential skill (Webster, 2002). With the experience of spoken presentations, students (future specialists) can forge ahead with more self-awareness, speaking skills and strategies required to create other similar presentations.

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Identity Alienation in Literature

Prof.ass.dr. Elvira LUMI

Msc. Lediona LUMI

“A.Xhuvani” University, Elbasan, Albania.

E mail: elviralumi@yahoo.com

lediona12@yahoo.com

Abstract:

Alienation is a familiar theme in the prose of Ismail Kadare and Kuteli Mitrush. This theme is defined as an emotional isolation or detachment from others, a way of thinking in exile. In the works of Kuteli and Kadare, the characters are continually alienated and they experience isolation from the society. These characters are physically and psychologically separated from their loved ones. The tough conditions of the society are the causes of their isolation. The characters want to hide their identity from a kind of punishment or guilt that can judge or condemn their conscience. The characters' archetypes appear phantasmagoric, hallucinated and in hypnosis. They are mutilated and demonic. Alienation stems from a state of despair, disruption of connectivity, a search for escape from the path of death. For Kuteli the weather has changed, the country has changed, the people, their names and clothes have changed. Everything has become strange and the writer feels "a stranger among strangers", "dead among the living". This alienation has not affected the man's skin, which has remained the same, but something essential has been changed. His soul, as the core of the body, has migrated feeling better in exile, far from the ordinary life, he feels a stranger in a metamorphosis reality. The equilibrium between the substance that has been alienated and the form that has remained empty, almost barren, looking for the necessary rediscovery of a new identity carried by the human being.

Introduction

In Mitrush Kuteli, the literary text intrenches with the music, to produce the higher scale of communication. Figuration and linguistic stylitization is in function of the expression form and poetic logic, which contrasts the deformation and transfiguration of human characters. The characters remain beautiful and perfect even after they are dead. In the story of “Rine-Katerineza”, Rina’s mother from the grave, through the phenomena of Metamorphosis, resurrects and sings: “-Don’t cry, my child, Mos më qaj, moj bijëzë, Rinë –Katerinëzë, or you’ll ruin your eyes, Se të prishen syzetë, or you’ll ruin your cheeks...Se të treten faqetë...”. When the dead spoke like this, it was almost nightfall and the wind blew on grass and thorns.

Such pray we find even in the figure of Petro, who though murdered, prays:

“You vultures which fly around, Yve gala që vërtiti, Eat whatever you want, Të më hani ç’të më hani, Just spare me the eyes, Sytë e mia mos m’i ngani, No one want an ugly son...!Se jam djal’ e më shëmtoni ...”¹

In stories with fantastic subjects the author offers the relationship of the living with the dead, their liason, as in the stories: “April Night”, “Night of May” “Rine-Katerineza”, “June Night” “The Letters of Nightfall”, “Mutiny for devil”. In every relationship of the living hero with the dead a comeback of this hero in the living world is predicted, but he is changed and transformed as he himself affirms “a stranger between strangers”² Kuteli together with Kadare, is presented as one of the most interesting prosators of the Albanian literature. The art of Kuteli is supported by a classic narrative architecture as much as a modern tradition like short stories as a literary genre, which this author develops. The classic narrating form according to the spoken tradition intreches with original models as the phylosofical discourse and as the approaches of the narrative author on the universal problems of existence, life, death, right and even piciples like those of “relativity”.

The narratives of Kuteli surge above all from his reflections and the ability to create an architectonic text, which with the masterfulness of a manufacturer presents “partly symbols, partly scenes of an idealizing reality” with a creative breath, the sunset and destroyal of a life which is exchanged “almost normally with death”. These relationships are four-dimensional

¹ Kuteli, M. “April Night” from “Kapllan Aga of Shaban Shpates”

² Kuteli, M. “Rinë-Katerinëza”, “Chosen prose and lyrics, 2”, Tiranë, 2004.

and relate to the organic and mathematical building of life and death. In the prose of Kuteli is presented the idea of "divine singers" and the "leader of the harmony spirit in the world", where the architectural text and music originate.¹ Through allegories and symbols the author has adapted it the typology of the "living dead" which is played in the 7- syllable lines a divine fantasy (refer to the above lines for this). The content of Kuteli prose belongs to a pitagorichal esthetic proportion, where the fantasy which takes the same from the musical prototype of the architecture, the ideas of a reality, is identified with a building which remains beautiful forever. This is what the author writes: "...step by step like from the present Being started to raise a sort of finely veil woven from the waves of time. This resembled a caddis that edged and faded away in the dusk. Then, the waves of land and grasslands, forged in walls and stones, drew apart like with an order, and in a blink of an eye, all the ancient buildings grew from the ground, each in its place. Now Katjeli, this pleasant village of Mister Nikoll Branës, appeared to my eyes the same as it was four or five generations before"²

Only if you see the object, the phenomena or poetic figure in the inside you can discover beauty. It directs you 'to see the novelty with the eyes of the mind". This novelty is given to us through the act of construction and the structure of this construction with elements like stile, wall, house, village, etc.

In the fantasy of "Kuteli the architect" his devotion, courage and "destiny" and "enumerating" gift and formation to that scale where at last, in the highest row is found the guaranteed success of the narration, glory and perfectness which coronate the narrator-architect himself, are an integral part of him.

The mythical prototype and honoring the artist in the present, coronate two cycles which transmit to the reader a free esthetic education. The language of the narrator is presented in a symmetrical approach of the picture, plastic and architecture. The prose "My village drinks raki" is an example where Kuteli is presented as a "genius of sculpture", who can create in accordance with the burning torches of life, the bitter prints of a treasure which is nothing but coal used everywhere, the prints of which identify the author himself with his never ending energies in service of literature and narrative prose. As a "practical construction servant", Kuteli is capable with his "landscape symbolic" and revivance metaphoric to extract with this architecture the future of his modern building with stones and tiles and the amazing relation of the "gothic" vertical constructor and the "greek" horizontal division, by aiming to present the decoration of the narration building, the necessity of a mental synthesis like the esthetic prototype of the poetic figure, as the tropes and her obligation of education.

Life and death are presented in the same plan, where the line of genesis moves in the form of an oval or parabolic curve, which are repeated as a primary type of genesis with ever changing powers. This way of judging puts the author-narrator in a viewpoint of life according to the principle of organic metamorphosis and the geometrical method of discovery. Kuteli in this case is a prospective author. The poetic language of his narration resembles an iconographic symbolic, which aims to fix not only the internal communication signs as discourse, which maybe are related to his personal tastes or personal life; but to give these signs as secrets of church icones, early historic documentations until the anxiety of discovering treasures or everything old related to very rare stones which seem to be in search of the Illyrian genesis. Although he is an admirer, Kuteli is against the customary imitation of nature. In this case a crucial role plays the imagination and fantasy, knowing the historical and legendary myths and fantastic narrations of the childhood.

Nevertheless, his narrations are not bedtime stories, but catalizators of the historic memory of the nation itself. Kuteli tries to approach as an artist to the "prototype" and "original nature" and to gain from them "the necessary idea on beauty". The world of minerals (copper, gold, silver which are related to the activity of the sun on earth), of animals and plants, is used from the artist "but only as subordinated clauses" of a narration and "never with over-measures or either for an idea set on reason which aims to disclose beauty itself".

In stories like "Albanian nights" we discover a series of elements which have been taken from reality in nature. These physical elements compose the almost sacred human spirit of men and his eternal concern on the possibility of embodiment and resurrection. The short prose of Kuteli unites the units and components of the trait of the being that carries in it "the genuine or the evil spirit"³. In this spirit we find "the personal understandings" of the writer as "a path of life 'in search of the lost truth". This truth is discovered if simple transformations are overpassed and through the principle of Metamorphosis

¹ Lichtenstern, Ch., "Die  irkungsgeschichte der Metamorphosenlehre Goethes",

² Kuteli, M. "August Night" from "Beyond the waves of times" of "Chosen prose and lyrics", see above

³ Kadare, I. "Only skin has remained to the bond", Newspaper "Metropol", 18 February 2005

⁴ Bond Stephenson, D. "Living myth", London, 1993

the concept of growth as a progression is disclosed (see the fragment above), of degradation ("The Autumn of Xheladin Bey"), of resurrection ("The Letters of nightfall", "The devils of our village").

As it happens with oral narrations, in Kuteli we often find chlishes that open or close his short prose. These chlishes enable the reader to receive in an uninterrupted way, component elements of the genesis like water, fire, bread, air, light, sun, and moon, minerals (which serve for monetary value, like dishes or decorations tools).

A group in itself consist the construction elements and architectonic structure of historical or cult objects like: the grave stone, cave, stairs, castle, village, town, colones, churches, mosques until their transformation in coal or carbon, which compound the first matter for a classic writer like Kuteli. These are the elements we can find in a visible way in the prose of Kuteli, which direct this author towards anthropology and collective claims for change. This concept is related with the fundamental Christian thought of transubidition as a central impuls of creation, especially those related with the topic of Metamorphosis. Metamorphosis, transubidition are often treated by Kuteli and probe and affirm him as "an artist with catholic education, with an early interes in oral narration, mathematics, the penetration of his concept on art not only as a "mimes", but also with a breath of human resurrection, principles which conform closely with the theory of "Metamorphosis of Gëte plants" or his "Morphology" and "Qualified Gëteism" of Rudolf Shtainer.

Metamorphosis is a crucial principle which organizes the narration of this author through which he discloses the human not only as a being with known form and content, but also as a shadow without content and stripped from its soul. Emerges the question: what has concerned this writer, only the relationship life-death, or any personal secret, like the well-known researcher A, Plasari suggests?¹

Kuteli leaves the common reality to find peace in a narration structure of characters in exile. This narration requires a certain logical order and an endless continuity of metaphors by trespassing the simple transformations and comparisons of men with boggards, with angels, and by touching the darkes and deepest corners of the human soul. The particular layers of the narration symbolic, a palimpsesty language, is discloses as a principle of Metamorphosis, that we find in the stories "Beyond the waves of time", "The second revelation of Pjetër Kulirës", "Albanian Nights".

Creativity and the "social plastic" that entrenches the prose of Kuteli and Kadare raises above a child psychology that brings into memory grandparents or parents the tales, of childhood or early youth, but that are put in form of revelations above each other as a property of selfconfience of the narrative author. The main theme of narrations is that of self-formation and creation of the human identity in a social reality often very extreme and astrange with this individuality that is formed in the almost absurd conditions of the struggle to survive. The architypes of the characters are presented as fantasmagoric, halutinants and under hypnosis. Borrowed and truncated persona are disclosed in a totalitarian society and they discover the exile of the characters. By being modern on the way of understanding life our authors rise above a certain line of tradition, by disclosing their prose not only a very secret logical element but also an esthetic element and at last a religious element.

The writer narrates for "a new life", where people would eat "with a silver spoon" (why the question of gold torments so much this writer; though we know that he has worked for a short time in the Romanian and Albanian bank as a accountant, during the war and after it). The nature of the characters are presented as an exotic "figure", that unveils different views, often contradictory to the point of deforming the human appearance. This is a demonized view. The principle of magic that the author uses to organize the structure of classic fantastic narrations like the tropes according to the principle of "reverse" reflection or mirror principle, to understand all that complexity of element of the human soul, to which the author pledges to study the "anatomy". The spirit of searching and discovering what inspires the author reminds you of the novels of Zh.Vern, which seek to discover the world and the relationship that men have with it. In the narrations of Kuteli one lives in a macro and micro-cosmic world, and through the componetes of plants, animals he reviews analogies with soul-like qualities still unknown to the modern world. These parts represent important elements of the structure of life on earth and through a cyclic exchange of powers from earth and the cosmos is projected the life of the living and non-living nature in our planet. In ratio with life, death is presented by the author as a temporary interruption to reinvigorate the bridge of a new life, that is symbolized with the seasons and months of the year and even with the hours of day and night: "The Letters of nightfall", "Night of May", "Night of August" etc.,. Kuteli unveils as a modern and extremely innovator artist. Through his narrations the Metamorphosis is disclosed as an effective principle not only in the organic nature and time, but it is also recongnized as such with its truthfulness and necessity. In addition, this principle results as primar even in the narrative structure of I.Kadaresë and K.Trebeshinës, where the analogies and particularities are visible. The mythical events and

¹ Plastari, A. "The second identity of M.Kutelit", Newspaper "Drita", 3 February 1991.

fantastic tales with a return in a made-up action are now understandable through the transfiguring force of the story. The ancient oral and religious tradition and the continuant search of the author on nature and men are merged in one in Kuteli. The vision of Kuteli offers a type of cyclic circle of events, but also an evolutive kind of imagination and universal ideas. When the events are described according to an cyclic principle, the author is very near the mythical and fantastic description of events (but also to the religious one), when he bravely enters in the depths of the form of constructing the nature of life on earth it offers us the social form of the human being and its evolutive character. Kuteli states with the tongue of his characters that he is "a stranger between strangers" by offering us the universal concept of the metamorphosis of the human soul. Nevertheless, this universality is not explained just in the model of oral narration of its prose. We believe that he must have been familiar with the necessary literature on the life and deeds of Ovid, who passed a part of his life as an interned oman citizen in the lands of Romania in the time of the roman emperor August and may have served as an extra incitement for Kuteli in writing his short stories. In the kutelian narrations, nature is preserved in view as a whole and through the phenomena of resurrection/emboiment, but in the form of an animal or a ghost, the transformation expresses the prototype claimed unity "the first men", "the first plant" (according to the idea of Gête), "the first animal", which is presented in the mobile category of polarity of growth and simultanously, time-place relationships are disclosed. In this double real and unreal relationship we discover a special way of thinking and viewing "the first revelation through eyes" and the visive ability of knowledge. The narration takes the appearance of a movable photography or a fim which is read through writing. Kuteli presents a different form of the human soul separated in two genders male-female and discovers in the same time the cause and consequence. To Kuteli the weather has changed, the place has changed; the people and their names and clothes have changed. Everything has become astrange and he feels as "a stranger between strangers", "dead between the livings" and vice versa. This borrowing has not only touched the skin of men, which has remined the same, but something fundamental has changed. His soul, as a content of this body, has migrated by feeling good in exile, away from the ordinary and completele astrange that surrounds the hero of the tales. The balance between the borrowed content and the hollow form, almost sterile, in search of the necessary reconnection to a new core of the human being, has been wrecked. We beright Martin Camaj when he asserted that Kuteli "is still undiscovered"; we have much to learn by this noteworthy writer.

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Teacher Training on Classroom Management and Conflict Resolution

Venera Këndusi

Albanian Faculty of Education

University of Gjakova

Gjakova, Kosova

veneravala@hotmail.com

Abstract

This paper includes main criteria on dealing with classroom management and conflict resolution, attributes that any teacher must have and apply. To be a good teacher not only in terms of subject content competence, teachers have to plan and organize, set the rules and procedures to face different and unpredictable situations that can occur in the classroom. To comply and accomplish goals and objectives in teaching and learning, teachers should create a good working atmosphere in their classrooms. Order and discipline in classroom plays a very important role for an effective teaching. In addition, the paper will deal with unpleasant behaviour and problems arising by weak classroom management and teacher skills in preventing them. The aim of it is presenting the importance of creating a positive climate in the classroom, cultivating habits for common work, identifying problems and working together on finding a solution.

Keywords: Teacher, classroom management, teacher training, order, positive climate.

Introduction

Classroom management represents the process of organizing and leading, aiming on achieving teaching objectives. The goal for classroom management mainly has to do with effective teaching time management - it has to be focused in teaching and learning rather than lateral issues.

Classroom management is a very difficult and complicated process, but when done correctly, the effort and endeavour is worth it. It allows teaching strategies to be drafted freely, also improves classroom ethics, group compactness and students motivation, giving a right direction to student efforts to obtain new knowledge (Bojaxhi, 2004).

Classroom management stands on respect for student that can be obtained by treating students fairly and honestly. Indifferent teachers, in most of the cases protect students even though they are not heading in the right direction. Trying to set a positive climate in classroom, the first thing to be done is know your students as individuals as soon as possible and as best as you can. Having in mind that in the classroom there are different students, coming from different families, teachers should have skills to create the feeling of cooperation in between children, prevent and resolve situations whenever necessary, intermediate and arbitrate in relation to them or the various problems inside and outside teaching process. The problem might be a challenge but not an obstacle. Problems in teaching process are an inherent factor since we are part of day to day process and within various situations various and unexpected problems can appear. Often, different problematic situations are those that disclose what student need, their requests, worries, wishes as well as skills, directions, competences, intelligence and their personality.

A teacher has a great influence in classroom management. An effective teaching is closely related to classroom management. Hence the efficient teacher who is aware of methods and ways of working, teaching strategies and techniques, motivation for students, their assessment is the teacher who is competent in classroom management also. In classroom management we can include creation of a positive climate in classroom. Classroom teacher has a decisive role in creating a positive climate, his professional abilities and skills to create a positive environment in a classroom. Classroom environment created by teacher can influence student motivation, thereby reflecting in their active attitude toward learning. Exactly that environment represents what is called "classroom climate". (Musai, 2003).

Teacher should have skills for organizing a physical environment for students, that impacts inclusion and participation of all students in classroom organised activities. Another factor influencing is student's motivation, being an incentive to

student's activities, their interest and willingness. So motivation is a process initiated by teacher and stimulates interest on certain issues using creativity, incentive, attention, gratitude and compliments.

It is important to set up rules in a classroom. For the rules to be acknowledged and applied, it is preferable that teachers and students together decide on them in the beginning of school year. Student participation in setting up the rules makes it easier for students to memorise and implement them. Classroom rules should be repeated several times and if necessary improvements might be done, or addition rules added if appropriate. In addition, it is better to write down these rules and have them in a board where any student can see and read them and the parents have to be aware of them, too. Setting up rules and discipline in a classroom results in a better classroom organization and management, in a better cooperation and communication in between students, teachers and parents. Rules can help preventing unpleasant behaviour, conflicts and problems that might come up in the classroom.

Conflicts and problems present in a classroom result from student socio economic situation, emotional problems, weak cooperation and communication in between students them self, teacher professional competences, teacher communication skills, teaching program quality, regular cooperation in between teacher and parents.

It is the duty of teachers to prevent and solve the conflicts, as part of classroom management, creation of a positive climate in classroom. This is the reason why parent's inclusion in education is indispensable. By including parents in education we understand information on issues affecting children life, different ways of supporting children at school, hence it is the key to help children become successful. (Karaj, 2008)

Accepting the view that a child comes in this world as a fragile human been, lays down many duties and responsibility ahead, whose initial ground must be a sound ethical-educational upbringing. It is the duty of teachers to cultivate on them courtesy, discipline, commitment to work, humanity, solidarity, cooperation, etc. Only then, there is assurance that we can expect much more favourable result in any field in the future, preventing bad and malicious habits through rules of courtesy, tolerance and mutual understanding.

Children social and ethical development also is a duty of a teacher. Children ethical education does not depend only on individual predispositions but teacher skills and educational - teaching syllabus as well. Teachers should cultivate in students the feeling of love toward parents, family, country, develop sense of friendship and society and sense of cooperation and mutual assistance, develop elementary working and cultural habits and develop positive features of willingness and character (Veseli, 2005).

The process of teaching habits to children is done through concrete channels, day to day life events, unconscious imitation and positive stimulation and motivation for building up healthy habits and morally desirable behaviour.

It takes years for a child to learn and embrace ethical norms in the life cycle. All the habits, that can take form latter on in a child, are learnt through his experience in different life situations. Through experience he learns that some behaviour are "good" while some others are "bad". The role of a teacher in these circumstances is very important, because we have to influence in real situations using adequate strategy in developing and complementing good behaviour, and suppressing or interrupting bad behaviour.

Cooperation in solving problems has a central role in social and cognitive development of children. Common activities of children with other children of their age play an efficient role in enhancing their knowledge and obtaining different experiences. While interacting with other children of their own age they learn new skills, motivate each other to face challenging situations and help each other in practising skills they possess. A special type of solving problems is through interaction and cooperation, where teachers should stimulate children to interact, change behaviour and processes and inspire cooperation. That can especially be achieved through games. When two children work on solving a problem they show up their individuality, exchange experiences and increase level of confidentiality and socialisation (Karaj. 2005).

Research methodology

Main goal of this research is evidencing the actual state of classroom management by teachers in primary schools in Gjakova, keeping in mind academic aspect, relationship with students and parent. This research provides a very good opportunity to understand teacher's professional skills in managing classroom and preventing conflicts and problems in classroom.

Research methods and techniques:

To conduct research and study the issue the following research methods are used:

- Theoretical analyses method
- Verbal method
- Descriptive method

Sample:

The nature of the research itself imposes a small number of respondents. Research is conducted with teachers of primary schools in Gjakova.

The interview is used to come up with as many data as possible and creating facilities for respondents to answer the questions.

Research is done with 5 teachers from primary school "KelmendRizvanolli" in Gjakova.

Teacher age: 35- 45 years old

Gender: Female

Working experience: 10-20 years of work

Following are the results from the research:

Some of the questions asked

1. Is classroom management one of the major worries for teachers?

"I believe good classroom management is one of the most difficult tasks of teaching"

"Teacher has several important tasks in teaching process, one of them in good classroom management"

"Classroom management means a lot to a teacher because management problems include creation and maintainance of a positive climate in classroom, resulting in effective learning"

2. Do you set up rules in classroom?

"We set up classroom rules in the beginning of school year together with students"

"Yes, we set up the rules together with students and the parents are informed on these rules as well"

3. Do students always implement those rules or it happens that you face problems and conflicts in classroom?

"Sometimes happens that some of the students do not apply the rules and we have problems"

"It often happens that rules are not adhered and mostly there are teasing and hold backs in work of other students."

"It happens to have problems in classroom and conflicts of low degree, but I try to prevent these problems"

4. Have you participated in any program of professional training dealing with classroom management or help in resolving problems and conflicts in classroom?

"No I haven't been part of any special program on classroom management"

"Some of the trainings I attended included some lectures on resolving problems in classroom, but I haven't been part of such a special designed training on classroom management"

"I attended the training on Children Rights; I haven't had the chance to attend any other specific training on classroom management"

Conclusions and recommendation

Teachers face different difficulties during teaching process. One of them is classroom management, creating a positive climate in classroom, order and discipline in classroom. A teacher should possess organisational skills, be prepared on professional, methodical and didactic aspects.

Hence we recommend deeper research and analyses on identifying weaknesses in classroom management, have regular cooperation in between teachers and parents, teachers should be aware of their students skills, knowledge, social, economic and emotional state. Ministry of Education and school should organize programs on professional training and development of teachers so they could be more familiar with classroom management, trainings for teachers on issues that are related directly to children psychology.

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Albania's private school teachers and their stresses

Alma Vögeli

Abstract

Education at private school experienced a new development after 90s as it was considered a prohibited phenomenon for approximately 50 years in Albania. This education model challenged not only the novice teachers but the more experienced ones as well. Teachers were faced with performance challenges either while with their students (in this case being the finance provider), also in front of their school leaders and educational authorities, such as Educational Directorates, who demanded standards and requirements to be accomplished by schools as well as respectively by them. While in the process of teaching an anxious teaching has some negative effects for its performance. There are some considerable evidences (Parsons, 1973, b) that anxiety can hinder the multitask performance. According to Bernstein (1983: 5), the teaching anxiety can hinder the teaching efficiency in the class, including the best or talented ones. But the teaching anxiety is not identified as disorder in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders published by the American Psychiatric Association. The expose before the class, public speech before the class and parents alike at open meetings causes stress to novice teachers but it is also a challenge for the more experiences ones when there are challenging students with a developed intelligence in the class, as well as facing parents who require high standards for their children and their children's teachers. There are three aspects as a source of anxiety during teaching experiences: 1) Activities related to teaching prearrangement, 2) In front of students (teaching process) and 3) class placement interaction. (Gardner and Leak (1994). As a conclusion of this study it can be stated that anxiety is "a normal part of teacher's development and for this reason it is accepted as a natural element of transition from a novice teacher to a more qualified." (Harvey). The teaching anxiety, i defined as a transitional characteristic of teaching situation. It is an emotional form that is subject to change in its intensity and may disappear over growing experience.

Keywords: Anxiety, Concern, Teaching, Experience, Students, Teaching Stress

Teachers and stresses in the private school in Albania

Private schools as a prohibited phenomenon for 50 years in Albania, which was developed after the 90s, challenged not only the teachers and new educators, but also the experienced ones on the state education system.

On one side, the private schools served to open new jobs places for many teachers and their performance's challenges were increased either while with their students (in this case being the finance provider), also in front of their school leaders and educational authorities, such as Educational Directorates, who demanded standards and requirements to be accomplished by schools as well as respectively by them.

With all these requirements and challenges, the schoolteachers face stress and anxiety during their profession of teaching. These stressors were transformed over the years: from the fear of committing a political mistake while in the communist doctrine, to the new performance stressors with the new requirements of the education system after the 90s. One of the teachers' stressors inside the education institutions is the personal Anxiety.

Anxiety is viewed "as a normal part of teacher development and therefore accepted as a natural element of the transition from novice to qualified teacher" (Harvey etc. 2000). Studies have shown that teachers after starting their job go through some phases on their professional development and concerns start to arise while in the process. (Fuller, 1969; Maynard and Furlong, 1993). According to Coates and Thoresen (1976:7), novice teachers report anxiety and concerns related to: a) their ability to keep the discipline on the class, b) if their students will like them, c) their knowledge about subjects and themes, d) their response if they do something by mistake or if they teach outside the specified material, e) how will they show their personality in front of others, in this case being the members of their faculty, school, parents, experienced teachers etc. The anxiety's resources are connected to: 1) requirement for more time (lack of time). Often the time spent does not fit to the financial compensation, 2) Struggle with students who are less adaptive than others, 3) the larger class with more than 32 students who should be managed by one teacher either in the primary classes or up to the high school, 4) didactic suitable materials limitation or their difficult management for various reasons such as the teaching set up, personal ability earned up until that moment etc.

Thus, the nature of concerns of novice teachers as they start their profession is different from that of more experienced teachers.

Fuller (1969) have conceptualized the teacher's concerns as progressive development, by defining them as perceived problems or concerns. According to them the concerns of candidate teachers involve a wide range. In 1975 Fuller and Bown elaborated the Concerns Theory of 1969. They identified three phases of concerns that teacher experience on their development: 1) concern about themselves (confrontation and survival in the teaching environment, e.g. ability to manage the class, gaining the sympathy of students, finding one's place within the school's structure, understanding the expectations of the director, parents while being monitored and evaluated), 2) duty concerns (the mastering routine, tasks and everyday teachings, more involvement with the students, lack of didactic materials and time pressures), 3) concerns about their state of influence (concerns about their students' understanding of their teaching, their progress and ways they can further improve the actual progress, e.g. by understanding the social and emotional needs of the students, by being fair with each single one of them, by acknowledging the effect of teaching for individual students and by being able to individualize the teaching by content selection as well as increase the intellectual and emotional growth based on the learning and student's motivation struggles. These concerns develop into progressive phases and are changes from concerns about oneself to concerns about a teacher's influence to its student. They later have concerns about their survival, such as inefficiency as teachers, their position in the class and their ability to maintain discipline. This is not up until the final phase, since at this phase their concern is focused on their student's achievements (Fuller, 1969; Coates & Thoresen, 1976).

Other authors, Maynard and Furlong (1993), identified five phases of teachers' development: 1) early idealization, occurring before the start of school experience, 2) the survival, which appears after the novice teachers start their school experience. At this phase the class's reality replaces the previous idealization. The main focus becomes the class's control and management, school adaption and being shaped as a teacher, 3) the acknowledgement of difficulties, which occurs after the novice teachers survive the primary adaption of teaching realities. They become aware and sensible toward various tasks given to them. They often think on evaluating their way of teaching and ask themselves whether they will be appreciated, thus they want to perform a good teaching. This fact makes them focus on teaching manuals and methods, 4) after teachers have learned how to manage their classes and after they've identified what should and should not be done in the class. In this phase they often experience problems and their focus on the students' needs replaces focus on themselves and 5) the movement, which occurs when students can make this change and for this reason they can focus on the students' needs and experiment with their teaching.

Thus, the teacher's concerns before the start of their profession develop progressively into different phases of development. In general, concerns tend to focus into the class' management and organization, to later move on to the direction of pedagogy and subject, and in the end return to the students learning and academic duties (Lidstone and Hollingsworth, 1990). Among the identified concerns it is pretended that the survival issues show up before the teaching concerns and they belong to the process of becoming whole as a teacher, class management, mastering the appropriate and sufficient knowledge and fulfilling the expectations of parents and supervisors.

Maynard and Furlong (1993) likewise Fuller and Bown (1975) suggested that development is sequential, thus teachers go through concerns or development states before they are willing to face the next concern or development phase. Other studies have agreed with the fact that concerns arise during their development as teachers. The study of Richards and Gipe (1987) on "Reflective Concerns of Prospective Teachers in an Early Field Placement" supported Fuller's researches. Richards and Gipe found out that Most of the statements written at the very beginning of the semester reflected concerns with self-adequacies. At the beginning of development phase, the teachers concerns were mainly for survival and self-oriented. Most of the statements written near the semester's end reflected concerns for students and for the teaching profession.

Guillaume and Rudney (1993) identified a wide range of concerns which they grouped into six broad categories: lesson planning and evaluation; discipline; working with pupils; working with co-operating teachers and adjusting to their classrooms; working with others in the profession and transitions from student to professional teacher. The nature of the concerns and the emphasis within each category was found to shift as students developed towards independence, changing from the role of student to taking on the role of the teacher, e.g. students' views of lesson planning and of evaluation changed from a narrow to a broader focus, suggesting an expansion in thinking; students' concerns about discipline changed from focusing on using specific techniques to building a relationship with their pupils based on legitimate authority. Guillaume and Rudney (1993) suggested that a) students hold different concerns at the same time, b) there is a

change in nature of concerns over time in their development from students to teacher, c) although students develop over the course of their initial teacher education course, their concerns are not sequential. Students become more concerned in regards to various aspects of their way of being taught. (Guillaume and Rudney, 1993)

In some studies it is embraced the idea that teaching concerns arise consecutively in some development phases, whereas in some other studies it is reasoned that the appearance of concern in teachers prior to the start of their profession is complex and cannot be reduced to a linear progression. (Bullough, 1997). The study of Pigge & Marso (1987) shows a small support of the sequence of changes' development of concerns defined by Fuller.

Children's and adult's stress and its symptoms

Either adults or children are stress victims, and it come and goes invisibly. Nowadays the rhythm of life is fast and changes are happen frequently and quickly. There are various factors increasing stress in childhood. David Elkind, author of "The Hurried Child" supports the idea that stress is inherent in life. He adds that one of the most important factors of stress to children is the hurry to get ready, to go from a place to the other, reach success and grow. Worries and concerns arising within the family in the cases of death, divorce, health problems, tension and fight cause fear, anxiety, and affective tension and contribute to a chronic stress.

According to Harold Minden, Psych Professor and specialist in the stress area, stress can damage physical, affective, social, intellectual well-being and the school performance in childhood. It can influence motivation, concentration, perception, memory and the process of learning. Each child reacts toward stress on its own way. As adult alike the child has various capacities to tame this phenomenon. Besides, a stress source for a child may be different from another.

Some of the stress symptoms in children or even in the adults who have to share their speech publicly or give a presentation for their enterprise are:

1. Continuous Neck pain, headache, abdominal pain
2. Irritation, desperation, increasing anger
3. Unusual calmness
4. Difficulty in sleeping or relaxing
5. Hibernation, dreams, absence in various activities
6. Hyper energy or nervousness, hands or body shaking or frown
7. Difficulty in understanding friends

Even though the above symptoms are mentioned for children, the adults have the same symptoms but which seem more camouflaged.

Anxiety is one of the common human states that we all face one moment or another, or in various situations. Fears and concerns are common in each one of us and this is a normal part of human development. Some people experience anxiety about events or things unnecessarily more than others. Even though psychologists or other professionals of the field try to give an explanation to the fact that why people experience more fears and anxiety than others, by orienting to people's childhood or request of performance, their studies often remain with unconvincing answers.

Physical symptoms of anxiety are present in every fear or provocation situation. These symptoms may include: frequent or abnormal heartbeats, sweating, shaking, a feeling of breathing constriction, a feeling of chocking, chest pain, discomfort, abdominal pain or nausea, dizziness, feeling of insecurity, faint, numbness, pins and needles, fever or high temperature. (American Psychiatric Society 2000: 432). Anxiety is related to the severity of threat (Keavney and Sinclair, 1978). In the education context, anxiety may be the reaction of a teacher toward what he perceps it as a threatening or unmanageable environment.

Sigmund Freud has been accepted in general as the first psychoanalyst who made efforts in explaining the meaning of anxiety in the context of psychological theory. Freud (1936), considered anxiety as the "feeling of something", an unpleasing emotional state followed by physiological conditions such as: frequent heart beatings, nausea, muscle tension, dizziness and breathing difficulties. According to him, the experienced anxiety from normal people was qualitatively different from the neurosis anxiety. The everyday life anxiety, which he called the "realistic" or "objective" anxiety" refers to certain objects out in the real world and is a synonym of what is usually known as fear.

Sarason (1986) defines anxiety as: "disturbing concern due to approaching events" (pg 21). He has defined the anxiety reaction characteristics and situations it is experienced:

1. Situation considered as difficult, challenging and threatening.
2. Individual sees himself as inadequate in treatment or inappropriate.
3. Individual focuses in unpleasant consequences or personal incapability.
4. Individual competes in activities of important cognitive tasks.
5. Individual expects and predicts failure or loss related to others.

Teaching Anxiety

During my experience in institutions and private schools, I can clearly notice that novice teachers or educators who just came out of classes and have an image on their own about how the school, class or even the students should be. It is not easy for them to adapt with situations that come out of the schemes that they have projected on their minds. Also the non management or fear of failing makes them even more stressful and their anxiety level within them starts to increase, even when the situations are easy for someone else or for someone with more experience in the profession.

Sinclair pretends that the stimulating situations, who cause anxiety reactions, are supposed to be such when the individual predicts a strong threat, in regards to his self-respect... the anxiety reactions are like a signal to get the two answers: important ... and not important either for the learning or task performance. It is stated that the answers for important tasks are accompanied with an increase of efforts; concentration and procedural strategies, previously found for the ease of learning and diminish anxiety. Whereas the answers of the not important task relate to failing consequences, or the absorption of self-underestimation and protective ego, avoiding projected answers and to protect the individual from loosing respect.

The answers of important tasks compete those of not important ones and typically have an effective intervention in learning and performance. (pg 97-98). The teaching anxiety is defined as a transitional characteristic of teaching situation. It is an emotional form that may change its intensity and disappear with the experience (Williams, 1991). This emotional form of anxiety is related with each aspect of what the teacher does in class, as well as with other school activities. Gardner and Leak (1994) indentified the teaching anxiety too as anxiety experienced with teaching activities and that has to do with the preparation and activities in the class (pg.28). They supported the teaching anxiety definition in the Bernstein work (1983), who wrote a classic essay exploring in his experience of teaching anxiety. Bernstein emphasized that during the experience of teaching anxiety there are three components: physiologic awakening, subjective concerns and behavior division (pg.5). These are known and common components that are related to anxiety in general. (Bernstein, 1983).

The teaching anxiety is not identified as a disorder in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders of the Psychiatric American Society. Such disorders are classified as anxiety disorders: panic disorder, post traumatic stress disorder, Stress acute disorder, anxiety disorders related to conditions of certain physical or health problems, anxiety disorders. (Psychiatric American Society, 2000)

Coates and Thoresen (1976: 17), presented a summary of the teaching anxiety literature and offered a general view of the teaching anxiety stating:

Even the more experienced teachers have experienced anxiety and fear in front of their class (Ford, 1993). many teachers write words of concern: "I am not doing it right", "I am not effective", "I have a lack of time to do my job right", I show "limited productivity" and "I do not have a qualitative time to make a positive impact to the students. (Hargreaves, 2003). They admit the existence of "less effective instructions", dissatisfaction in having "a little time for themselves" and "a little time for their students" or "helping students in need". Hargreaves emphasizes that "keeping high standards in class as a teacher with little time ... to prepare, becomes a great source of anxiety" (pg.144). Reactions to various concerns can be in the function of variables such as: personality, gender and culture.

According to Morton (1997), "students to teacher in one place can differently percept the concerns from students to teacher of another place. Also "students to male teachers react differently toward the specific concerns of teaching experience of female students." (pg.70)

Some Anxiety Effects

Teaching anxiety is specific to teaching task (Keavney and Sinclair, 1978) and the anxious teacher's efficiency is affected. There are considerable evidences (Parsons, 1973, b), that anxiety can hinder the multitask performance. According to Bernstein (1983: 5), the teaching anxiety can hinder the teacher's efficiency in the class, including those who are the best and more talented ones.

The exposure in front of the class, public speech either in front of the class or in front of the parents in open meetings, causes them stress and it has anxiety consequences for the novice teachers, but it is also a challenge for the more experienced ones, when in the class there are challenging students who have a developed intelligence as well as confronting parents who have high demands for their children and their teachers.

The exposure in front of the class (Fraher, 1984) is the beginning of a new way, with mysteries involving communication contrary to the actual knowledge possession. When an individual speaks in public is exposed to other people's judging. The situations in which someone feels judged by others can cause negative feelings. The fear of speaking in public is considered as an important source of anxiety (Cano-Vindel and Miguel-Tobal 1999). Bodie (2010) argues that "the public speaking competence is key factor for student's success inside and outside class" and that public speaking is "a necessary part of job responsibilities" (pg.71).

He then further explained some specifics of teaching anxiety, that result into a lack of efficiency in the class, problems that can be attributed to teaching anxiety:

1. Inability of clear thinking (being confused, or taking too long to give answers.)
2. Continuous negative interactions with students (sarcasm toward the students' questions, inappropriate comments or negative observations at students' abilities, interests and motivations).
3. Practicing models and avoidance tactics (inappropriate job schedule by being "too busy" to talk to students after the class, lack of preparation)
4. Building "too soft" or "too harsh" relationships with students (insisting on demanding respect from students, a clear effort to have students at one's favor by means of simple exams, expression of lack of interest regarding scores).
5. The exposure of "multiple personality" (reasonable type of person, calm, relaxed and compassionate in most of the cases, but defensive hostile and tough in the class).
6. Showing distrustful thinking (the idea that students have fun in making me look stupid)

In their study, Keavney and Sinclair (1978) emphasize that teaching anxiety can negatively affect the survival of the teaching profession, in their emotional impact, in their approach and the styles of dealing with it.

⇒ In the survival conditions of teaching profession, teachers who drew from teaching were characterized by anxiety. Thus, many other teachers who had not started their profession yet, experienced anxiety, did not continue their teaching career, after finishing their teacher trainings.

⇒ In the teaching conditions, the emotional impact of the anxiety can affect the class atmosphere, reducing the students' learning motivation, the creation of warm relationships and verbal support between teachers and students. On the other side, this may increase the students' anxiety resulting in hostility between students and teachers.

⇒ The study found out that there has been a negative relationship between teaching anxiety and students' achievements.

According to Ameen etc (2002) teaching anxiety can negatively affect the teachers: unpleasant situations at work and career, difficulty in responding to protective teaching measurements and the development of a certain personality in the class in which the teachers seem cold or soft and are distrustful about the student's motives and objectives. Instructors suffering from teaching anxiety, try to develop a specific teaching personality (Bernstein, 1983). Coates and Thoresen (1976) have reported a strong positive correlation between the teacher and students' stress. If the students see their teacher concerned, a negative influence on their behavior may occur. The increase of negative influence can attribute to an increase anxiety level at the teachers. This mutual transfer has its effect among students and their teacher, by creating unbalanced dynamics in the class.

Causes of teaching anxiety

There have been quantitative and qualitative studies (Gardner and Leak, 1994; Morton etj., 1997; Sorenson and Halpert, 1968) based on surveys, observations and professional considerations to define the factors influencing the birth of anxiety

to students during teaching in real class situation. These studies emphasize that high level of anxiety during teaching of students for teachers, is a common phenomenon and anxiety is related to various teaching aspects.

On their study, Gardner and Leak (1994), suggested three aspects which can be a source of anxiety during teaching experiences: 1) Activities on teaching preparations, 2) Coming in front of students (teaching process) and 3) class placement interaction. According to them the intensity of the anxiety of surveyed individuals "is positively connected to some situation variables, such as teaching from unknown materials. [...] students who bring new facts [...], and when they have negative experiences with a certain class.

Morton etc. (1997) used Hart's Student Teacher Anxiety Scale –STAS for their study, which produced four anxiety factors on its factorial analysis which were named: evaluation anxiety, pedagogic anxiety, class management anxiety and staff relationship anxiety.

On the study performed by Sorenson and Halpert (1968), there were five identified factors that were contributing to the teaching anxiety: 1) nervousness, 2) insecurity characterized by the personal inadequacy feeling, 3) disagreements especially to cooperate with teachers, 4) changes of personalities between students and teachers, 5) problems with discipline and being liked by students (pg. 30-31)

Supervisors / Teachers' observation and Evaluation Anxiety

The anxiety caused by being observed it refers to the observation of lector or teacher who is the supervisor. On his study Capel (1997) used the Hart questionnaire with a team of students from south England and found out that the main cause of stress at the students was evaluation and observation. Students for teachers often complained that they would forget the contents and that they would feel nervous when the teacher sat in the back of the class and watched over them. The "doing things right" pressure, as well as class management made them tense and concerned during teaching. The most difficult occurrences of the teaching experiences were remarks and evaluations performed by the University's supervisors, whereas the less tense experiences include the general interactions with the school personnel. Some students are able to overcome this state in one or two days, but for others this served as a barrier to gain full self confidence. (Capel, 1997).

During the experiences in the field it has been noted that the majority of students for teachers are concerned regarding evaluation (Capel, 1997, Morton etc. 1997). The evaluation by supervisors / teachers is a concerning issue for students for teachers and is called "Evaluation Anxiety". Gabriel (1957) in his study "An analysis on emotional problems of teachers in the class" came out with the conclusion that teaching anxiety is connected to the evaluation of inspectors.

The conclusions from the observations in the field, as well as previous studies on this matter, show us that stressors of novice teachers are more noticeable due to little experience or the unprocessed theoretic image and not adapting to practice. Over the years this image changes even though it shows up while being audited by the Education Directorates of respective districts. The desire to always show the positive and stronger side, makes the teachers sensible to expose that other side which is less positive and as result they are accompanied by the fears of challenge and failures.

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Deconstructing the Organizational Reality - A Constructivist Perspective

Alina Ionela Bădescu, Ph D

The Romanian Academy, Postdoctoral Fellow¹

postdoc.sociologie@gmail.com

Abstract

The main purpose of this paper is to advance a revisited theoretical version on the business organizational reality. The new organizational scientists ceased to present the organizational business reality as a given one opting in favor of a constructivist perspective. Management and leadership key theorists like Michael Porter, Henry Mintzberg, Steve Jobs, Richard Bronson, Charles Handy, Peter Drucker, have gone beyond the mere representational knowledge of business environment, considering that business reality is being continually constructed and reconstructed. As pioneers in the science of strategic management and as well as innovators, they are followed by a vast array of organizations' leaders all over the world, all of them being interested in the methods of optimizing business reality as planning, strategic methods and techniques etc. Planning, among such procedures, is meant to re-creating the business environment in the benefit of the organisation. We shall attempt not only to make an inventory of the new topic but also to rethink some of the classical concept like those of planning and strategy related to our own field of interest: the dualist perspective on the business organizational growth. Our own approach might be integrated therefore in what we are allowed to announce as being a dualist perspective. The organizational reality of business appears to be a strategized reality so that the planning act is the main dimension of the reconstructed business reality.

Key words: duality of planning, "constructed reality", logic of managerial discourse, strategized reality

Introduction

The first purpose of our present paper is to review the studies on the process of construction and reconstruction of business organizational reality. Aiming at such an objective we are requested to make a re-examination of the literature on planning in organisations and therefore on the most cited authors and works in management. This approach opens up a vast array of perspectives, the so-called "*Schools of Strategy Theories*" and one of our tasks is to review these Schools of thinking in order to enlighten the deep paradigm that makes possible to unify such a theoretical diversity. Our approach starts with reconsidering those concepts regarded as key-concepts in the field. *Planning* and *strategy* are such key-concepts and we should proceed further on the way towards making a re-examination of their meanings within such a new approach. The issue is the more relevant as in the recent periods of time, the scientists as well as managers have started to consider that planning is not merely a subjective act but also a competing process that open a front stage where different stakeholders competitively interact in a continuous organizational reconstruction of business reality.

Firstly, let's make some brief considerations on what we meant by duality of planning knowing that the competition between different stakeholders appears to be rooted in the very duality of the planning act. In organizations, *planning* is a process, concerned with setting objectives and with the activities required to accomplish such objectives. There are two types of planning in organizations: *business planning* and *strategic planning*. The business planning is more concerned with setting

¹ E-mail: postdoc.sociologie@gmail.com Alina Ionela Bădescu is Postdoctoral fellow, the Romanian Academy, within a research project financed from the European Social Fund and by the Romanian Government under the contract number (SOP HRD/159/1.5/S/136077). She earned her doctoral degree in Sociology at the University of Bucharest in 2012. She is, also, a researcher at the European Center for Ethnic Studies, the Romanian Academy. She graduated the Faculty of Sociology and Social Assistance, University of Bucharest. She earned her MBA Degree at UNESCO - Department of Intercultural and Inter-religious Studies, University of Bucharest. She completed an academic program on Management Issues in Education at Faculty of Education, University of Cambridge.

short-term objectives and such type of planning is rather focused on the financial issues of the enterprise. The main difference between a business plan and a strategic plan is that “a business plan is an externally focused document that provides more detailed information on the proposed development of an organization, and is likely to be shared with potential investors - funding bodies for the voluntary and community sector.”¹

“A strategic plan can provide a basis for more detailed planning including business plans, marketing strategies and funding strategies.”²

The business plan is often *embedded* in the strategic plan. For instance, a significant part of the business plan might be included as an *audit of resources* within the strategic plan.

There is a dual perspective on planning in organizations, as various stakeholders might be interested in different aspects of the organizations. When the financial information is more important, then the decision makers might decide to write a business plan which is more operationally in its nature. The financial information prevails when banks become significant stakeholders of the organization. Some stakeholders might be interested on certain aspects of the organization as in the case of banks and, consequently, the management should present a well-conceived plan. Such plans might become part of the overarching strategic plan. The duality rests on the assumption that the business plan concerning the financial issues could be operational in the same time with the strategic plan.

An inner-outer approach on business planning along with the bivalent nature of strategy processes represents other facets of the *duality*.

A “concentric” perspective on strategic planning

There are several perspectives on strategic planning in organizations and often they collide each other. The classical approach to strategic planning appears to be one of the four perspectives emphasized by Whittington’s work (2000). In the view of classical approach the decision maker is taking the centre stage of the organizational arena, while in the case of evolutionary and processual perspectives the privileged position of the decision maker (manager) is stripped away and managerial team is the one taking the centre stage. The systemic approach tries to assign various perspectives to different contexts (e.g. a Western view etc.). The relationship between the systemic perspective as evidenced by Whittington and the *10 Schools of strategy theories* (See Table 1) is based on the idea that the theories on strategy can be grouped according to a set of specific historical, social and cultural context. A multi-perspective on strategic planning, as the one evidenced in the *10 Schools of strategy theories*, might change according to the new set of systemic conditionalities:

“The ‘rationality’ of a particular strategy depends on its specific historical, social and cultural context. Strategic behaviour is ‘embedded’ in a network of social relations that includes cultural norms, class and educational background, religion and so on. Hence what is labelled as ‘irrational’ behaviour in one context may be perfectly rational in another.” (Mazzucato, 2002, p. 9)

We may call the network of social relations that embeds a certain strategic behaviour as the inner circle of strategy. Our research question is whether we should consider the inner circle of strategy (i.e. the strategic behaviour as being “embedded” in the context) as the main determinant of our dual assumption or considers it as subalternized to an outer perspective induced by the different circumstances of the environment. Is the strategic behaviour able to induce a new type of reality, based on the strategy’s “rationality”? We assert that the management of the organization can have the power to transform the reality, i.e. to transform the environment based on “the “rationality” of a particular strategy (...)”. (Mazzucato, 2002, p. 9)

The novelty of our theoretical approach rests on the idea that the strategy is more than a pre-determined set of conditionalities. The strategy is able to pervade the environment with its “rationality”, re-creating the reality through a complex, unperceived phenomenon of diffusing the unique capabilities beyond the perceived phenomenon of re-allocation

¹ *Approaches to Strategic Planning*, Source: <http://goo.gl/l3eL2d>

² *Ibidem*

of resources. The division between perceived resources and the un-perceived unique organizational capabilities leads us towards a fundamental dichotomy in the science of strategic management. Discovering, exploiting and retaining the unique organizational capabilities are critical success factors for any organization. The rationality of the strategy in organizations rests on such capabilities.

Schools of Strategy Theories

Circumscribing our central theme (i.e. planning in organisations) by the idea of strategizing in a business environment provides, actually, not only the rationale for increased awareness of strategic planning but, also, further methodological guidance. The *10 Schools of Strategy Theories* can be considered as different ways of decomposing and recomposing a business environment. Therefore we are requested to make a brief review on the literature on planning in organisations by examining the most cited authors and works in management. This approach opens up a vast array of perspectives or so-called "*Schools of Strategy Theories*" as evidenced by Cherp et al. (2007), Mintzberg et al. (1998, 2003) and Ebner (2014).

The 10 Schools of Strategy Theories	
Design school	Strategy formation as a process of conception. Strategy is a unique planned perspective conceived by senior leadership based on an ad hoc analysis of external and internal factors.
Planning school	Strategy formation as a formal process. Strategies are plans decomposed into programs resulting from formal planning procedures.
Positioning school	Strategy formation as an analytical process. Strategies are planned generic positions but also ploys to defeat competitors. Positions are based on detailed analysis of markets and industry structures. Highly integrated corporate activity systems support focus on selected positions.
Entrepreneurial school	Strategy formation as a visionary process. Strategies are personal perspectives of visionary leaders conceived largely intuitively and adjusted when necessary.
Cognitive school	Strategy formation as a mental process. Strategies are mental perspectives reflecting 'constructed reality' in leaders' minds.
Learning school	Strategy formation as an emergent process. Strategies are unique patterns, constantly evolving as a result of learning by leaders and others in an organization.
Power school	Strategy formation as a process of negotiation. Strategies are political patterns and positions as well as ploys. The micro-power school emphasizes internal politics as the basis for a strategy. The macro-power school considers strategy as a negotiated position and a ploy to defeat competitors.
Cultural school	Strategy formation as a collective process. Strategies are collective perspectives reflecting dominant ideologies, collective cognitive maps and narratives.
Environmental school	Strategy formation as a reactive process. Strategies are specific positions (ecological niches) developed as a result of evolutionary adaptations of organizations to ever changing and uncontrollable external circumstances.
Configuration school	Strategy formation as a process of transformation. Strategies can be formed by different processes depending upon the internal and external context (or stage in an organization's evolution).

Table 1: 10 Schools of Strategy Theories

Source: Cherp et al., 2007; Mintzberg et al., 1998; Mintzberg et al., 2003

Most of the 10 *Schools of Strategy Theories* can be unified using the processual perspective.

The stages of the strategic process involve a mixture of perspectives assigned to different schools of thought. For instance, the *Design school* based on a process of conception requires leadership capabilities so that inferences from the field of organizational behavior might be required. The *Planning school* indicates a certain degree of formalization that might take the form of budgeting or monitoring the execution of strategy based on a set of pre-defined indicators. Translating strategy into action requires a *business model* based on such indicators. The Balanced Scorecard is more than a method or, at least, should be regarded as an ideal type of strategic planning in organisations. Such a deterministic perspective on a strategy-focused organisation requires highly integrated corporate activity systems based on a combination of methods (e.g. Balanced Scorecard) and ways of constructing the reality, leading us towards the consideration of one school of thought or another or a combination of so-called “intellectual traditions”.

The Entrepreneurial school has to do more with the leadership capabilities required for articulating a vision of the enterprise. Such capabilities imply a mental perspective as a true leader makes decisions based on an optimal mix between a “constructed reality” and “formal planning procedures”.

The Learning school emphasizes the uniqueness of the strategy formation as an emergent process. The leadership capabilities confer the uniqueness of the strategy as a critical success factor. Concepts like *core competences* or *unique organizational capabilities* have become key terms in the study of strategic management. Such concepts enable users to go beyond their own conceptual system, creating logic of managerial discourse based on their own representation of realities. Moreover, the managers have the power to influence the reality according to their own representation.

Strategic planning is an example of a “constructed reality” circumscribing the logic of managerial discourse or the new managerialism.

The 10 *Schools of Strategy Theories* are various representations of the re-created reality according to the needs of the organisation. The competitive advantage of one organisation or another within a certain business environment depends on the ability of appropriating resources existing in the environment. The concept of appropriation in economics denotes “non-violent process by which previously un-owned natural resources, particularly land, become the property of a person or group of persons.”¹ We would rather use the concept of pseudo-appropriation and, consequently, depart from the conceptual framework used in economics. In a classical manner, the appropriation refers to previously un-owned resources while our concept of pseudo-appropriation takes into account un-discovered special type of resources, also, called “core competences”. Such new type of resources (i.e. “core competence”²) is critical to the success of organizations within the logic of strategic process. Achieving competitive advantage depends on organizational ability to discover, use and retain such critical resources. The concept of pseudo-appropriation refers to such kind of ability. The logic of appropriation in economics is replaced with the new logic of pseudo-appropriation in the science of strategic management.

Reviewing the literature regarding the issue of planning in organizations should rather reveal the new logic of managerial discourse instead of a critically re-consideration of a vast array of schools of thought, perspectives, techniques and methods used in connection with strategic planning.

The novelty of our approach rests on the assumption that reviewing the literature based on the new logic of managerial discourse provides a solid foundation for a future research on what we may consider as being a *unified theory* in the science of strategic management.

¹ Wikipedia, Source: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Appropriation_\(economics\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Appropriation_(economics))

² G. Hamel and CK Prahalad are considered as being the originators of the concept of *core competence*. (CK Prahalad, G. Hamel (1990). “The Core Competence of the Corporation”, Harvard Business Review, May-June, Source: <http://goo.gl/QWq8J3>)

What are organizational strategies?

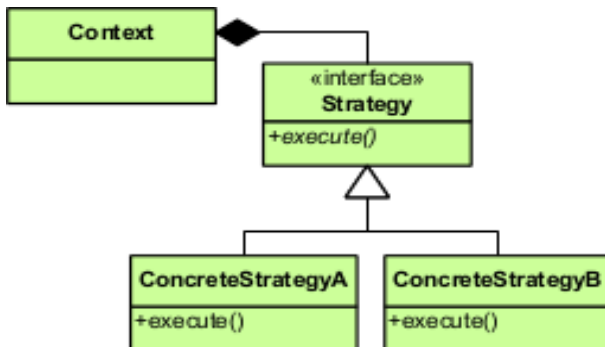
Decomposing Mintzberg's definition of strategy reveals useful insights into the problematic of strategic planning. Further conceptual directions should give us "directional inferences" similar to the "anchor elements" in the case of HTML ("*Hyper Text Markup Language*"), marking the beginning of future theoretical developments. Such "anchor elements" are as follows: "concentric" perspective, the new logic of managerial discourse, the concept of systems' conversion, the „self-fulfilling prophecy pseudo-logic“, the distortionary effect of decision-making process.

We should stress upon a vast array of approaches to literature review in the science of strategic management, generally, and with a particular focus on the issue of strategic planning. The classical approach to literature review on the problematic of strategic planning in organizations is circumscribing the following key question: "What are strategies and how are they formed in organizations?" (Mintzberg, 1978). The strategy is:

"(...) a pattern of decisions in a company that determines and reveals its objectives, purposes, or goals, produces the principal policies and plans for achieving those goals, and defines the range of business the company is to pursue, the kind of economic and human organization it is or intends to be, and the nature of the economic and noneconomic contribution it intends to make to its shareholders, employees, customers, and communities...". (Mintzberg, 2003)

Mintzberg's definition might be considered as containing a "concentric" perspective as it starts with explaining the strategy as a pattern of decisions and ends with strategy's intentional nature to impact the environment with its constituents (e.g. shareholders, employees, customers, communities). The inner circle of strategy is more concerned with the strategic pattern (See *Diagram 1*) that is rather a structured approach. The strategic pattern is recurring, meaning that the strategy might be continuously adjusted, taking into account the changes occurring in the environment. The execution of strategy is a continuous process, as such changes coming from the environment should be accounted for within a processual perspective.

Diagram 1 – "Strategy Pattern in UML (Unified Modelling Language)"



Note: The diagram intends to show the structure of strategy pattern. We are not, here, concerned with a software design pattern as suggested in the diagram.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Strategy_pattern

The managers, leaders of organizations have the power to shape the reality through their decisions. Thus, the managerial discourse tends to shape the reality. The new logic of managerial discourse should be regarded as a “logic of continuous discourse” (L. Armour, 1997), underpinning the changing nature of strategic processes.

The new logic of managerial discourse is more than a “systematic planning, implementing, monitoring, and revision of all the channels of communication within an organization, and between organizations”¹. It is, rather, a system of managerial thinking that has become very powerful in terms of transforming the reality or re-constructing the environment. The new logic of managerial discourse might be considered as the new system of converting beliefs, thoughts through the channels of strategic planning into the new reality. Such powerful transformational processes lead us towards considering a new type of conversion of the systems proper to the managerial perspective. The concept of systems’ conversion was analyzed by I. Badescu and C. Badescu (2014) in the book “*Conversion of Systems: Postmodern Desolation and the Deformations of the World*”. A conceptual definition of the conversion of systems gives a hint on the new dimension of the logic of managerial discourse:

“There is no more daily access to food. The access is, rather, mediated by a chain of artificial systems, causing enormous costs, wherever such costs arise, removing the “logic” of natural systems and, consequently, substituting it. This is, in essence, systemic conversion of the modern world and its effects, as notified, are distorting.” (I. Badescu & C. Badescu, 2014)

The new mediating factor of “artificial systems” might explain, as well, why systems of management thinking, including various *Schools of strategy theories*, might have created its reality within the „self-fulfilling prophecy” (Merton, R. K., 1968) pseudo-logic:

“The actors within the process—or at least some of them—fail to understand how their own belief has helped to construct that reality; because their belief is eventually validated, they assume that it had been true at the outset.” (Bearman & Hedstrom, 2009)

Such a misapprehension is a typical example of a converted system where the distorsionary effect of so-called „artificial systems” contributes towards failure in understanding the way how „their own belief has helped to construct that reality”. The assumption that the new logic of managerial discourse is eventually validated even if such validation is based on a false belief, confirms the *distorsionary effect* of a managerial decision. The changing nature of behaviour in different contexts proves once more the distorsionary effect of the decision making process in organizations: „Hence what is labelled as ‘irrational’ behaviour in one context may be perfectly rational in another.” (Mazzucato, 2002, p. 9)

Adopting a deterministic perspective would, actually, contradicts the changing nature of behaviour. The lack of randomness does not fit a reality whose main premise is not only the changing nature of behaviour but, also, the rational-irrational duality as the cause and, also, as the effect of such kind of behaviour.

How are the strategies formed in organizations?

The strategies are formed as a way to translate the organization from one state to another. It deals with translating a strategy into action or transforming a virtual state of a strategy-focused organization into a manifest one. The strategy is, actually, the transition from a virtual state that is often regarded as the strategy formulation or the intentional nature of the chosen strategic architecture into a manifest, visible state. Translating a strategy into action is similar to the transition process from one state to another. R. Kaplan (2001), D. Norton (2001) as well as C. Badescu (2008) referred to the issue of “organisational virtualism”:

“The concept of virtualism designates the translation of abstract ideas and concepts into material forms.” (ESRC, 2004) “By analogy the organization virtualism as a concept covers those conceptions which promote a new

¹ Communications management, Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communications_management

perspective on the organizational performance. This new approach requires using indicators that report on a “would-be-organization” that is on the future performances not on the “outcomes, the consequences of its past actions.” (Kaplan & Norton, 2001, p. 3) The concept of the organizational virtualism is based on measuring the efficiency of an organization not as a manifest one (its financial reports being invoked) but as it “would be”, that is what it should be if we measured its strategy, making adjustments on the critical parameters in order to prevent the worsening of its state.” (Badescu, 2008)

Whether a method as, for instance, the Balanced Scorecard should be considered as being rather deterministic (HSB Heratha, 2010) is debatable. Such a model is opening up new perspectives in the science of strategic management, shedding the light on how the strategy is formed in organizations. The Balanced Scorecard is more than a method that should be used at operational level in organizations. It opens up new research as well as methodological directions in the field of strategic management. Scholars, including MBA students should continue developing new methodological insights by including such models of work (e.g. Balanced Scorecard) on their research agenda.

One such theoretical as well as methodological insight based on the Balanced Scorecard model was suggested by C. Badescu:

“We have to renovate the research methods required to evaluate and execute strategy in order to secure organization’s competitive advantage. The clue of such a new methodology is strategy’s capability of capturing the latent states of the organizations, i.e. its virtual state instead of using methods and indicators that report on its situational state. The conception of organizational virtualism requires, therefore, the shifting from a situational state of an organization to a virtual, would-be situation of that organization.” (Badescu, 2008)

One major difference between the strategic plan and the business plan rests on strategy’s capability of capturing the latent state of the organization while the business plan is rather focused on organization’s situational state.

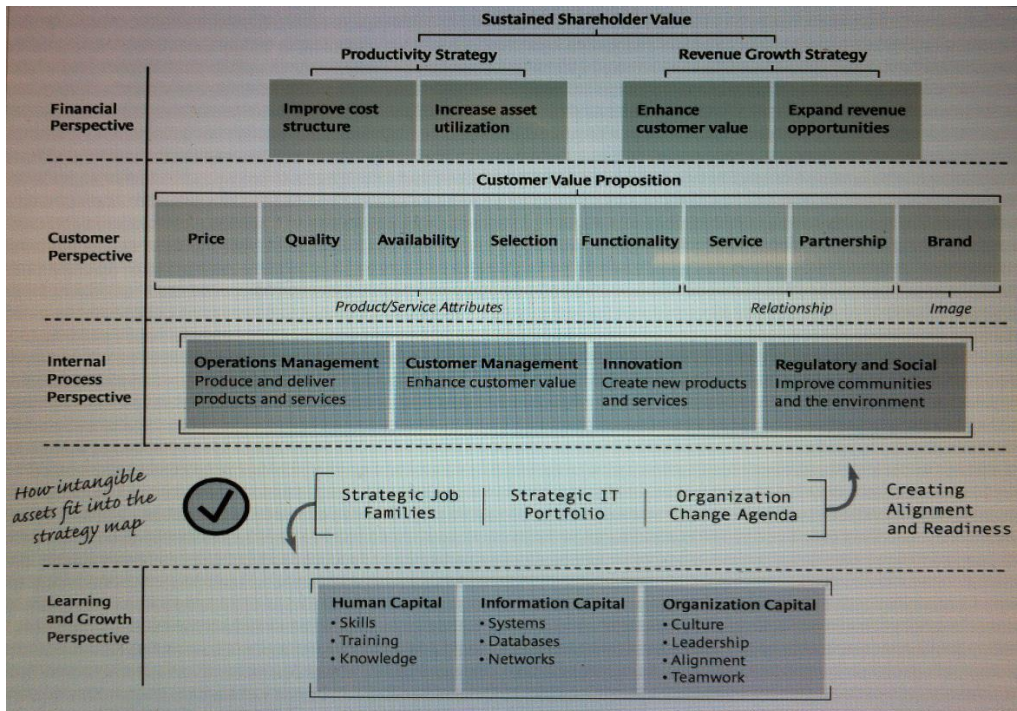
The Balanced Scorecard method has the capability to infuse a “new rationality” proper to the organizational strategy. It is, also, the right moment to recall the idea of a “rationality” of a particular strategy. (Mazzucato, op. cit.) Further evidences of the strategy’s rationality could be inferred from the study of C. Badescu (2008):

“What we shall stress upon the new method (Balanced Scorecard – A/N) is the shifting effect, i.e. the shift from what the creators (Kaplan, Robert S.; Norton, David P. – A/N) of this method called the “cause-and-effect linkage” to what we may call the “effect-to-cause-linkage”. That means we are able not only to create a desired effect by action upon its cause but also to create its own cause by starting from the predicted effect and acting upon the intermediary variables or parameters. When we have depicted an effect we can force its fulfillment by acting upon the intermediary latent variable or parameters. When we succeeded to transmute a given variable from its latent state to its manifest one, instantly the cause having capacity to sustain the fulfillment of that effect became itself a manifest one.” (Badescu, 2008)

Acting upon the causes for generating the desired effect or outcomes would simply explain the way strategies are formed in organizations. Ideally, any strategic planning should have its outcomes accomplished. In reality, only 10 percent to 30 percent of organizational strategies are successfully executed.¹ Considering the strategic planning as being a chain of cause-and-effect linkages, then we should consider that the decision makers in organizations mostly fail to create a desired effect by acting upon the cause. Would such failures rest on the fact that decision makers are not being able to execute the strategy? Kaplan and Norton, the originators of the Balanced Scorecard method, believe that formulating a sound strategy is not enough as translating the strategy into practice is critical for the success of the organization.

¹ “The ability to execute strategy can be more important than the strategy itself. With failure rates reported in the 70 percent to 90 percent range, we can appreciate why sophisticated investors have come to realize that execution is more important than vision.” (Robert S. Kaplan, David P. Norton (2001). *The strategy-focused organization: how balanced scorecard companies thrive in the new business environment*, Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation

Diagram 2 – Strategy Map



Source: Robert S. Kaplan, David P. Norton (2004). *Measuring the Strategic Readiness of Intangible Assets*. In: *Focusing Your Organization on Strategy – with the Balanced Scorecard*, 2nd Edition, Harvard Business Review OnPoint Collection

Kaplan and Norton argue that the intangible assets should be aligned with the strategy. (Kaplan & Norton, 2004, p. 20) Aligning implies not only measuring the strategic readiness but, also, “assessing and then enhancing the alignment” (Kaplan & Norton, 2004, p. 20), and, consequently, unleashing “those intangible assets’ full power.” (Kaplan & Norton, 2004, p. 20)

The cause-and-effect linkages between the four perspectives of the Balanced Scorecard method explain the “strategic alignment” or adjusting the assets of the organization to a certain strategic option. Each perspective within the Balanced Scorecard framework is a *sub-system of critical success factors*. For instance, the “*Learning and Growth Perspective*” is a factor of differentiation within the organization based on leveraging three types of intangible capitals as evidenced by Kaplan and Norton in the *Diagram 2*: “Human Capital”, “Information Capital”, “Organization Capital”. Aligning such intangible assets with the strategy facilitates the transformation of a factor of differentiation into a critical success factor.

Failing to execute strategy is signaling that the shifting effect from the cause-and-effect linkages to the effect-and-cause linkages is not taking place. The strategy is not, actually, translated into action because of failing “to transmute a given variable from its latent state to its manifest one” (Badescu, 2008).

The strategy processes should facilitate dual transformational linkages as follows:

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- *Cause-and-effect linkages* facilitating the transformation of a desired effect or a latent state into a manifest one by acting upon its cause;
 - *Effect-and-cause linkages*, creating “its cause by starting from the predicted effect and acting upon the intermediary variables or parameters” (Badescu, 2008).

Acting upon intermediary variables or parameters induces a transformation of the causes as latent variables into manifest ones. The effect-and-cause linkages induces a rationality to the strategy process. It is similar to the self-fulfilling prophecy pseudo-logic when a belief is validated and, consequently, helps re-construction of reality. The new logic of managerial discourse is based on such constructed reality. The planning facilitates, actually, re-creating the reality or transforming a reality into a strategized one.

In conclusion, we have pinpointed some neglected elements regarding the logic of managerial discourse, indicating further directions of analysis within the duality of planning in organizations.

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eGovernment: Transforming Government Engagement in the European Union

Rada Irimie

Abstract

eGovernment is not just a government service on the Internet. The strategic nature of the service relies on the objective of simplifying communication between all parties of the society: government, citizens and business. The use of ICTs can help to connect all three parties and facilitate processes and activities that support their connectivity. Therefore, eGovernment encourages good governance. However, with the nature of ICTs constantly changing, the subsequent economic and societal impact in Europe is diversified. Continued technological progress has led to a societal acceptance of the new technologies, amount to a step-change in what ICT can achieve. Rapid technological developments have altered the level of government engagement within the society. Our point of interest, European societies, has demonstrated diversified levels of government and citizen engagement. For some EU countries' citizens, interaction with the government through online facilities is not a novelty. However, to achieve the same level of efficiency and flexibility for all the EU member-countries is going to be challenging. The experience from the eGovernment services in the European Union shows that the willingness to decentralize procedures and mainly responsibility, and upgrade the role of electronic means, can strengthen governance. Our case study from Europe 2020 will showcase the dynamic shift of political direction towards flexible public services. The diversity of eGovernment implications in the European Union remains exceptionally interesting. This article is going to examine the political issues related to governance in the European Union, from the perspective of democratic governance. Additionally, it will observe how far the European countries have been successful in implementing the EU's action plan. The article tries to identify the current status and the progression achieved so far in EU, with regards to the eGovernment area. Specific reference is being made to the open government approach, attempting to identify the level of political creativity originated in the Europe 2020 Initiative. The article argues that there are diverse speeds and levels of policy adaptation within the EU.

Keywords: eGovernment, European Union, democracy, digital agenda, online services.

I. Introduction

In recent years, the information technology revolution has encouraged economic and social change around the globe. The new technologies are likely to continue to have a deep impact on the political, economic, social and cultural values of the world in the coming decade. Economic prospects will continue to flourish in the market, enabling citizens and businesses to progressively familiarize with technological advancements in the online world. Social and cultural distances around the world are gradually becoming smaller leading to multi-dimensional citizen groups which are more informed, more democratic and more flexible. To ensure unlimited economic and social boundaries, a massive global information infrastructure is being put into place in many countries with the assistance of their governments.

Many governments have put an effort in utilizing technology to find innovative solutions for cost-effective development and social cohesion. The European Union as a whole has made considerable progress in increasing information technology tools and setting up networks. To provide a supporting environment, governments are investing in policies and programs for building a proper economic, social and regulatory infrastructure which will allow them to benefit from the imminent information society, increasing public value. The foundation of public value is a wide term that incorporates the various democratic, social, economic, environmental and governance roles of governments (Germanakos et al, 2007). Nevertheless, the undertaking of eGovernment could also create challenges. While for some countries of the EU, governments are willing to decentralize responsibilities and processes, this is hardly the practice of all EU countries.

The aim of this article is to highlight the progression, advancement and potential of eGovernment in the countries of the European Union and beyond. Our aim is to cover the issues related to eGovernment from a theoretical perspective, which would be affecting not just the European countries, but also most countries of the world. Our analysis will look into the experience and examples from the European countries, in order to draw up analogies. The advantages offered by eGovernment services are numerous: faster access to government services, lower costs for administration, better public access to budgets and documents and the subsequent increase in transparency and accountability. EGovernment services promote an environment where each citizen could contact the government through a website where all forms, legislation, news and other information are made available. It is assumed that the European governments, as a collector and source of information, would follow this trend, to serve its citizens and business and to save costs by making internal operations more efficient, eliminating complicated and long bureaucratic procedures (Basu, 2004).

The article is divided in five sections, which discuss eGovernment services and democratic issues in the European Union. The first chapter views eGovernment services as a new form of policy making and democratic engagement. The next chapter reviews existing government services in the European Union, while the following one develops the concept of eGovernment as a medium of communication between government and society. We will then discuss the European action plan within the Digital Agenda and the provision of eGovernment services. The empirical chapter formulates a case study that introduces the Open Government approach, which help us draw conclusions on the EU planning regarding online public services. The article concludes with a discussion of the results and potential avenues for future research.

II. A Different Path to Good Governance

Lately, 'governance' and 'good governance' are more and more used in the international development context. The opposite of good governance is considered to be one of the root causes of usual malfunctions within contemporary societies. According to the United Nations, 'good governance' has certain characteristics: "it is participatory, consensus oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and follows the rule of law" (UNESCAP, 2007, p. 1). Additionally, it combats corruption, and promotes equal opportunities throughout the society. With the commonly alleged advantages of eGovernment promoting a public services administration that includes all the above and many more, it becomes necessary to explore the vital role of eGovernment to good governance models.

The internet has caused an extraordinary change on society and politics. It has altered the way individuals, groups and institutions are organized, as well as how they relate to each other. Many people nowadays rely on the Internet to connect with family and friends, stay informed and complete daily activities. Frequently, the internet creates new avenues for socio-political outreach and activism. Social networking media and other communicative technologies have shaped the new way in which information is communicated and processed by masses of people (Khazaeli and Stockemer, 2013). If we take social media, for example, Facebook and Twitter rank among the top social media used globally. Given their huge potential for communication, it is hardly surprising that governments, institutions and businesses employ social media.

The internet has also become a vital part of the political life, especially in democracies, where it is seen as the only way to free dialogue between the government and the citizens. Political candidates and public officials use the Internet in order to reach prospective voters or communicate with the citizens. With online presence, political leaders' plea to large demographics, promote a public image and form a renewed relationship with the audience. Citizens rely on the Internet to obtain political information, to keep up with election campaigns, and judge politicians for their pledges (Heeks, 2002). At the same time, transnational actors, citizens and organizations use modern communicative technologies in order to advance their goals.

Most importantly, the internet has redefined the relationship between the media, the state, and citizens. Since private actors and interests can now share in the production of information, the Internet poses a challenge to the state and traditional media's monopoly on knowledge. As control over information determines who holds power in society, authoritarian regimes have tried several times in the past to block sites that damage their authority (Khazaeli and Stockemer, 2013). Unlike

conventional forms of media that may be under strict governmental inspection, the internet has proven difficult to regulate on a consistent base. While countries such as China, Iran, Pakistan, and Syria have restricted Facebook and other online sites, these measures have hardly been effective in environments with skilled computer users (as the Arab Spring case has proven) and as more non-governmental organizations (such as ASL-19) offer escape tools to users in despotic countries (Khazaeli and Stockemer, 2013).

The idea behind the eGovernment appeared in the early 1990s, but it was put into practice at the end of the same decade (Netchaeva, 2002). eGovernment services first appeared in industrialized and economically advanced countries. By 2005, Denmark, Sweden, United Kingdom and Germany were among the leading eGovernment users (Germanakos et al, 2007). Currently, several countries in the world have eGovernment projects; the most economically advanced states appear to have the most advanced eGovernment (Netchaeva, 2002). EGovernment refers to the use by government agencies of information technologies, which have the ability to modernize relations with the society; citizens, businesses and other parts of government. These technologies could assist a number of different purposes: better delivery of government services to citizens, upgraded interactions with business and industry, citizen enablement through direct access to information, and more efficient government management (Basu, 2004). The advantages offered by online government services can be less corruption, due to increased transparency; greater convenience for both citizens and businesses; revenue growth for the government and/or cost reductions. Usually, the interaction between a citizen or business and a government agency would need to take place in a government office. Developing information and communication technologies make it possible to locate service centres closer to the client. These centres may comprise an unofficial kiosk of the government service, a service kiosk located close to the client, or most commonly through a personal computer in the home or office.

The eGovernment is supported by the regulations and policies of e-government, combining the legal frameworks of both IT governance and global governance. This is supported by the digital society developed by the connected environment. What are the basic features of eGovernment? As a matter of fact 'the quest is multi-dimensional across leadership, policy, economic competitiveness, education, digital citizen services, internal government operations, digital democracy, and enabling technologies for each dimension' (Caldow, 2001). Therefore, according to IBM, multidimensionality is among the basic features of the eGovernment process. In order to maintain a competitive advantage, this multidimensional factor needs to be implemented through the 'seven eGovernment leadership milestones': 'integration, economic development, e-democracy, e-communities, intergovernmental, policy environment, next generation Internet' (Caldow, 2001). In IBM's perception, eGovernment is the base framework for all the different evolutionary changes in the different sectors. It is, for example, impossible to implement e-democracy without eGovernment. This perspective makes clear how eGovernment indeed represents 'an alternate route', a change in perspective as employed in the past, a revolution, in a way for the public administration.

eGovernment initiatives within the administrative domain usually include improving the internal workings of the public sector by: a) cutting process costs: improving the input/output ratio by eliminating financial and time costs, b) managing process performance: planning, monitoring and controlling the performance of process resources, c) making strategic connections in government: connecting departments, agencies, levels and data stores of government to increase the ability to investigate, develop and implement the strategy and policy that guides governmental procedures, d) creating empowerment: transferring power, authority and resources for processes from the existing to new locations (Heeks, 2002).

The evolution of eGovernment has some similarities with the evolution of e-commerce. Similar to e-commerce, which allows businesses to conduct transactions with each other more efficiently and connects customers with businesses, eGovernment's goal is to make interactions between government and citizens or government and business enterprises, and inter-agency relationships more convenient, transparent and inexpensive (Basu, 2004). The value for the public is that government information is publicly accessible; procedures are defined and become more transparent, which improves democracy and public service. Within the government, the administration can also circulate state information through electronic means.

The adoption of eGovernment requires a transfer of government activities into online forms. This transformation aims at the same results with a company that decides transfer a private company's activity to the Internet, i.e. to increase effectiveness. The purpose of eGovernment is to simplify citizens' access to an excessive amount of information. For the public, eGovernment means a simplification of their interaction with government facilitated by internet connections. Thus, the main characteristic of advanced eGovernment is based on this exchange, which defines interactivity. To achieve a satisfying level of interactive eGovernment service, a number of stages have to be followed, according to I. Netchaeva, (2002):

- A) The construction of diverse online sections, which will include only specific department information
- B) The construction of federal and municipal sites, which will be interactive. Some sites include the function of email, which is very useful and popular among citizens.
- C) The development of forums and opinion polls for the users to be able to participate actively in discussions.
- D) The creation of central government and departments online services for the simplification of daily procedures, such as paying fines, renewing licenses, registering addresses etc.
- E) A unified government portal, which brings together all departments and government organizations nationwide, and offers a variety of different services for the citizens. The portal should give users the opportunity to participate in online discussions, comment on policy and legislation proposals and vote online.

As every society has different needs and priorities, there are no universal standard for eGovernment tendencies. Each society's and government's willingness to establish an effective eGovernment network would depend upon the objectives and specific sectors it chooses as priorities, as well as the resources available at a given time. The necessary pre-conditions for eGovernment depend upon a society's most important needs. For instance, the level of administrative structures, legal framework and human resources needed for eGovernment vary with the objectives (Caldow, 2001). Once a vision and priority sectors are established, it is important to measure how prepared a society is for eGovernment.

Measuring eGovernment readiness involves examination of the government abilities; institutional frameworks, human resources, budgetary resources, communication flows, etc. National infrastructure, economic health, education, information policies, private sector development and other issues are also factors of society's readiness (Basu, 2004). Even in developing countries where problems of low internet connectivity and human resource issues cause problems, creativity and innovative planning can create precise applications, services and information that can be delivered in a useful way to identifiable audiences (Pacific Council on International Policy, 2002).

III. eGovernment Services in the European Union

The global development of eGovernment is the echo of rapid technical developments, competitiveness and efficiency pressures and of course the need to modernize public administrations. eGovernment services are expected to raise the quality of public services and reduce the costs of their delivery, and therefore lead to more transparent government. Except the most expected outcomes eGovernment can promise, there are special European advantages that drive eGovernment: "The diversity and ingenuity of Europe can be a great asset. It offers multiple sources of innovation and collective resilience. As a global region, Europe has a wealth of erudite and respected institutions, and innovative entrepreneurs. Properly supported by quality public services we can use these capabilities for local value and international economic advantage" (European Commission, 2014a).

The need for a consistent European wide eGovernment policy is great for two main reasons. To begin with, there are issues that should be addressed at a European level. These include privacy, security, interoperability and equal accessibility to services from all citizens. What is more, the transmission of technologies and the expanding of the single market have led to new transnational services, which could be centrally developed to support European citizens and businesses, as a whole. Moreover, national governments can learn from common experiences, motivate best practices and foster the development of the best eGovernment systems (Germanakos et al, 2007).

Any aspiring plan of accelerating the whole process of eGovernment 'for all' in the Member-States of the EU, in such a diverse political, social and economic environment, is not an easily implemented plan, quite often, fail to meet their targets, despite of the available resources both of national and community public expenditure. Most importantly, the prolonged economic crisis in Europe has led to significant changes of plans due to severe restrictions in expenditure (Georgiadis et al, 2011). One of the most well-known success stories of eGovernment is 'eEurope'. The eEurope initiatives have been both highly debated and decidedly results oriented. The EU showed its determination to display ability to track, monitor and evaluate the implementation of each action plan, using a comprehensive system of key indicators and benchmarking reports produced and submitted to leaders for review and further action. The intentionally detailed implementation of eEurope and the political commitment of the EU leaders to build and enforce a knowledge-based economy and society 'for all', has placed the EU in the top global, regional and sub-regional actors (Basu, 2004). The positive effects of political will and enforcement are perhaps the first lessons that other countries may learn from eEurope.

The central aim of the European Commission's decision towards eEurope was to reduce bureaucracy among the EU Member-States. However, instead of simplifying the existing national bureaucratic procedures, the bureaucracy forced by the European policies, directives and regulations made the task of automation and public administration procedures even more difficult (Georgiadis et al, 2011). Arguably, national diversity in Europe is a characteristic of plurality and should be encouraged to exist. However, a number of multiple-level activities and services are present in the EU. Examples of difficulties in systems' unification and integration are evident in taxation, insurance and public health.

By the end of the 20th century, the numbers regarding the internet usage in Europe were unsatisfactory (14.1% European internet users by 2000), displaying a large inconsistency among the EU Member-States (Internet World Stats, 2005). To combat these data, a multilingual major project was launched aiming at the PROMotion of Information Society in Europe (PROMISE). The PROMISE work programme 1999 is based on Council Decision 98/253/EC of 30 March 1998 with regards to the Multi-annual Community Programme to Stimulate the Establishment of the Information Society in Europe (PROMISE) (OECD, 2004). Main objectives of the plan were to: to increase consistency and synergy of Member-States' policies, to promote the information society and encourage economic and social actors to move from simple awareness to active participation and real exposure of benefits for the information society. Work areas were grouped into three categories: i) increasing awareness and understanding of the prospective impact of the information society; ii) improving the socio-economic benefits of the information society across Europe; and iii) augmenting Europe's international impact through technological advantage (OECD, 2004).

For the promotion of internet usage and in combination with the 'people and skills' investment, the action plan encouraged projects for improvement of networks of scientific research communities, as a priority. Information Society Technologies (IST) Programme was launched by the European Commission within the 5th Framework Programme for Research, Technology Development and Demonstration. The EU's plans were documented in an Action Plan published early in the year 2000 (Commission of the European Communities, 2001). The action plan aimed to form a knowledge-based society that would guarantee dynamic growth of the economy and a full range of services for all European citizens provided by the information society. The main targets should have been achieved by the year 2010.

The 2002 action plan focused mainly on the consistency of internet and web services throughout Europe. Considering the existing diversity on the available ICT infrastructures in Europe and the enduring computer illiteracy in remote areas of Europe, the procedures had to start from scratch. The 'e-Europe' 2005 Action Plan succeeded the 2002 plan, aiming at encouraging the development of e-services for both the public administrations and private enterprises. It was a rather refocusing programme for research, putting a framework for online services in Europe financed by the 6th Framework and eTEN programmes (OECD, 2001). This time the targets were new projects in eGovernment, e-health, e-inclusion, e-learning and e- security available by 2010, taking into account the enlargement of the EU.

The 2005 eEurope mid-term review highlighted that there had been an impressive increase since 2000 in the number of households connected. Internet usage in the EU was up to only 37% in 2005 (Georgiadis et al, 2011). However, there was no evidence of increased productivity. It was, hence, decided that the focus should be on how to increase usage and on

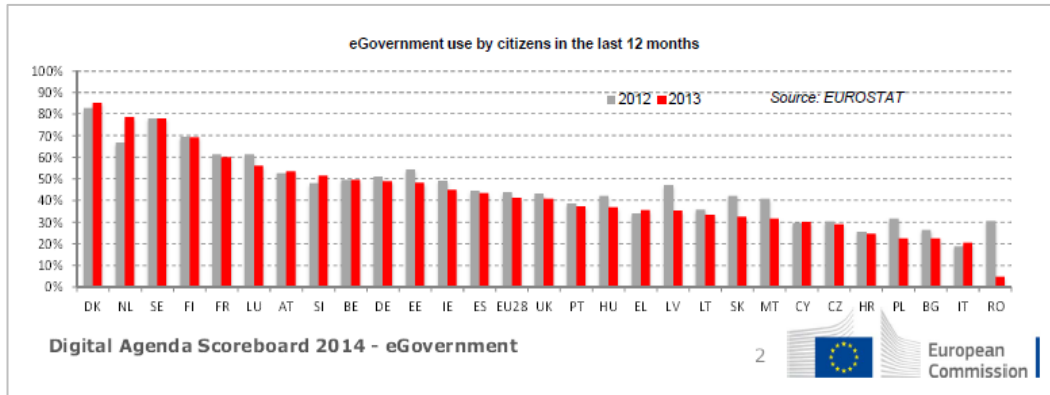
encouraging the development of new businesses and services that will attract new demand (European Commission, 2004a). Some more specific actions for online services in relation to their contributing factors had been also suggested by the European Commission, with emphasis on the adoption of copyright EU legislation, provision of distance marketing services and financial services, as well as control on electronic services. Correspondingly, the European Commission had specified actions and provisions for secure application of online e-health systems and services (Georgiadis et al, 2011). To respond to these data, the i2010 initiative was launched in an effort to implement the new Lisbon strategy towards a sustainable growth of a more inclusive information society.

The i2010 initiative was no more than a strategic framework for the information society and media. ICT was defined as the driving power of digital economy and competitiveness, the one to drive through "inclusion and quality of life" (European Commission, 2005). As a result, by the year 2010 the figures of Internet usage and broadband Internet access in Europe improved up to 70% and 60% by the European households and individuals respectively (Seybert and Lööf, 2010). At the same time, the EC issued an Action Plan on eGovernment (included in the i2010 initiative), which aimed to increase the efficiency of public administration services and comply with the needs of citizens and businesses. In total, the plan instructed effective public services, provision of secure services, reduction of bureaucracy and cross border integration of public services for sustainable citizens' mobility.

In order to meet these objectives, the plan of the European Commission enclosed five priorities: i) No barriers should restrict the citizens to access online services. By the year 2010, all citizens should enjoy eGovernment services. ii) The digital gap should be further eliminated and the Member-States should reduce administrative problems using innovative eGovernment services by the year 2010. iii) eGovernment priority is given to high impact horizontal cross-border services. eProcurement and public contracts should be carried out electronically by 2010. iv) eGovernment services should be improved. Interoperability in identification management, document authentication and eArchiving procedures, as well as secure systems of mutual recognition of national websites identifiers are the results of this digital enforcement. v) eDemocracy (via eGovernment services) and increased ICT use, which has led to noteworthy citizen participation in decision-making, is of significant importance (Cimander et al, 2009).

By the year 2010 the economic crisis required new measures and created the necessity for the "Digital Agenda for Europe". The EC proposed the Digital Agenda for Europe 2020; however a very low degree of adapting ICT innovations in the productivity and in public administrations was still evident until 2010 (e.g. only 1.9% of the EU GDP was spent to research for innovation) (Euractiv, 2010). As a matter of fact, the agenda was an effort to "wider deployment and more effective use of digital technologies", therefore the improvement of competitiveness, better health services, environmental conditions and more opportunities, stimulating innovation were among the measures that would help to drive economic growth. As a step in stone to achieve year's 2020 goals, the EC adopted seven priority areas one of which is the Digital Agenda for Europe. This Agenda pursued the availability and connectivity of all Europeans to high speed Internet, which will encourage the creation of a Digital Single Market (European Commission, 2011). The ambitious goal of the 2011-2015 is to increase the take-up of eGovernment services considerably by 2015: 50% of citizens and 80% of businesses should use eGovernment services (European Commission, 2009). Additionally, high priority was given on the ongoing need for in-depth studies, in particular to the different stages of implementation in individual Member-States. EC uses the results of studies to target EU financial support and to adapt policy initiatives in the field of eGovernment (European Commission, 2009).

In 2013, eGovernment services have been used by 41% of the EU28 population (50% is the target to be reached for 2015), 3% less than in 2012 and nearly at the same level usage as in 2011. In 2014, it is estimated that only 9 out of 28 countries are above the 2015 targets, namely DK, NL, SE, FI, FR, LU, AT, SI, BE, and about 7 countries increased usage in 2013. In five countries (RO, IT, BG, PL and HR) online public services are used by less than a 25% of the population and the eGovernment actions display a delay in implementation. Additionally, almost 73.3% of European internet users used at least one public authority online service in 2013 (European Commission, 2014b). The following graph demonstrates the eGovernment use discrepancies in the EU28.



Source: European Commission, 2014b

On the one hand, eGovernment service developments are closely related to the general ICT impact and developments on information societies. On the other hand, it is also evident that eGovernment service development entails economic and social progress made. Hence, the various initiatives taken by the EC to diminish heterogeneity of the ICT services provided to the European citizens throughout Europe, only aim to improve knowledge-based economy and quality of life for each Member-State. In progressing eGovernment, many services have been implemented nationally, aiming at saving time and effort in their interaction with public sector procedures to the citizens. In a multi-national environment such as the EU, with a variety of social, financial and environmental conditions, life of Europeans and particularly those of young age is becoming more demanding and complex. Increasing complexity of services offered to Europeans due to the economic crisis, and the necessity of improved multilingual eGovernment services becomes apparent (Georgiadis et al, 2011). Obviously, the economic crisis hit many European countries over the last years and has delayed the efforts and investments on the implementation of eGovernment services, needed by the citizens. As a result, the existing eGovernment services fail to meet the current needs not only of citizens or business, but also the needs of interaction between government organizations, departments and local authorities.

In evaluating eGovernment services, a key element in question is the completeness (or the maturity) of the existing service. Other important and neglected causes of deficiencies in benchmarking are related to negligence of the interrelationship of an eGovernment service to the organizational structure and the back-office processes (Ojo et al, 2007). The factor of 'e-readiness' from the citizen side to use the offered services varies based on social and cultural local developments or mentalities. E-readiness motivation programmes and projects have been funded and many researchers and international organisations have developed models and directories to assess global e-readiness in various ICT services, like e-business for market economy integration and global digital inclusion (Ojo et al, 2007). Fundamentally, eGovernment readiness is evaluated taking into account a specific number of indicators, the most important of which are: i) existence of the appropriate ICT infrastructure, ii) maturity of online services and iii) support in providing advisory and decision-making services. The variation of these indicators is used for assessing eGovernment readiness for different countries. Amongst the well-developed systems for estimating e-readiness is UNDESA, which employs 16 'core' indicators that cover telecommunication network infrastructure, human capacity development and online presence, as well as e-Participation, e-Information, e-Consultation and e-Decision Making (United Nations, 2008).

The EC framework programmes were launched aiming to adapt Europe to the information age and kick-off the transition to a knowledge based economy, enjoying higher growth, job availability and e-services for all citizens. The EC's initiatives towards Europe's transition to a knowledge based economy have been developed in phases and have been continually ordering new action plans in an effort to generate the prospective benefits of the information age, i.e. ICT innovations,

Internet and web services for all citizens, public administrations and businesses (Council and the European Commission, 2000). In reality, eEurope was nothing but a policy framework with no funds but directives of how to use and re-allocate public funds in order to fulfil the directives provided. Therefore, the e-Europe 2002 Action Plan focusing to a faster, cheaper and 'open to all' Internet was quickly followed by the e-Europe 2005 Action Plan, focusing on broadband technologies and their use for online services targeted to all citizens and in both the public and private sector (Georgiadis et al, 2011).

Although eEurope programmes were focused on EU strategy and did not offer extra funds but needed to use public funds from existing expenditure, the EU Member-States followed these policies almost unescapably. Also, the EC was successful in improving internet connection throughout Europe and support the Member-States in the adoption of the required legal frameworks for opening the communication networks; applying new business practices (e.g. eCommerce, eHealth etc.). Nonetheless, despite the amount dedicated on this action plan and the complexity of certain eGovernment services, the results are not satisfactory in terms of broadness and general applicability (Georgiadis et al, 2011). There is still inconsistency from state to state in the levels of ICT systems adaptation by public administrations. This inconsistency explains why the EC tried to encourage quality network infrastructures, development of attractive applications and services and organisational transformations. Another goal of the EC should be on new initiatives to join efforts so that the Member-States could exchange knowledge and know-how, providing support to each other through more joint public administration activities.

The EC has continued with tireless planning, framework programmes and horizontal ICT and eGovernment project support, but there are still rural areas in EU with poor network infrastructure, citizens not taking advantage of eGovernment services, businesses lacking integration to wider markets and the EU lacks into the image of a competitive - based economy. Furthermore, the global economic crisis has weakened more the weak economies of the EU and unemployment figures are continuously growing. While in general, the EU Member-States have introduced important projects in their effort to develop their eGovernment services and have achieved to advance technologically on world scale, there are still Member-States with low performance on the availability of eGovernment services. Nevertheless, there are Member-States with low performance on the availability of eGovernment services, which need to focus their efforts in redesigning their national priorities within the eGovernment sector.

In general, continuous efforts in the field of digital adaptation of Europe have paid dividends, considering that the internet use has been impressively high compared to the end of the 20th century. With an average penetration of 76.5% in EU 28 one should recognise the progress being made (Internet World Stats, 2014). More specifically, particular efforts should also be made to attract citizens and promote the use of eGovernment services. Apparently, countries of low performance on eGovernment services are likely facing problems with ICT infrastructure and should thus give emphasis to firstly improve their general ICT indices. Further efforts should be focused on the improvement of broadband networks, as well as the elimination of the digital divide between states. Inequality has reached high levels in the rural areas of EU creating problems for the less privileged EU citizens.

IV. Developing the relationship of citizens with the government

The development of eGovernment must be examined in the context of the individual citizen and their relationship to their government. From a historical perspective, government rule was connected to the monarch. As technology and communication increased through history, the middle classes were no longer satisfied to submit to the monarch's total control, and forced for the sharing of the power. This trend continues through history, as communication and technology increases and it becomes available to the individual citizen, whose power increases considerably. eGovernment is the most recent step in this evolution that empowers the individuals to protect their rights and have their voice heard by their government. Different cultures demonstrate a diverse rate of evolution in history, but it appears that as communication and technology improves, the relative power position of the individual improves relative to that of the government (Evans and Yen, 2006).

Many nations have incorporated information and communication technologies (ICTs) as a way to increase government transparency and reduce corruption. As a matter of fact, the fight against corruption has received a great emphasis in newer applications of ICTs by certain governments. The use of social media is a central part of some of these more recent initiatives, focusing on transparency and anti-corruption (Bertot et al, 2012). By reviewing transparency initiatives and issues related to the use of ICTs, social media and eGovernment, we want to explore the ways in which these technologies facilitate collaboration between governments and members of the society in promoting democracy. Older studies have examined the correlation between the evolution of eGovernment services and the reduction of corruption. The results of those surveys showcased a connection between the levels of ICT development with observed level of public sector corruption. ICT is the essential pre-condition for eGovernment and a source of technological innovations in the public sector. At the same time, the ICT infrastructure and usage can indicate the level of eGovernment evolution (Proskuryakova et al, 2013; Grönlung and Flygare, 2011). Data demonstrate matching demand for public e-services and perceived corruption. The EU Members-States that rank high by demand of public e-services indicator are Denmark, Finland, Netherlands and Sweden, countries that are also listed among the top ten in Corruption Perception Index, known as CPI (Proskuryakova et al, 2013).

In democracy, the provision of information to citizens and the ability of citizens to monitor the activities of the government play an important role. ICT systems and eGovernment can be utilised in many key government areas against corruption, though the influence of culture often makes social change the largest challenge in openness and anti-corruption initiatives. Nonetheless, many anti-corruption policies have focused on economic incentives rather than economic incentives, controlling discretionary power of government officials through a system of rules (Brautigam, 1992). To the contrary, ICTs offer countries a new approach to creating transparency. Many nations with transparency laws have linked the implementation of these laws to the implementation of ICT-based initiatives, and they have often use eGovernment (Relly & Sabharwal, 2009). Additionally, ICTs have the ability to promote good governance, strengthen reform initiatives, reduce potential for corrupt behaviors, and strengthen relationships between government employees and citizens, allowing for citizen to monitor their activities, and monitor behaviors of government employees (Bertot et al, 2012). To achieve the above goals, ICT initiatives must move from increasing information access and ensuring that the rules are transparent and applied to the decisions and actions of government employees (Bhatnagar, 2003). Many governments envisage the use of ICTs as the means to the promotion of efficiency and transparency, at the same time. ICTs are, in general, considered to be an effective means for achieving these goals, but social attitudes can minimise their effectiveness as an anti-corruption tool. Taxes and government contracts are the usual areas, where eGovernment has proved to be a clear and successful solution to corruption problems. Nations across the Americas, Asia, and Europe have all claimed successes in reducing corruption through eGovernment (Bhatnagar, 2003).

Looking at the direct advantages of using eGovernment, the automation provided will help to increase customer service levels and decrease costs. The development of an eGovernment system mainly helps to distribute information, but the attitude of the citizens, who are the customers, is important, not irrelevant. Furthermore, it will help the collection of information that facilitates decision-makers' work (Evans and Yen, 2006). eGovernment aid government agencies in centralizing decision-making and purchasing in order to reduce costs. The centralization of certain activities will eliminate costly dysfunctions. The use of information technologies in eGovernment has been evolving for many decades. What is being seen as an added value to the eGovernment systems are applications that provide information on websites, as well as the undertaking of some online transactions. However, the gap between eGovernment and eCommerce uses of online competences, especially in business may be widening. This could possibly be explained by the general failure of the public sector to address opportunities opened by Web 2.0 innovations, as quickly as the private sector to opportunities (Dutton & Peltu, 2007). If there is a potential for the public services to transform successfully, rather than maintain the traditional approaches, we should focus on the reasons public services resist to internal flexibility. Approaching, for example, the negativity of the public sector staff to embrace and support a network governance model. Motivating individuals and working groups in the public sector would be the key to welcoming online innovations that have added value for citizens.

Despite the fact that eGovernment and eCommerce have different objectives and cultures, eGovernment can learn lessons from business. Especially business that develops more advanced online applications can be of much value in the development of eGovernment systems. The digital networks' ability to understand customers and treat them according to their particular requirements is an example that demonstrates the value of online expertise private services embrace. This specific example in an eGovernment context could be of benefit in learning how to help tailor public services to citizens' requirements and to demonstrate concrete 'value-added' benefits of going online (Dutton & Peltu, 2007).

However, the concept of eGovernment has not only created opportunities but challenges, as well. Some serious concerns about permitting this amount of information to be held by the government alone are valid. A) While the government may theoretically seem like a generous organization, it is always possible that in the future specific governments or parties might use this information to harm the citizens of this country. Citizens need to be reassured that this information will be stored in a secure environment by a government and treated with strict confidentiality (Evans and Yen, 2006). B) A good advice would be to use e-business concepts in the process of automation. There is not point to systematise out-of-date procedures, because that would mean automating a mistake. A full analysis is in need before any procedures are automated. And since main procedures will not require human intervention after becoming automated, it is vital that they are developed in a flexible way to change with future requirements (Evans and Yen, 2006). C) Another basic concern is censorship. It would be possible for certain people in the government to monitor web activity and censor information when that information does not agree with what the government wants. China provides an apt example of how eGovernment design and implementation has been used to strengthen the governmental control over other entities, such as enterprises and citizens (Kluver, 2005).

Beyond the finance, content, and responsiveness of eGovernment, it is also vital to examine how the public feels about the digital government. The way in which citizens evaluate eGovernment is the factor that will shape how online democracy will shape the future (West, 2004). To adopt eGovernment processes, citizens must have the intention to 'engage in eGovernment', which incorporates the intentions to: receive information, to provide information and to request eGovernment services (Warkentin et al, 2003). Whether citizens exchange information electronically, given the choice between an online process and a traditional method depends on a number of variables. The significance of these variables should be understood as a group, which is critical to the overall eGovernment adoption model.

A) Trust is a central defining aspect of many economic and social interactions; it is the belief that the other party will behave as expected in a socially responsible manner, and in doing so, it will fulfil the trusting party's expectations (Mayer et al. 1995). Therefore, trust reduces the social complexity that leads to social relations of independence and thus reduces the risk and uncertainty involved in social interactions. Trust is crucial in economic transactions, as well because it reduces the victims of opportunism. Presumably, the same should apply to tax payments, where the interaction is technically one-sided in favour of the government.

B) Technology acceptance is defining for the adoption of online government services (Chuttur, 2009). This also applies to website use, where 'perceived usefulness' and 'perceived ease of use' influence Internet adoption. "Perceived usefulness is the degree that users believe that a particular system facilitates their activity. Perceived ease of use is the degree that users believe that using the system is easy, and that it directly increases perceived usefulness" (Warkentin et al, 2003). Applied to the eGovernment context, a web interface that is perceived as helpful to the interaction process and easy to operate, is likely to increase citizen's intentions to use it.

C) Finally, culture is very likely to contribute to the adoption or social resistance to eGovernment. According to Hofstede, there five cultural factors that affect how people interact. Of these five, power distance is the most likely to influence eGovernment adoption and use by citizens. Power distance is a measure of how people at the lower social classes of society differ from those at the top. In high power distance societies, 'whoever holds the power is right and good' and members of the non-ruling class are more likely to obey instruction from those who rule (Hofstede, 1997, p. 43). The higher power distance is the more it influences intentions to engage in eGovernment. The second culture factor that should influence eGovernment adoption is uncertainty avoidance. The greater the cultural tendency to avoid uncertainty (i.e. risk), the greater the impact of trust on eGovernment adoption. As a matter of cast, cultures that tend to avoid uncertainty, trust

is more important as a prerequisite of joint business ventures. Therefore, higher uncertainty avoidance will reinforce the positive effect of citizen trust on intentions to engage in eGovernment.

It is becoming evident that as trust is an important element of eGovernment, respective governments should examine some actions to stimulate this trust. The building of democratic trust via eGovernment can be completed by efforts that force existing trust in government, to increase citizen security with the usage of the service transaction mechanisms of the eGovernment (Warkentin et al, 2003). The use of eGovernment is not what causes this increase in trust, but it is a factor worth exploring in future research. Finally, increasing people's confidence and trust in government through eGovernment is an outcome worth pursuing.

eGovernment gives the opportunity for governments to demonstrate their legitimacy and provide basic civic education online that will increase citizen understanding on the responsibility of government. The effectiveness of eGovernment and democracy will increase as soon as online users understand how they benefit from eGovernment. To effectively participate in the government's workings, you need access to the ground base, which includes information on the proper way to make freedom of information requests that go beyond what government shares online (Cliff, 2004). Without these ordinary information mechanisms in place, encouraging deeper public participation will lack the necessary foundation.

The service and convenience benefits of eGovernment are broadly publicized. If services properly employ administrative knowledge on user satisfaction, eGovernment services can help government avoid common organisational problems and set priorities. The goal of increasing citizen satisfaction and service towards them is the bridging effect between traditional eGovernment and online efforts to promote participatory democracy (Cliff, 2004). At least, governments need to take into account structures input and useful feedback, when they design online transaction services and information portals. eGovernment services do not operate in a competitive environment; they do not compete with other government websites. However, they are evaluated by citizens, who assess eGovernment services based on the time required for procedures to be completed and preference among thousands of other online applications they use every day. One useful idea would be to start considering online portals, which are the main source of online political and government news, as online aggregators for more website visitors.

Despite the fact that some may suggest eDemocracy implementation as a separate policy work, it would also make sense making eDemocracy available in an integrated way across the eGovernment service (Cliff, 2004). Government built eDemocracy tools are best implemented as part of a whole eGovernment technological design, rather than as an individual application connected to eGovernment. Governments need to avoid separating eDemocracy services from the substance of their technical expertise and resources, especially in societies where familiarity with eGovernment tools is considerably low. Interestingly, a Web Watch research reveals that what citizens declare they want from online services and that they actually do online are two very different things. People declare they want strong privacy policies, but very few access them (WebWatch Report, 2002). Similarly, people frequently ask for accountable eGovernment, but is unknown how many evaluate eGovernment services by using them. Learning what users do online will help governments to prioritize investments and enhance information access, as well as service transactions and building new tools.

eParticipation is another form of the democratic nature of eGovernment, but their efforts need to reach people in order to be effective. Unlike other organisations, governments have the obligation to provide reasonable access to their services and democratic processes. Universal access to the internet is still a political challenge and the digital divide is often cited as the reason for low participation in online projects. Again, based on the understanding on what proportion of the society is connected and why, the government can develop online efforts, which complement existing forms of participation and work to ensure that many and diverse voices are heard. In the transitional economies of Europe, the connectivity devices should be developed; email and the web can provide a participatory structure for collecting input and traditional mass media and facilitate the public interface that generates citizens input.

From representative institutions to decision-making procedures within governments, ICT can prove very useful in making political procedures more efficient and hopefully more effective. Compared to online campaigning and eGovernment, the

ICTs use by parliaments, local council and other public services is at least understudied (Cliff, 2004). In order to strengthen citizen participation, which could be described as an imperative goal in the information age, the role of the internet in these institutions should be given more attention in the future. Citizens will engage their representatives in governance when they feel attached to the political outcomes. As indifference about politics is among common reasons for political abstention, citizens frequently feel their voices are not being heard or their input does not matter. "While it is generally accepted that many citizens do not have a stake, ICT can be used to bring citizen's input and deliberation into representative political processes. These procedures have direct political power and authority. They are simply an external exercise or academic experiment" (West, 2004, p. 24). Thus, enhancing citizen participation in democratic procedures through eGovernment is an effective way to enhance representativeness and therefore democracy in the society. Given the nature of eGovernment change, it is little surprise that eGovernment has not increased trust or confidence in government. It will take major improvements in government performance in order for the public to transform itself into trusting and non-cynical citizens (West, 2004). However, there is some evidence that more exposure to eGovernment leads to greater confidence in the online public sector.

V. The European eGovernment Action Plan

Though earlier reference was made to the Action Plans issued by the European Commission over the past two decades, we come back to the eGovernment Action Plan 2011-2015 to examine the ambitions of the programme from a strategic point of view. Both the European eGovernment Action Plan 2011-15 and the Malmö Ministerial Declaration on eGovernment support the use of ICT in civic life. But also the Europe for Citizens Program (2007-2013) promoted initiatives that simplify the active participation in the civic and democratic life of the European Union (Mahmood, 2014). The new action plan is looking to exploit the general capacities of ICT to promote smart administration, innovation and sustainability (Europa, 2000). The Digital Agenda for Europe sets eGovernment within a comprehensive set of measures intended to exploit the benefits of information and communication technologies (ICT) across Europe (European Commission, 2010). At a time of highly constrained public resources, ICT can help the public sector develop innovative ways of delivering services to citizens while releasing efficiencies and minimising costs (European Commission, 2010).

The European eGovernment Action Plan is the Commission's response to the Member-States' call for a shared eGovernment policy in the EU, as defined in the 2009 Malmö Ministerial Declaration on eGovernment (European Commission, 2009a). The European Commission has drawn an aspiring programme to work with Member-States' public systems to improve the services on offer via the internet (Euractiv, 2010). The new eGovernment Action Plan predicted no more or less than forty specific measures between 2011 and 2015, in order to enable citizens and businesses to use online facilities. The promotion of eGovernment is seen as a boost for Europe's competitiveness and public authorities to offer improved services cost-effectively (European Commission, 2010). At the heart of the Digital Agenda, the eGovernment services aimed to use information and communication technologies, in order to improve the access to public services for European citizens. The specific Digital Agenda goals include: a) to make eGovernment services more accessible for use, up to 50% of EU citizens and 80% of EU businesses by 2015 and b) to ensure that key public services are available online, as to facilitate online entrepreneurship from anywhere within the EU, and that citizens can study, work, reside and retire anywhere within the EU (European Commission, 2010).

Additionally, the European eGovernment Action Plan aim to simplify the eGovernment service with a new generation of open and flexible eGovernment services at local, regional, and national level. The Plan aimed to counterbalance discrepancies of online use between the Member-States and to open the way for citizen users to actively contribute to the form of online service, according to their needs. National governments have the most important role in the implementation of the Action Plan, whilst the Commission's main responsibility has been focused on improving the development of cross-border eGovernment services. This process includes establishing pre-conditions, such as interoperability, eSignatures and eidentification (European Commission, 2010). The Action Plan, specifically, draws attention to the following categories of action:

A. User empowerment includes services planned to satisfy users' needs, combined development of services, recycling of public information, enhanced transparency, and contribution of both citizens and business in policy-making (European Commission, 2010).

Empowering users includes European businesses, which means creating an environment, which promotes competitiveness and good business practice. In this context, the action of starting up a company should be simplified, to the extent of enjoying an efficient bureaucracy, and fewer obstacles that usually repress entrepreneurship in Europe. In the current economic climate this should be a priority, particularly for the smaller businesses, where administrative burdens are excessively high and capacity is low. Empowering users also include citizens, meaning encouraging and motivating citizens to become engaged users of government services. For instance, the action of finding a job should focus on the administrative procedures and online services that support people, who have lost a job and help to return them into the productive economy.

B. The strengthening of the Internal Market includes seamless services for businesses, improvement of the personal mobility scheme, and EU-wide application of cross-border services (European Commission, 2010).

The majority of public services, which are available online do not work across borders or involve burdensome procedures to be accessible. This creates problems to people from one EU country that want to access public services in another country than the one they live in. Also, this reduces severely the mobility of businesses and citizens. To support the Internal Market, governments should develop 'seamless' services for entrepreneurs and individuals to be able to set up business, to study, work, receive health care and retire anywhere in the European Union (European Commission, 2010a).

C. Improvement of the efficiency and effectiveness of public administrations includes enriching organisational processes, minimising of administrative problems, Green Government (European Commission, 2010).

For the purposes of efficiency and effectiveness, the importance of diligent coordination and collaboration should be highlighted. No matter the governance structure of a country, careful and constant coordination of eGovernment activities and collaboration are key factors to achieve steady progress (CapGemini et al, 2010). The success in achieving a shift from traditional public service to user centric online public services depends greatly on the countries' success to manage that shift internationally and intra-nationally. It makes clear why policy matters (European Commission, 2014a). There are important political and economic reasons to support European collaboration on eGovernment. Joint action on eGovernment policies can contribute to overcoming the current economic crisis by using public resources more efficiently and reducing public expenditures (European Commission, 2010). eGovernment services can be developed more economically by coordinating and pooling public and private resources (European Commission, 2010). It is vital for every country to address the cultural and institutional factors that make administrations operate as they do, such as funding arrangements, accountability issues, insufficient incentives to pioneering and risk averseness etc.

D. Creating pre-conditions for evolving eGovernment includes open specifications and interoperability, as well as establishment of key enablers (European Commission, 2010).

Obviously, these policy priorities cannot be implemented without the support of technical solutions, which ensure security and privacy, without compromising interoperability. The Digital Agenda for Europe 2020 quotes both "Interoperability and Standards" and "Trust and Security" as core pillars for progress in Europe (among 7 pillars adopted in 2012, including digital single market, fast internet, research and innovation, digital literacy and ICT-enabled benefits). The considerations made the point that there is a need to propose legislation on ICT interoperability, promote standard-setting rules and adopt a European Interoperability Strategy and Framework (European Commission, 2009). ISA (Interoperability Solutions for European Public Administrations) is the European Commission's program to improve interoperability among public administrations in EU Member-States. ISA runs from 2010 to 2015 and has a financial budget of 164m euros, to coordinate eGovernment activities, and particularly transaction, through establishing common frameworks in support of interoperability and promoting reusable generic tools and common services (European Commission, 2014). The evaluation of the program by ISA metrics demonstrates an overall satisfactory degree of implementation of actions, with more than 84% of actions

being in a 'good' track, 11.36% needing further attention and a small 4.54% causing concern of delay (European Commission, 2014c).

Additionally, the current state of IT enablers in the European Union countries remains problematic. The availability of back office enablers is great; however more is required to ensure an administrative transition from paper-based to digital service provision. Key enablers define the extent to which a number of necessary technical preconditions are met (European Commission, 2014a). According to European Commission (2009), these include:

- a. Electronic Identification (eID), to secure access to online services
- b. Electronic Documents (eDocuments), to ensure information is transmitted through authenticated documents
- c. Authentic sources, to retrieve customer data through base registries
- d. Electronic Safe (eSafe), to use secure electronic means for the storage and retrieval of information
- e. Single Sign On (SSO), to enable the access to multiple systems with one log on

The enablers in place need to evolve further: the Electronic Identification (eIDs) needs to become eSignature enabled, the coverage of Single Sign On needs to be extended to additional administrations and services, and secure eDelivery or Electronic Safe mechanisms to provide requested services online (CapGemini et al, 2010). When compared to the building blocks that are available, actual usage of the enablers in eGovernment service appears low. Additionally, there is lack of monitoring of the adoption, usability and impact of key enablers. Only about half of the countries (EE, PT, AT, LT, ES, FR, FI, LV, SE, DK, NO, SI, NL, TR, BE, MT) are monitoring the usage of these enablers (European Commission, 2014a).

Strengthening international collaboration, on a European level, in order to create the necessary frameworks for the encouragement of ICT professionalism, is an important step forward and needs to continue (European Commission, 2014a). As we saw earlier, on an EU level there is major recognition of the importance of collaborative eGovernment, but no policy actions have been proposed yet. The overall review of individual Member-States' policies on collaborative service delivery show that there is no EU country having a policy action in this field, excluding legislation to open and public sector information data (Osimo et al, 2012). Collaboration in eGovernment is not to date mentioned as a priority in any policy document under study (Osimo et al, 2012). To match the potential of the digital revolution and keep up with global competition, Europe needs to transform the skills, knowledge and capability of the workforce. Working together, industry, education and government have the power to ensure long-term action and success that will deliver jobs, competitiveness and productivity growth (McCormack, 2014).

VI. The Open Government approach

The Open Government approach, which was initiated by the Open Government Partnership (OGP) in 2011, is a global effort to improve the government services. Improvement includes more transparent, effective and accountable governments, consisting from institutions that authorize people and are proactive to their concerns. OGP originally aims to secure actual commitments from governments on their role to promote transparency and accountability, empower citizens, fight against corruption and bring in new technologies to a new way of governance (Open Government Partnership, 2014).

More than half of the EU Member-States (UK, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Netherlands, Romania, Slovak Republic, Spain and Sweden) had joined the Open Government Partnership by September 20, 2011. The countries signed the Open Government Declaration and committed in the delivery of a country action plan developed with public consultation in March 2012, as well as to individual reporting and follow up on their progress (Osimo et al, 2012). The OGP declaration signed calls for the increase of accessibility of public information data and increasing of civic participation in government activities (Open Government Partnership, 2014). The Open Government Partnership has unquestionably offered a good practice example of government management drove the participating countries to extend their engagement. However, not all EU Member-States have joined the partnership, which created the fear of augmenting already existing differences in open data and citizen engagement in the EU. The introduction of Open Data policy on the European level aimed to prevent such inconsistencies.

The open government approach can enable the online transformation that Europe is in need of. This pattern is accomplished by opening up public data and services and simplifying collaboration for the design, production and delivery of public service. It also involves making government processes and decisions open, in order to raise citizen participation and engagement (European Commission, 2009). Open data can enable the development of new services, encourage new markets, businesses and jobs, by promoting information provided in original data by government. The use of big data in Europe's largest governments will have an estimated reduction of administrative costs by 15% to 20%. Open and integrated public services can be used by different administrations, as well as by businesses and citizens, in order to deliver personalised, user-friendly and innovative services (European Commission, 2009).

The Commission is focusing on creating value through reuse of a specific type of data - public sector information or government data. That includes the information that public bodies produce, collect or pay for. For example, geographical information, statistics, data from publicly funded research and online books from libraries. Former Vice President of the European Commission, Neelie Kroes, has outlined the importance of open data for the future of Europe: "A better use of data will contribute to smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, the creation of jobs and the promotion of web-entrepreneurship and start-ups throughout the EU. We estimate that overall economic gains from significantly reducing the barriers to reusing such government-held data can amount to € 40bn a year for the entire EU. While data held by any kind of entity is potentially interesting, our open data policy starts with opening up data collected and held by government institutions, ranging from the meteorological institutes to economic analyses produced by statistical offices. Such data has already been paid for by the taxpayer and should be therefore available for reuse" (Kroes, 2013).

The progress made on this field already can be called rather satisfactory. The open data enthusiasts have organised open data camps, hackathons and other community building events. Furthermore, some EU countries (e.g. UK, Denmark etc.) put in place guidelines for public data reuse on the national or regional level (National Archives, 2013; Horst, 2014). As a result of an ongoing coordination, all EU countries have adopted an open data strategy even though there are still important differences in the level of commitment. The European Public Sector Information Platform directive (PSI) has been transferred by all EU Member-States, and came up with national legislation to enable its use (Osimo et al, 2012). The PSI Directive is one of the key pillars of the open data policy, for two reasons; on a practical level, it creates certain rights for re-users: that all will be treated equally, that administrative charges will not surpass certain limits, that charges and licensing conditions will be made transparent. On a broader lever, the PSI Directive is active in altering the culture inside public administrations towards greater openness (Kroes, 2013). Additionally, some of the Member-States have expanded their legislations reinforcing the re-use rules for their countries, e.g. France (Joshi, 2011) promoting the open data re-use.

Finally, according to the 11th eGovernment Benchmark report, there is room for improvement in the field of transparency. The overall EU score on the transparency indicator was only 48%, which is mainly due to insufficient information provided to users during delivery of eGovernment services (European Commission, 2014a). The indicator examines the extent to which governments are transparent about their own responsibilities and performance, the service delivery and the personal data involved (European Commission, 2014a). Transparency levels are somewhat higher when it comes to provision of institutional information or administrations, or information concerning the personal data involved in service delivery (European Commission, 2014a). Nevertheless, there is still a long way to go to reach a level of fully open and transparent public services and organizations. In general, transparency is an important element for increasing the take up of online public services as well. Since transparency helps to build the trust of citizens in public administrations, the data show that this feature is still not sufficiently at the center of eGovernment strategies for many governments (European Commission, 2014). As an innovative, participatory and ambitious obviously initiative, the open government approach gives EU citizens a tool to improved accountability at EU level and increases the EU's new leaders commitment to a more open, transparent and accountable European Union.

VII. Conclusions

Although there is an obvious shift of governmental services from traditional networks to web-based ones, a delay in evolution of online services is apparent in Europe. The work done on the development of eGovernment services and the different points of view on the concept of eGovernment provide us with a list of aspects, standards and scopes on the issue. In this article, we covered a number of perspectives (political, technical, and regulatory) that view the development of online services from a governmental portal. Our effort was to explore the aspects and scopes that influence the quality of the offered services and the consequential satisfaction of the citizens.

Europe has demonstrated the ability to address the challenges ahead. This is already happening, through the number of ambitious actions plans since the beginning of the 22nd century, which led the European states in the information age. However, there is still need for a more synchronised approach. Europe's future lies in the hands of its citizens. National initiatives bear, always, huge importance for the direction and development of policies, but a coordinated pan-European direction will increase Europe's global leadership. At the same time, information age societies should be able to facilitate the will of their citizens. Democratic outcomes should be taken into consideration in forthcoming eGovernment efforts and funding. We have, in earlier chapter, illustrated a number of factors that validate the values of democratic commitment, supported by ICT tools and strategies. We can develop the democratic concept and involve citizens more with ICTs, as soon as we realize not only the potential, but also the reality of online applications.

Governments have the first word in designing and implementing social policies to solve societal problems. Unlike business, they are not stalled by the need to deliver short term results, but they can plan and implement for the long term. It has become evident from our analysis that EU actions secure only a slow progress in eGovernment issues, which will not deliver on the advantage that Europe has to offer. Brand new and innovative ways are in need to achieve better outcomes and meet the expectations of governments, stakeholders and citizens. The experience gained from existing eGovernment projects in Europe should be used to improve and upgrade the capacities of future systems, as well as to draw recommendations on their social value. The continuous development of eGovernment training programmes for public services and business, the promotion of online learning and orchestrated communication efforts to raise awareness on the social benefits of eGovernment will help to gradually build social trust, which will allow eGovernment to grow further in Europe.

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An Assessment of the Principle of *Socialism in One Country* from the Perspective of the International System

Muhammet Savaş KAFKASYALI

Kirikkale University - Turkey.
Hasan BEKDEŞ

Sakarya University - Turkey.

Abstract

When Stalin stepped to head the Soviet Union the idea of socialism in one country which he propounded established both a theoretical ground for the state's applications in the next term and also determined the fate of socialism. The Bolshevik revolution which was the first socialist revolution to take place had developed in the light of very significant discussions and taken form with the different ideas of many philosophers. The socialist ideas which emerged as a rebellion against the current international system and the international economic system which is perhaps the most important part of this system were released from being confined in minds, articles and speeches and finally found a habitat for themselves when they were put into practice with the revolution in Russia. When a theory or ideology is put into practice it is accompanied with various issues which must be settled. When a theory is put into practice, the understanding and approach of the implementers to the theory become as important as the theory itself. Furthermore, the characteristics of the application area of the theory, its form of application and the international system where the application will be included also required a very good assessment. While the problems of the Bolshevik Revolution incurring from the implementation of the socialist ideology on the Russian community and on the communities that were occupied later were attempted to be resolved in line with a theory-practice relationship the understanding of socialism in one country declared by Stalin immediately in the aftermath of Lenin in 1924 generated different problems of a various nature in addition to the current ones. This change has been studied from many angles to date and various views on the causes and effects have been presented. However, limiting the socialist ideology which emerged to counter the international system and as an alternative to this system with a perspective which encompasses the world with the understanding of socialism in one country can be best explained in terms of its relationship with this system. From this viewpoint our study differs from previous ones because it examines the idea of socialism in one country and its application in terms of the structure and functioning of the international system. The problematic of the study consists of the understanding of how the transition from 'continuous revolution' or 'socialism in the whole world' into socialism in one country is affected by the international system.

Keywords: Assessment, Principle of *Socialism*, International System

Introduction

The fundamental assertions of our study on the impact of the current international system on the principle of *socialism in one country* are as follows: *the principle of socialism in one country*,

- Is not an ideology which has been thoroughly examined and which has been propounded and implemented after it had been considered appropriate within the framework of the overall socialist theory.
- Is a reflection of the lack of success in exporting the regime by the Soviet Union.
- It has been viewed as the only way that the Soviet Union can maintain its existence within the international system with its current regime.
- It is one of the most significant examples of the structures which are contrary to the structure and operation or structures with the possibility of contrariness within the system mechanism of the international system with the pressure elements of conversion.

In order to verify these claims first it is necessary to investigate what the ideology of *the principle of socialism in one country* means in terms of the structure and operation of the international system, how the system is influenced by the inception-adoption-implementation process of the ideology of *the principle of socialism in one country*. Secondly the situation in the first article and the contents of articles two and three which are the reasons for this situation, in other words that the ideology of *the principle of socialism in one country* was not developed in accordance with a theoretical approach which complies with the general principles of socialism and that there has been no essential application to establish socialism throughout the world and that these account for the lack of success in exporting the regime and it will be shown that this is the result of regarding the current regime of the Soviet Union as the only way it can sustain its existence within the international system.

The Ideology of Socialism/Communism and the Internationality of Revolution

Two significant elements structuring the ideas asserted by Marx and Engels must not be overlooked when assessing their ideas. The first one is that like with all opinions their views are incurred by their own perspectives and secondly by the overall characteristics of the relevant era. Considering that the views they portray are a criticism of the current capitalist system it is clear that these views cannot be reviewed independently from the system which was dominant at the time. Meanwhile the outlooks of Marx and Engels who are the masters of this reactionary outlook and their positions are the mainstay of this ideology. Subsequently this outlook underwent various changes due to the differences in perspectives and the differences in the circumstances of the interpreting individuals and Marx and Engels summarized their own views on this outlook as follows:

Communism is for us not a state of affairs which is to be established, an ideal to which reality [will] have to adjust itself. We call communism the real movement which abolishes the present state of things. The conditions of this movement result from the premises now in existence. (Marx, Engels, 1964, 47)

Marx who explains the history of societies with the materialist understanding of history which he has developed has classified the forms of society into a five phase evolutionary category based on the form of production: Primitive communal, slave, feudal, capitalist and communist. Four of these forms of society have realized, whereas communism which is the inevitable result of the development of society shall be realized. (Afansiev, 1990; Şenel, 1982, 14)

Marx who said, "the history of all societies to date is the history of class struggles" based the forms of society to date on the antagonism of the oppressing and oppressed classes. According to Marx the class differences which had manifested themselves in various forms of the societies of previous eras have not been eliminated in modern bourgeois societies. The most significant characteristic of this bourgeois era which generates new classes as well is that it has simplified the complex class antagonism observed in the societies of previous eras. Accordingly in the bourgeois era in which class antagonism has been simplified the society has been divided in a comprehensive sense into two camps: The bourgeois and the proletariat (Marx, Engels, 2010, 48-49).

According to Marx the proletariat which emerged as a result of the industrial revolution is the only class with a revolutionary character which stood against the bourgeois in the modern bourgeois era. While the other classes dissipated within the bourgeois system the proletariat which was a special product of this system continues to multiply in numbers along with the developing industry (Marx, Engels, 2010b, 58-60). The reason why Marx has put the proletariat in the center of the revolution is based on the fact that it has been established by the capitalist system per se and the reality that it is the basis of this system. Accordingly, the proletariat which is not included in the system nor involved in the interests of the bourgeois can change the form of production and realize a revolution. (Kagarlitskii, 2012, 29)

According to Marx a revolution which is realized with a communist consciousness and pioneered by the proletariat will not be like previously realized revolutions in which only the division has been changed while the activity processes have remained the same. Since a communist revolution is essentially directed at the activity process it will eliminate all classes

and in fact all nationalities. The reason for this is that the revolution will be executed by a class which is the manifestation of the elimination of all classes and all nationalities. (Marx, Engels, 2010a, 71)

Marx and Engels foresaw that the revolution would cover a historic era, that the structural (political, cultural etc.) processes would follow one another within a process and that finally the conversions would overlap on a worldwide basis (Claudin, 1990, 59). They believed that at the beginning of the process advanced capitalist countries which dominate the world markets would generate a social revolution together and they considered this mandatory for communism (Turan, 2010, 365). The reason why it is considered essential for a revolution to be realized in advanced capitalist countries in order to enable a world wide revolution is due to the fact that the material precondition of communism depends on the development of production powers. According to Marx when production powers do not develop shortage becomes a standing status, internal struggles start again and thus inevitably the old system is reinstated. For this reason the development of production forces is a practical precondition of communism. Here Marx approaches the development of production forces from a universal perspective. (Marx, Engels, 1977, 42)

This reality has not changed in terms of the views of Marx and Engels regarding Russia (the development of production forces). Marx affiliates a radical revolution with the historical conditions of economic development in the assessment of the book 'The State and Anarchy' by Bakunin and criticizes Bakunin for not understanding the economic conditions of social revolution (Marx, Engels, 1877b, 491-492).

Engels in return has criticized the assertion of Tkachov that social revolution is easier to execute in Western Europe because there are no bourgeois in Russia in his article titled 'On Social Relations in Russia':

The revolution that modern socialism strives to achieve is, briefly, the victory of the proletariat over the bourgeoisie and the establishment of a new organisation of society by the destruction of all class distinctions. This requires not only a proletariat to carry out this revolution, but also a bourgeoisie in whose hands the social productive forces have developed so far that they permit the final destruction of class distinctions. ... Hence a man who says that this revolution can be more easily carried out in a country where, *although* there is no proletariat, there is no bourgeoisie *either*, only proves that he has still to learn the ABC of socialism. (Engels, 1874)

In the preface of the Russian version of the 'Communist Manifesto' Marx and Engels have given the following answers to the questions 'should the Russian society (obchshina) transit directly to a higher level, that is into communist land ownership? Or on the contrary pass through the historical development which is characteristic of the West?':

In the present time there is only one answer to be given to this question: If the Russian revolution is going to serve the Western proletariat revolution by giving a signal and if they complement one another present day land ownership of the Russian society may be the starting point of the development of communism. (Marx, Engels, 1950, 8)

The Principle of Socialism in One Country and World Revolution

The lack of success of the revolutionary initiatives in Europe during 1918-23 (Marcuse, 1968, 42), was a major shock to the faith that the Bolshevik leaders had in the European revolution (Carr, 215-216). Particularly the severe suppression of the communist movement in Germany made the Bolshevik leaders review the idea of a world revolution one more time and the debate involving the problem of World revolution turned into a debate on whether the final victory of socialism was possible in a one country during the years following the demise of Lenin. (Claudin, 1990, 85)

The debate on whether it was possible to establish socialism in one country started with the promulgation of the *socialism in one country* theory by Party General Secretary Josef Stalin (Kapchenko, 106). In the forthcoming years the *socialism in one country* theory which became the official doctrine of Komintern as well as the official doctrine of the Soviet Union was articulated by Stalin for the first time towards the end of 1924 (Claudin, 1990, 89). In May 1924 in his booklet 'The Basics

of Leninism' (Ob Osnovakh Leninizma) Stalin wrote that the proletariat of any country could become a power in compliance with the general line of Marxism, however they would not succeed in establishing a socialist economic order in one country; by the end of the same year he had changed his mind and declared that the first edition of the book should be disregarded and a new booklet was published. In this new booklet which was published under the title of "The Problems of Leninism" (Voprosy Leninizma) contrary to the arguments put forth in the first booklet Stalin purported that it was possible to establish socialism in one country. (Deutscher, 408; Claudin, 1990, 86; Trotsky, 2006, 399-400)

Stalin separated the conditions of establishing socialism into internal (Soviet Union) and external (international) elements and attempted to establish the thesis of absolute victory of socialism in one country in affiliation with the propounded theory of *socialism in one country*. (Kapchenko, 102)

Stalin said that "the establishment of a socialist society by the proletariat who have lead the peasantry to victory and consolidated their power is possible and mandatory" (Stalin, 1930, 33) and that all the prerequisites to establish a socialist society in the Soviet Union were available and explained the meaning of the victory of socialism in one country in his booklet "The Problems of Leninism" as follows:

It means the possibility of solving the contradictions between the proletariat and the peasantry by means of the internal forces of our country, the possibility of the proletariat seizing power and using that power to build a complete socialist society in our country, with the sympathy and the support of the proletarians of other countries, but without the preliminary victory of the proletarian revolution in other countries.

Without such a possibility, building socialism is building without prospects, building without being sure that socialism will be completely built. It is no use engaging in building socialism without being sure that we can build it completely, without being sure that the technical backwardness of our country is not an *insuperable* obstacle to the building of a complete socialist society. To deny such a possibility means disbelief in the cause of building socialism, departure from Leninism. (Stalin, 1950, 213)

According to Stalin there are two forms of conflict/antagonism facing the Soviet Union: The internal conflicts between the existing peasantry and the proletariat in the Soviet Union (Marcuse, 109) and the external conflicts between the Soviet Union and all other capitalist countries. Accordingly Stalin predicted that the internal conflicts could be completely overcome with the strength of one country and that the external conflicts of the proletariat of many countries required to overcome these conflicts should not be confused with the internal conflicts. Likewise according to Stalin those who confused these issues with one another were incorrigible opportunists who were violating Leninism. (Stalin, 1930, 272)

Stalin indicates that while capitalism continued to exist in developed capitalist countries the October Revolution and its proletariat dictatorship consolidated the victory of socialism in countries which were less developed in terms of capitalism and processed this situation as a phenomenon (Stalin, 1995, 326). In this context Stalin asserted that the seven year history of the proletariat revolution in Russia abolished the theory of the impossibility of the victory of socialism in one country and pointed out that the paths of development of World revolution, that is the victory of revolution in one country was not as simple as it used to be. Stalin indicated that formerly revolution was usually affiliated with the equal maturation of the elements of socialism in advanced capitalist countries and that now this view must undergo some essential changes. According to Stalin because of the events before the monopoly development of capitalism Marx and Engels were unaware of the law of uneven development of capitalist countries which introduced a new opportunity: the victory of socialism in countries one by one. (Stalin, 1995, 356-57).

Stalin argued that the most likely view on the development of world revolution was the breaking away of a series of countries with a revolutionary approach from the imperialist states system. Stalin predicted that thus centers of socialism in the form of Soviet countries would be established one by one and these centers would establish a system and that this system would be confronted with a system established in the same way by centers of imperialism and that the struggle between them would establish the development history of world revolution. (Stalin, 1995, 358-59).

The most severe criticism regarding the dissertation of Stalin on the feasibility of establishing socialism in one country came from his theoretical component (Claudin, 1990, 93) within the party which was Trotsky. Trotsky who was personally depicted as the most resourceful person in the party central committee by Lenin has indicated since his early writings that socialism in one country could not be established in compliance with the general Marxist line (Lenin, 1970, 345). In the pamphlet written in 1905 titled "Conclusions and Perspectives" (Itogi i perspektivi) he indicated that without direct state support from the European proletariat the working class in Russia would not be able to maintain power and that the temporary sovereignty could not be transformed into a long term socialist dictatorship. In the book titled "The Year 1905" it was foreseen that if a revolution carried out in countries which were not well developed in capitalizing remained within a national framework it would be mired in conflicts and the way out would only be possible with a world revolution:

Once it achieves power, the social-democratic party will be faced with a profound contradiction which cannot be resolved by naïve references to "democratic dictatorship." "Self-limitation" by a workers' government would mean nothing other than the betrayal of the interests of the unemployed and strikers - more, of the whole proletariat in the name of the establishment of a republic. The revolutionary authorities will be confronted with the objective problems of socialism, but the solution of these problems will, at a certain stage, be prevented by the country's economic backwardness. There is no way out from this contradiction within the framework of a national revolution. (Trotsky, 195-96)

Trotsky indicated that toward the end of 1924 Russia had been discovered to be a country which could suddenly establish a socialist society with its own power and that it was not correct to attribute the theory to Lenin. Trotsky who was in a constant argument with the advocates of *socialism in one country*¹ criticized Stalin at the IKKI Extended Seventh Plenum (Ispolnitel'nogo Komiteta Kommunisticheskogo Internatsionala) held in 1926 for identifying the victory of *socialism in one country* with the renewability of the bourgeois of a country. (Puti Mirovoi Revolyutsii, 1927)

When the power struggles within the party resulted in the absolute dominance of Stalin over the party² this was accompanied with the theoretical discussions regarding the sovereignty of *socialism in one country*. At the same time the theory of socialism in one country became the official doctrine of Komintern at the Sixth Congress of Komintern held in 1928 and the establishment of socialism in the USSR was viewed by Komintern as an essential determining factor of World revolution. As of this date communist parties were obliged to determine their strategies and tactics primarily according to Soviet policies. (Claudin, 1990, 92)

While the Hitler administration was overwhelming the Communists in Germany although events and policies such as the extension of the Soviet-German treaty dated 1926 and the statement by Germany that the ongoing internal events in Germany would have no impact on Soviet-German affairs (Carr, 2010a, 106-123), the Soviets membership in the UN, an imperialist state's support to armed units (Carr, 2010a, 187-8), "using the problem of Spain as material for a treaty to be drawn with England and France (Carr, 2010b, 13) caused different voices to be raised from time to time (Carr, 2010a, 273) they were generally supported by Komintern. According to Carr these phenomenon were a clear indication of the association of Komintern with Soviet policies which started with the Sixth congress of Komintern in 1928 and peaked with the Seventh congress in 1935 (Carr, 2010, 498). Furthermore Carr indicates that during the Seventh Congress of Komintern the world revolution which had only been repeated as a ritual for a long time and which had turned into a creed (Carr, 2010a, 188) had been pushed from the center of the stage to the outskirts (Carr, 2010a, 497). It is evident that all the

¹ One of these arguments took place during the 15th Party Conference held in the fall of 1926. When Bukharin said that if international works could be isolated socialism could be established in the Soviet country Trotsky gave his famous answer which put a smile on the faces of the members of the Congress: "Did you hear that? If we can isolate ourselves from international works we can establish socialism in our country. Yes, if we isolate ourselves this is possible. But it is not possible to become isolated!.. It is possible to walk about naked in January in Moscow if you can isolate yourself from the cold weather and the police. But if you undergo this experience you will see that it is not possible to isolate oneself from the cold weather or the police."

² Stalin's absolute dominance over the party began with a decisive victory at the 15th Party Congress held in 1927. As a result of the liquidations executed in subsequent years the only thing left from Lenin's Politbureau was Stalin himself. (Trotsky, 2006, p. 134.)

reports, all speeches and all arguments presented at the Seventh Congress of Komintern were geared at advocating the USSR. In this context since the alliances established by the Soviets with imperialist forces were not compatible with world revolution they were not included in the world revolution strategy at the Seventh Congress (Claudin, 1990a, 248). Furthermore although attempts had been made to resolve the problem of how the policies to be implemented by the communists of the countries with potential revolutionary developments would coincide with the policies of the Soviet Union which was allied with their own bourgeois governments with some weak theoretical solutions, in reality not much thought had been given to these problems. The fact is that capitalist countries were not in the process of developing the revolutionary struggle but to defend the USSR and ensure its development. (Claudin, 1990a, 247)

Kapchenko explains this situation by saying that Stalin never viewed world revolution as a main objective and instead assessed it as a tool under the orders of the Soviets to protect the national interests of the Soviet Union (Kapchenko, 2005, 104). In 1939 the Soviets made a pact with Germany which had a new impact on Komintern. Claudin indicated that as a result of this pact the turn executed by Komintern was the most contrary turn in terms of the labor class movement so far (Claudin, 1990, 368) and that because of this pact the revolutionary movement had been subjugated to the high interests of the Soviets and that the Communist International had been sacrificed for the great alliance during the Second World War. (Claudin, 1990a, 12)

Whereas even during the years when *socialism in one country* emerged Troçki indicated that symbolized the efforts of saving Soviet foreign policy from the obligations of world revolution. Nevertheless Stalin and those bureaucrats who were affiliated with him did not abandon the Communist International because they said that they wanted to place it into the orbit of Soviet foreign policy. In 1936 Trotsky said, "At this moment the Communist International is in the service of Soviet foreign policy, it comprises a tool which is ready at all times for any kind of service". (Trotsky, 2006, 257-8)

In 1934 in his speech at the 17th Party Congress Stalin declared that the capitalist economy was being completely purged in the Soviet Union and that a socialist social-economic order had gained limitless dominancy in the whole national economy and that the country had established socialism (Stalin, 1992, 272). He said that they were ready to do what was necessary without hesitation on behalf of the interests of the USSR and 'in the past and today we have and will determine a direction for the USSR and only for the USSR'. (Stalin, 1992, 267)

In 1936 Stalin was interviewed by an American journalist named Roy Howard and the American journalist referred to his previous answer with the question "does your answer mean that the Soviet Union has abandoned its intent and plan to realize the World revolution" to which he replied, "that was never our intention or plan". (Izdatel'stvo Partizdat, 1937, 8)

Upon the words of Stalin in the interview with the American journalist Trotsky would say in his socialism in one country theory that 'a transition into 'revolution in one country' is natural'. (Trotsky, 2006, 277)

Kapchenko indicates that the *socialism in one country* theory propounded by Stalin and which prescribes that it is possible to establish socialism in one country is generally assessed in terms of power struggles within the party in literature and that this form of assessment was incomplete. According to Kapchenko *socialism in one country* covers the different ideas of Stalin which have been propounded on the kind of development path the Soviet country should follow in the future. Therefore Kapchenko asserts that attempting to explain this theory as merely intra-party power struggles independently from world opinions by those who prepared it is a fascistic approach. (Kapchenko, 2005, 95)

Carr on the other hand views the *socialism in one country* theory declared in Soviet Russia in 1924 as the product of the obvious lack of success of the Soviet regime in establishing itself in other countries. (Carr, 2010, 116-7)

Claudin indicates that the *socialism in one country* theory was propounded by Lenin and thus the discourse that Lenin revised Marx does not comply with historical reality. According to him this was manufactured by Stalin to support his own dissertation. Claudin argues that as a result of confusing the two concepts which are used in the same meaning with one another has resulted in Stalin's deviation of Lenin's ideas in this subject. Claudin indicates that these concepts which are confused are the concepts of social and political revolution. Social revolution prescribes the socialist conversion of economic and social structures and political and cultural supra structures whereas political revolution stipulates that power

is seized by the labor class. Claudin purports that "Socialist revolution" comprises the primary meaning of the concept, the second meaning as a whole while the second meaning comprises a part of the primary one. Accordingly Claudin indicates that Lenin has used the phrases of 'revolution in a comprehensive sense' and 'revolution in a limited sense' to purport the difference between the meaning of the concept of "revolution". (Claudin, 1990, 58-9)

According to Trotsky the rise of *socialism in one country* ideology is inversely proportional to the defeat of the proletariat. Trotsky indicates that the lack of success of the riots in Bulgaria in 1923, the withdrawal of the workers in Germany and the failure of the general strike in England in 1926 disillusioned the masses in the world in terms of their trust in world revolution and like a beacon this prepared the ground for the rise of the Soviet bureaucracy portrayed as the only path to redemption. (Trotsky, 2006, 127)

International Relations and *Socialism in One Country*: Casting a Cloud over a Theoretical Perspective

The theoretical superiority of Socialism/Marxism which rebels against the current international system in addition to providing an alternative during its emergence and development process as a discipline of International Relations (at least in terms of opportunities) has remained outside the scope of key debates in the area of international relations although it could have triumphed. Not only was the international relations theory represented by the USSR not strengthened nor used as a theoretical challenge including its opportunities the country withdrew into itself because of the *socialism in one country* principle. During the ongoing fervent idealism-realism debate in the area of international relations and even during the theoretical debates regarding international relations in subsequent terms Marxism/socialism in its current state were abandoned to the hegemony of British-American philosophers who had propounded and executed the debates in this area. International relations emerged in the UK as the sovereign power of the nineteenth century and developed in America, the sovereign power of the twentieth century (Uzgel, 2004, 28). Indeed Holsti called attention to the erratic national distribution in this area and mentioned 'National Academic Hegemony' of America in this respect. (Holsti, 1985, 12-3)

The fact that realist and idealist approaches of British-American origin dominate the area of international relations has resulted in either the lack of emerging alternative approaches or their generation and emergence within themselves. For this reason these approaches and theories at least with the depicted aspects have carried out a certain function in the obstruction of international relations in following a more meaningful development line. Thus discussion about the international system in a critical way was prevented to a significant degree. R. B. J. Walker asserts that theories regarding traditional international relations and particularly the fact that realism/neorealism which have influenced this discipline for a long time lack self-explanation are important because they prevent the emergence of other theories and approaches (Walker, 1992, 11). In other words international relations theories have become one of the tools of the global hegemonic project and its practices. In the words of Jim George theory has been put into practice. (George, 1994)

By looking at the decisiveness or the dominance of the USA regarding the international system from a different perspective it is possible to determine the connection between the structure of the international system and the needs of the dominant force and the periods when the international relations theories emerged with concrete examples. In this context Robert Cox purports that it is no coincidence that Hans Morgenthau and Kenneth Waltz developed their approaches during the Cold War era. The Realist perspective of Morgenthau which affiliated international relations with the desire of human nature to gain power and viewed international policies as a power struggle functioned as an ideological guide for US foreign policy in the beginning of the Cold War. The predominantly economic developments in the international area and particularly the defeat of the US in Vietnam against an insubstantial state necessitated the revision of realism and thus the neorealist perspective by Waltz the structure of which was also defined and which argues that the anarchic structure of the international system compels states to act in the same direction emerged. (Uzgel, 2004, 32-33)

It is observed that the era when international relations were incepted is marked by the British and the Americans and that they steer the intellectual course of events in this area. In the very beginning the UK and the USA started to establish 'intellectual centers' to ensure that the old outlook which emphasized a balance of power of the social elite in international

relations was replaced within the framework of their understanding and steered in accordance with their interests. The most important ones among them are the Royal Institute of International Relations in the UK and the Council of Foreign Relations established in the USA. In addition to the intellectual centers organizations such as the Carnegie Foundation, the Rockefeller Foundations and later the Ford Foundation which supported studies on international relations emerged during this era (Olson, Groom, 1991, 71-72). During this era 'special intellectual centers' undertook a more prominent role in the area of international relations than universities.

The first departments and chairs for international relations were established primarily in universities in the UK and the USA. The first international relations chair was established in the University College of Wales in Aberystwyth, Wales in the name of US President Wilson (Wilson Chair of International Politics) in 1919. This chair was followed by the London School of Economics established in 1923 in London and the Montague Burton chair established in Oxford in 1930. During this time international relations were not instructed in independent departments in the US but included in the Political Science departments. Independent international relations departments in the US started to increase after the Second World War (Yurdusev, 2004, 26). The noteworthy issue here is that in parallel with the supremacy of the UK which was the biggest power in the international system in terms of international policies was also a pioneer in the area of international relations and when the supremacy over the system was transferred to the US the pioneer status in the area of international relations was also transferred to the Americans (Eralp, 2004, 72). In international relations in addition to the determination of policies and implementation skills the power which is able to develop theories that are legitimization tools in a way and ensure that these theories are adopted by the whole world becomes the greatest power in the system. The UK and the USA had not only become economic and military powers, as the superior powers in the areas of ideology and science they also achieved the opportunity to determine the structure and steer the functions of the system (Hoffmann, 1977). On the other hand although the Soviet Union was the second biggest power in the system claiming to be a socialist state and the representative of socialism it was unable to present a theory on international relations which propounded the views of the socialist ideology they had adopted regarding international relations. The main reason for this was that after the revolution while the Soviet Union was attempting to take steps in line with the ideology of socialism in the whole world and develop policies/ideology the country had adopted the principle of *socialism in one country* with Stalin and introverted into themselves.

The introversion of the Soviet Union in line with the principle of *socialism in one country* could not prevent the British-American union from dominating the international system as well as the concomitant determination of the international relations discipline's theoretical perspective. Indeed during the process when international relations were rapidly developing in the UK and the USA and becoming effective worldwide no efforts to be effective in this area were observed in the Soviet Union.¹

The studies of international relations in the Soviet Union can be divided into three periods including the Russian Federation. The first period started in the 60's and continued into the mid-80s. During this period international relations separated from the Soviet Social Sciences and became a discipline with its own experts. During this first period international relations were characterized by three disciplines: the history of diplomacy, International Law and International Economic Relations. The works of this period did not analyze international relations in an integrated way. The analyses which focused on the foreign policies of separate states did/could not know their relations with the system in practice. The necessity to integrate these separate disciplines in order to study international relations was only voiced towards the end of the 1960's. Yet these discussions were not geared at propounding a single discipline from these three disciplines, it was geared at ensuring the integration of the disciplines without disrupting their autonomy and ensuring information flow.

Another reason why international relations were not propounded as an independent discipline is that traditionally the Soviet Social Sciences had been separated into 'universities' and 'academies'. There was no affiliation between the experts at

¹ In an interview given by R. N. Dolnykova one of the international relations experts of the Soviet union era during the 'perestroika' period said that the theoretical studies in the area of international relations in America was much more advanced than in the Soviet Union and that so far he did not recall the existence of serious theoretical study in the Soviet Union which would advance them. (Novikov, 236)

universities and the scientists in academic institutes. Scientific research involving International relations were executed by the experts primarily by MGIMO and the experts in the universities of Moscow, Leningrad and Kazan; Scientific research involving International relations in academia were carried out by the America and Canada Institute affiliated with IMEMO, the Latin America Institute, the Africa Institute, the Orientalism Institute, the International Labor Movement Institute, the World Socialist System Economics Institute. Furthermore through the academy the affiliations and relations between the experts of international relations who carry out the international studies and the scientific community of the world have been kept under control.

There is no doubt that the biggest obstacle in the development of the discipline of international relations has been the dogmatic approach of the Marxist-Leninist understanding which has been dominant in the social studies of the Soviet Union. This dogmatic outlook which views the world as an ongoing arena of conflict between socialism and capitalism and has a negative approach for scientific theories and methodologies which are not Marxist has prevented the establishment of a productive relationship with its representatives. However due to the war declared against bourgeois sciences, due to the 'malicious' bourgeois nature of sociology and political science they were never officially recognized.

In order to get the opportunity of determination and steering international relations and the international system in practice yet acting with the knowledge that this was possible through the determination of their theory the Soviet Union responded to the US by first attempting to make a place for itself within the structure of the current international system and operation and subsequently abandoned all discourse against the structure and operation of this system and launched into competition as a part/unit of the system and incepted *socialism in one country* which was perhaps the most important step on this path.

The change in the attitude of the Soviet Union in time regarding the international organization movement of the League of Nations which is one of the most important elements in terms of the structure and operation of the international system and its representation was an indicator of the development from opposing and attempting to present an alternative to the international system and arriving at the point of integration with the system. The policy to control the international system through international organization was the most successful policy to establish a dominancy primarily by the UK and subsequently more blatantly by the US. Indeed after the League of Nations the US managed to determine and control the international economic, political and military orders of both the UN as well as the other sub-organizations.

In 1920 Lenin commented on the League of Nations by saying, "The League of Nations is a league on paper only. In practice they are a group of predators (monsters) who only fight and mistrust each other" (Lenin, 1981, 142). More importantly his statement in 1922 portrays his disposition against the League of Nations system: "It is natural that we oppose and are against the League of Nations because of our political and economic system." (Lenin, 1970, 241)

In 1919 the most popular heroes for the cartoonists of the western press were US President Wilson and the V.Ī. Lenin, the leader of the world's proletariat. In December 1918 Wilson proposed a new system consisting of 14 principles and in which self governing nation-states would unite under the auspices of the League of Nations to ensure peace in Europe and Asia. In March of 1919 Lenin propounded 21 conditions and called on the proletariat to break away from their nations and unite with Komintern through the communist party and the Soviet Government which was the homeland of the First World Proletariat and fight against the bourgeois. (Sirotkin, 2004, 11-12; Khodnev, 2012, 84)

Once again when Stalin was asked at a meeting with foreign labor delegations why the Soviet Union did not join the League of Nations he replied as follows:

The reasons why the Soviet Union does not join the League of Nations has been discussed enough in the written press. I can repeat some of these justifications here. The Soviet Union will not join the League of Nations because it does not want to undertake any responsibility in the exploitation of the colonies by the League of Nations for their imperialist policies. The Soviet Union refused to join the League of Nations because they are anti-imperialist, they oppose the exploitation of colonies. The Soviet Union refused to join the League of Nations because they did not want to take responsibility for the new military alliances for the acceleration of armament which would lead to new imperialist wars which were covered up by the

League of Nations. The Soviet Union refused to join the League of Nations because they are against imperialist wars.

Finally the Soviet Union refused to join the League of Nations because they did not want to be a part of the lobbying of the imperialist policies of the members of the League of Nations which were covered up. In the presence of this evidence is it surprising that the Soviet Union does not want to be a part of this public enemy farce? (Stalin, v. 10, 206-207)

However, in his reply to the question of New York Times reporter Duranti at a later date 'will your attitude regarding the League of Nations always be based on rejection?' Stalin gave the following answer which was a statement of major change:

No, not always and under all circumstances. Although Germany and Japan resigned from the League of Nations – or perhaps for this very reason - the League of Nations may become a factor which restrains war activities or obstructs them. If the League of Nations is able to act like a hill (obstruction, barrier) and somewhat complicate the matter of war and facilitate peace to a certain degree then we are not against the League of Nations. If historical events develop in this course, despite all its shortcomings our support of the League of Nations is not out of the question. (Stalin, 1951, 280)

Conclusion

It has been assumed that the Soviet Union developed with the revolution which it executed with a socialist ideology and that they developed their fundamental policies on the state that was based on this ideology. However, not long after the revolution and the establishment of the Soviet Union together with the principle of *Socialism in one country* which had been adopted in 1924 the state's loyalty to socialism and its feasibility became a subject of debate. In this study on one hand the principle of *Socialism in one country* has been studied in terms of its compliance with socialism together with the views of socialist philosophers on this matter and how much they have been affected by the international system.

Consequently *Socialism in one country* has been one of the most significant examples which has converted an understanding of the international system that is contrary to this system and rendered it harmless. As such, it is not only a principle which has been developed, adopted and implemented by Stalin in line with his own philosophy; it can be considered a path which is influenced by the system of international relations. Indeed this principle has parted company with USSR's target of extending socialist ideology throughout the world and the understanding of world revolution/continuous revolution and become a life space where it can continue to exist.

It is difficult to say that *Socialism in one country* has been developed in line with socialism and that it has been adopted because it is considered the best path for the development of socialism in the world. Furthermore it is not easy to assert that those who propounded and adopted the principle of *Socialism in one country* acted independently of the international system and that they took the interests of all the world's nations rather than the interests of the Soviet Union when they were developing it.

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Geopolitical Role of the South Caucasus Region

Tarana Amiraga Shirvanova

Abstract

After the end of the Cold War the South Caucasus became one of the significant regions. This region remained in history, as current "South Caucasus", which was formed from "Soviet Zagafgaziya". K. Haushofer named the south Caucasus geopolitically important region as Bosphorus, Gibraltar and etc. By attaining the control under Caucasus is possible to possess the big part of Eurasian continent. R. Gagachiladze wrote: "Today was proved the Caspian hydrocarbon supplies are more than indicated in 1980th years. These make the region significant day-by-day. Therefore, the Great play behalf of oil make regional actors to the locals." South Caucasus is one of the distinctive regions. The energetic factor plays main role. Azerbaijan being oil and gas state among South Caucasus states increase the interest of Europe. Moreover, the East boundary is bordered with Caspian Sea, and also by sea with Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan. These make the role of South Caucasus as bridge for central Asia. Azerbaijan has role as the "Key" for Central Asia. The territory of South Caucasus is 245600 km², population is 15 million. The borders of the region frame from north with Russia, from South with Great Middle East. Thus, region is close western civilization, located between rich North and poor (problematic) South. This region is the place, where lives lots of different nations with several mentalities. The majority of regional population is Muslims. The closeness to Middle East indicates the playing role of bridge between west and east (Muslim) world, and these countries are secular. From this point of view and according to states' mentality they are closer to western states. The modern world proves that South Caucasus has central role among the notion of West and East. It is also not secret the region playing role as "Sanitary cordon" fulfilled the function of "Iron bridge" from Baltic to Caspian and then to the Chinese borders. By this way the West tries to prevent either strengthening of Russia or creation of new Soviet Union. Therefore, it wants to implement the interest by using geopolitical situation.

Keywords: Geopolitical Role, South Caucasus Region, Cold War

1. INTRODUCTION

At the result of collapsed Soviet Union there were existed several new players, such as Britain, Germany, France, USA and etc. The reason of this event is the emptiness in the region, which attract many of new actors to the region. In such way, Europe has begun to cooperate with this region, although Europe is still formulating its policy on that period. Now EU has got success in relations with this region within ENP and EaP. Another player in the region, Turkey tries to gain the "Main key" of this region by using geographical position, which has transit features. Nowadays, the process is going on retrieving the Turkey-Armenia relations shows the Turkey interest in this region. Iran, having Caspian sources tries to have access to European markets by South Caucasus region. As the result we could see Iran-Armenia relations. In other case it is necessary not to forget Azerbaijan, which is Turkish state. In general, Russia-Iran-Armenia triangle is usual for this region. Furthermore, in geopolitical situation of this region the Russian factor and physiological aspects have tremendous role. Therefore, in Soviet Union ages there were developed agriculture, industry in all three states, the Russian factor played indispensable role in scientific, technical and etc. sectors. They have closer relations between Caucasus nations and Russians. Today, Russia is very worried about creation of sanitary border against itself and Russia considers them as the danger for its national security. But this policy does not work and could not prevent the cooperation of South Caucasus with NATO and EU. Russia understands that with such attitude it is impossible, because Russia has relations with these organizations too. In contemporary world South Caucasus is transformed region till today. This region is estimated destructive area according to frizzed conflicts. The attitudes for resolution of conflicts are different. Although Azerbaijan and Armenia could effort to keep the balance among relations with "big players", Georgia displays keen interest only to the West, which affects to its policy. Georgia assumes that the problem could be solved only by military ways. It is obvious,

there is US impact and Georgian's believe. But, in other way, in 2008 war did not march as waited. Therefore, the time indicates the region could not be existed without Russia. All these aspects prove the importance being "hot direction" for Russian foreign policy. Russia is continuing to strengthen and it knows the region enough than US and Europe. The processes happening in this region is closer to Russia. In all these cases the West loses to Russia. Eventually, South Caucasus position is central from East to West, from South to North. Therefore, it is necessary to learn the region from Eurasia continent aspects.

1.1. Clash of Civilizations Or Global Interests in the South Caucasus?

The South Caucasus – is a crossroads of mutually exclusive civilizations. Being in

a zone of contacts of western and eastern civilizations, the states of South Caucasus which are Azerbaijan, Georgia and Armenia, haven't been integrated into the common civilizational unity.

S. Huntington in his wellknown book «Clash of civilizations» considers Caucasus region as a zone of the contact and collision of civilizations. According to that the

Christianity and Islam is in conflict in the region. A consequence of it are the conflicts in Caucasus region, in particular, Nagorno-Karabakh and Chechnya, according to S.Huntington, the most bloody conflicts in the world arise on dividing boundaries of civilizations.

From the 7th century till today, history of Caucasus penetrates with the contradiction of Easter Christian and Muslim civilizations, based on social and political antagonism.

In a new period among them actually national consciousness has started to amplify.

The Swedish researcher S. Korneli's view that definition factor in this region is the combination of nationalism and national interests, instead of the religious – civilizational opposition.

The USA recognized South Caucasus as a zone of it's strategic interests and declared that «... were and remains opponents in principle of spheres of influence on the Post-Soviet region».

Together with the US and NATO, China, India, some states of the Near East, Turkey and Iran are also try to play more active role in the South Caucasus Region.

Z. Bzhezinsky in his well-known book «The Grand Chessboard», named Azerbaijan as a geopolitical key point of Caucasus region, which plays important role on all space as a «Eurasian Balkans», in other means the Caucasus and the Central Asian region.

1.2. Ethnic Variety in South Caucasus: Conflicts and Perspectives

Caucasus as one of the most historical human living places of the world has been

homeland for a lot of very different civilizations and cultures. Because of geopolitical and geostrategical importance, region has always been intersection point of interests and area for wars between great powers. As a result of struggle for region, since the beginning of 19th century Caucasus passed under control of Russian Empire and today's ethnic and political conflicts of region are fruit of "divide and rule" policy implemented by Russia since that time.

During the period of USSR with the impact of very strict policy by Moscow, ethnic conflicts of region were frozen and kept for future till when there will be need for them. After the Cold War and the collapse of the USSR, the states which were members of the Union, started to declare independence. South Caucasus States namely Azerbaijan, Armenia and Georgia also declared independence and joined the international system as sovereign actors. After their independence, intrastate

ethnic problems which were frozen during the USSR rule started to cause conflicts. First conflict started between Azerbaijanian and Armenian people living in the Nagorno Karabakh region of Azerbaijan and soon after turned into a regional war between Azerbaijan and Armenia. Separation demands of the Abkhaz and the Ossettians living in Georgian territory caused Georgian-Abkhaz and Georgian-Ossetian conflicts. On the other hand, geopolitical and geostrategical position of the South Caucasus Region increased its importance in new world order.

After the collapse of the USSR, regional powers such as Russian Federation, Turkey and Iran started to compete in order to bridge the authority gap in the region. In this context, regional powers' relations with the South Caucasus States determined the course of the ethnic conflicts. So, there is absolutely complicated situation about conflicts in the region and all these problems are waiting for their solution.

2.1. Regional Cooperation of South Caucasus States: Illusions, Reality, Perspectives

The South Caucasus region represents the most problematic region within the post-Soviet area in terms of regional security concerns. Indeed, three unresolved (Nagorno-Karabakh, South Ossetia and Abkhazia) conflicts of the South Caucasus can be considered as one of the most serious obstacles for establishing a regional security system.

Clearly, conflicts fuel those new dangers that threaten the nations in the entire Euro-Atlantic space. Namely these are ethnic and religious extremism, international organized crime, human trafficking, illegal trade in drugs, and what is particularly perilous, the existence of uncontrolled territories, or the so-called "white spots", which provide shelter to international terrorists and allow them to develop relevant infrastructure.

However, despite the integration of the Caucasus supported by the world union, because of the objective and subjective reasons it remained as an abstract model. Despite several studies of the political and economic problems in the Caucasus, it is controversial to say Russia or the West will determine the future of the Caucasus. To be more accurate, it is an issue of correlation between the settlement of the conflicts and establishment of the cooperation based on the factor of time. The question is: should the cooperation be established before or after the settlement of the conflicts?

To sum up cooperation and effective regional security system, the Southern Caucasus has come to the crossroad. Either region will begin to integrate into Europe, anchor into the Euro-Atlantic security system and develop into an effective barrier to the proliferation of terrorism, extremism, drug trafficking and organised crime or there will be a wholesale deterioration of security and a new gateway to Europe will open for ethnic conflict, terror and insecurity.

Beginning from the late 20th century the South Caucasus, defined by Zbigniew Brzezinski as Eurasian Balkans, has been an arena for confrontation among the states claiming to be regional and world powers. Situated between the Black and Caspian seas, the South Caucasus is of great importance because it is an area where Southern-Northern and Western-Eastern energy and transport lines intersect, a place rich with energy resources of the Caspian basin.

The South Caucasus played a pivotal geopolitical role in the Asian continent, and this role was enriched with new political, security and economic motives after the fall of the Soviet Union. For its nature and geographical location, the region has historically been a route for nomadic tribes and nomadic cultures between the South and the North, between the East and the West. Nomadic life had great impact on the formation of Southern Caucasian nations' political history.

According to Dmitry Trenin, director of the Moscow Center of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the South Caucasus is a tampon zone and a rivalry area between the Northern empire (Russia) and Muslim states in the Middle East (Ottoman Empire, Iran). From this point of view, in addition to regional countries, powers beyond the South Caucasus also became actors in the geopolitical struggle in the region.

Today, all researches on the South Caucasus consider the region as a whole only from geographical point of view. In terms of all other parameters (social, political, economic, military, cultural and security ones), the region is characterized by different values and political and philosophical ideals. Various projects have been carried out since 1990 to bring different values and philosophies in the region to common denominator, develop regional cooperation and ensure security.

Located on the peripheries of Turkey, Iran and Russia, the region has been an arena for political, military, religious, and cultural rivalries and expansionism for centuries. If we look at the past 30 years there have not been any security problems in the South Caucasus given that the region is in the hands of one state and that Azerbaijan, Armenia and Georgia are part of a common security mechanism. However, serious problems emerged when the region divided from military and security points of view.

In the early 19th century the South Caucasus was conquered by the Russian Empire, and the Russian governance continued here until the late 20th century (December 1991) except for the period from 1918-1920.

Under the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk of 1917, after Russia's withdrawal from the South Caucasus and the dissolution of the Russian State Duma by the Bolsheviks Caucasian representatives of the State Duma created the Special Transcaucasian Committee on February 23, 1918. However, confrontations among members of the Committee, in particular with respect to foreign policy, led to the establishment of the Transcaucasian Independent Federative Republic on April, 1918. This was followed by Georgia's declaring its independence on May 27, with Azerbaijan and Armenia proclaiming their independence on May 28.

Regional states were occupied by Russia in 1920-1921, and were part of the Soviet Union's security mechanism until 1991.

The fall of the Soviet Union and the creation of three independent states in the region led to emergence of new economic, military and political balance in the South Caucasus. Regional countries faced different security problems, which they were trying to solve by joining regional and international security organizations and expanding cooperation. At this stage, Armenia focused on economic and security cooperation with Russia.

Beginning from the late 1980s political, military and ethnic local armed conflicts have been posing a serious threat to regional security. Projects aimed at solving these problems and super powers' economic, political and military policies in the region have increased the importance of regional and international security in the South Caucasus. Although there has been a lot of different projects, none of the problems, which emerged in the past 20 years, have yet been solved.

Two large security organizations have been struggling to establish their hegemony in the region since 1991. The first is Russia-led Collective Security Treaty Organization within the Commonwealth of Independent States. Another is the U.S.-led NATO. Security mechanisms aimed at ensuring regional security cover Azerbaijan, Armenia and Georgia one way or another.

One of the main reasons behind the failure to ensure security and stability in the South Caucasus is that in addition to regional countries super powers also attempt to build security mechanisms with the aim of safeguarding their own economic, military and political interests in the region. Russia, the United States and the European Union aspire to create a security system that will fully ensure the protection of their interests.

Although Georgia seeks integration into NATO security system and Azerbaijan tries to strengthen and enhance relations with the Alliance, both countries are pursuing a balanced policy with respect to Russia. As far as Armenia is concerned, it definitely entered Russia-led Collective Security Treaty Organization. However, the country still wants to develop its relationship with NATO.

As the search continues for ways of ensuring regional security, Azerbaijan and Georgia focus on expanding political and economic relations with the regional and international system, while Armenia remains isolated from this process because of its Russia-oriented policy both from political and economic points of view.

When assessing regional ethnic conflicts, security problems and cooperation opportunities, the issue of ensuring peace and cooperation in the region can be looked at from three perspectives:

- solving regional problems, building a security system, fostering cooperation and completion process;
- trying to inculcate cooperative values in society, building, preserving and developing mutual confidence and trust;
- matching regional interests of regional and international powers, and specifying the place and role of the South Caucasus in a globalizing world.

3. Conclusion

However, such an approach to regional problems cannot be a way-out. This approach can hardly justify itself if it's not accepted by regional states and peoples, and if it's not financially and politically supported by Russia, the United States

and Europe. The main problem here is that regional states assess their problems cold-bloodedly, and do not consider the South Caucasus as something whole. Another reason is that super powers pursue different economic, political, military and cultural interests in their policy towards the region.

The aforementioned problems have existed in the region in the past 20 years; none of peace projects carried out by international and regional organizations, regional countries and states outside the region has yet proved successful, instead causing more serious problems. The nature of problems, different attitudes and different models proposed by regional and other countries, a lack of mutual confidence, trust and concessions between regional states demonstrate that problems in the South Caucasus will exist for a long period of time.

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Preventing Human Trafficking in the Western Balkans - a Particular Review in Albania, Kosovo and Serbia

Besim Kelmendi

Special Prosecutor of the Republic of Kosovo
Lecturer at the University College "BUSINESS " Pristina
PhD candidate at the European University of Tirana
besimkelmendi@gmail.com

Abstract

Preventing and combating trafficking in human beings represents one of the major tasks today that Western Balkan countries have, because the access right of these countries to this phenomenon, can open or close your path towards the European Union. This is because most people trafficking in most cases is part of organized crime, as a condition for being part of the European Union is to prevent and combat organized crime and also trafficking of human beings. So, successful prevention also is the successful fight of human trafficking. A special importance, prevention of human trafficking, has also reports of the United States of America, which issued for each year, where the U.S. do not merely report only on U.S. territory but also for other countries in the whole world, including the Western Balkan countries and where a part of this report is devoted to the prevention of human trafficking in each of these countries and recommendations for improving the situation on the ground. The purpose of this paper is to present approaches in the Western Balkan countries to prevent human trafficking and approaches of these countries in the issuance and adapting national laws in line with European Union documents.

Keywords: prevention, trafficking, human, beings, Balkans

1. Introduction

After the evaluation of risk that might threaten the trafficked victims and their family members or evidence itself or other important evidence for criminal procedure, it is also necessary to look into taking measures for protection of victims, either when they are only victims, or when they are witness, too, or also when they do not want to cooperate at all.

Protection of victims is necessary from the moment of victim identification and identification and evaluation of risk, therefore, protection of trafficked victims can be divided into three stages, as in the following: pre-trial stage, the stage of the development of regular criminal procedure and the stage after the regular criminal procedure is over.

The division of these stages is important not only for the criminal procedure but also for the victim itself, taking into consideration that in these three stages different actions need to be taken for the protection of victims, measures which could be related also with the measures of assistance and support to trafficked victims in the aspect of health, shelter, clothing and food.

Anyway, according to Law on Prevention and combat against trafficking in human beings and protection of trafficked victims¹, personal data, private life, victims' identity of trafficking in human beings is protected by the authorities of law enforcement during the criminal procedure, whereas, registration, maintenance, and using of trafficked victims' personal data is accomplished in accordance with conditions prescribed by Law on Protection of Personal Data.

¹ Law on Prevention and combat against Trafficking in Human being an Protection of Trafficked Victims in Kosovo, 2013, Article 18, p.11

Regarding this, also the compilation of agreement on exchange of information is prescribed between the authorities which deal with the identification and assistance of victim, as well as criminal investigation via respecting in general the protection of personal data and privacy and victims' safety. All exchanged information between the victim and the professional who provides medical, psychological, juristic, or other assistance services, are confidential and are not exchanged with third persons without the consent of the victim, and in cases when the victim is a child, without the consent of his/her legal representative. Furthermore, according to this law, it is prohibited to disclose the data related to state protection measures for victims of trafficking in human being, persons who provide such a protection, as well as persons who provide assistance in combating the trafficking in human beings.

Today, all Western Balkan countries have promulgated their laws on protection of witnesses and taking into consideration all these countries, intentions to get the membership in the European Union, their laws are mainly the same, except nominations and some internal specifications, but the purpose of all these laws is to provide the trafficked victims with assistance in the three aforementioned stages.

Besides the laws on protection of witnesses, there are also criminal procedures codes in all Western Balkans countries, which have prescribed provisions on protection of witnesses, but, although, at the first sight the existence of two legal acts, codes and abovementioned laws looks as unnecessary, these legal acts are not in contradiction with one another, but rather, supplement one another, because, as criminal procedures codes foresee provisions which regulate issues of criminal procedure, the law deals with conditions for protection, kind of protections, competencies of bodies that provide that protection and other administrative issues.

Any person who is a witness, or injured party, who reports or testifies on facts and circumstances, who are objects of a relevant proof in a criminal procedure can be a person under protection in Kosovo, for criminal acts for which is foreseen sentence by imprisonment of 5 years and more, in which is included also trafficking in human beings and due to these reports and evidences is in a serious risk¹.

In Albania also persons protected together or individually, are witnesses, co-operators of justice and persons related to them, which means that this counts for the witness of justice, respectively, for the person who is a witness, or injured party, testifies or provides statement on facts or circumstances statements of evidences is put in danger, because of blood connections, marriage, co-living of fact or close personal relationship that they have with the witness ...².

In Croatia a protected person is one who is in risk him/herself and also his relatives who are exposed to a serious danger with their life, health, their body, freedom or property in a big amount is outraged, because of the testimony in the criminal procedure for criminal acts prescribed by Law on Protection of Witnesses³.

In Bosnia and Herzegovina a threatened witness is the one whose personal safety or his family's safety is risked due to his/her participation in the criminal procedure, as a result of threatening, frightening or similar actions that are related to his/her testimony, or the witness considers that there are grounds for fear that such a danger for sure may be the case as a result of his/her testimony⁴.

In Montenegro, a person may be a protected witness when there are grounds for fear either for him/her or for his/her relatives, due to providing testimony to prove the criminal act which is prescribed by Law on Protection of Witnesses, the possibility to protect witnesses is foreseen, if there a serious danger for their life, health, physical integrity, freedom and property in great amount, whereas, other measures for protection are not sufficient⁵.

In Serbia, a threatened witness is the one whose safety or the safety of his/her family (those who have the right to not testify in a criminal procedure) is in danger because of his/her participation in criminal procedure as a result of threaten, fear, or similar actions that are related with his testimony, whereas, an endangered witness is the one whose

¹ Law on Protection of Witnesses, in Kosovo, No. 04/-L-015 of 1 September 2011, Article 3 paragraph 1, sub-paragraph 1.3, p.1

² Law on Protection of Witnesses and Co-operators of Justice, in Albania, No. 10173 of 22.10.2009 amended by Law no. 10461 of 13.09.2011, Article 3, paragraph, 1 point 5, p. 2

³ Zakon o zastiti svedoka Hrvatske, br.NN.163/03, 18/11, 2004, Article 1, p. 1

⁴ Zakon o zastiti svedoka pod pretnjom i ugrozenih svedoka Bosne i Hercegovine, 2003, Article 3, paragraph 1, p. 1

⁵ Zakon o zastiti svjedoka Crne Gore, sluzbeni list RCG br.65/04, 2004, Article 1, p. 1

physical, psychological integrity has been seriously endangered, traumatised of circumstances at which the criminal act was conducted or suffers from serious psychological disturbances who render him/her extraordinarily sensitive, and the juveniles¹.

In comparison with other West Balkans countries which have nominated laws on protection of witnesses or co-operators of justice, in Serbia, the law has a more specific name as it is nominated as a Law on Programming the Protection of Participators in Criminal Procedure, and their relatives, too, who due to submission of statements or important information for verification of factual state in criminal procedure are submitted to danger for their life, health, physical integrity, freedom or property²

In Macedonia, a victim who reports as a witness is the one who has been injured by a criminal act or a personal or property right of his/her is threatened, who possess important information for criminal procedure, the provision of which would endanger his/her life, health, freedom, physical integrity or property in a great amount, if he/she reports as a witness in the criminal procedure and if co-operates with judiciary bodies, whereas, as a protected person is considered the witness, co-operator of justice, a victim who reports as a witness and his/her relatives, who from the counsel on protection of witness entered in the program for protection and was agreed with for protection by witness protection units³.

2. Stages of protection of trafficked victims

2.1 Protection of victims prior to the beginning of criminal procedure

The beginning to undertake measures for protection of victims can be made much earlier than the beginning of criminal procedure, because not always the trafficking offenders are aware of the time when the identification of victims is done or identification of danger, therefore, it is very important to not wait the beginning of a criminal procedure, but to start with the identification of risk indicators, their analyses, assessment and management of risk on time and in the most appropriate manner, so that when the criminal procedure begins, the victim is prepared for his/her testimony without being under pressure of fear and threatens by trafficking offenders.

Taking into consideration that the victim from the moment of identification, hence, before the beginning of criminal procedure, there may be different needs that relate with needs of health care, food, clothing or sheltering, as well as the need to move from one place to the another, without putting their lives, health, large volume property at risk or eliminating or reducing such risks, the directorate for protection of witnesses in co-operation with investigators, too, and with the competent prosecutor should undertake necessary measures, firstly for humanitarian reasons, thus to save victim's life and his/her relatives' lives, or health and property, but also because of the importance that the testimony of the victim might have as a witness in a criminal procedure.

Duration of the protection of victim in preliminary stage can never be determined preliminarily, because the necessary time for trafficking offenders to be arrested and start of criminal procedure can never be determined precisely, taking into account that usually trafficking in human beings is part of organised crime and investigatory actions usually can take time until the arrest of trafficking offenders

2.2 Protection of victims during the criminal procedure

2.2.1 General aspects

As it was mentioned above, in all countries of West Balkans, protection of victims during a criminal procedure is regulated by two basic laws, such as by criminal procedure code and law on protection of witnesses and co-operators of

¹ Zakon o zastiti svjedoka u krivicnom postupku Srbije, sluzbeni glasnik Republike Srbije, No. 48, 2003, Article 3, p. 1

² Zakon o programu zastite ucesnika u krivicnom postupku, Sl. Glasnik RS br.85/2005, Article 1, p. 1

³ Zakon za zastita na svedoci, sl. vesnik na Republika Makedonija, No. 38/05, 2005, Article 2, paragraph 3 and 5, p. 1 & 2

justice. In this chapter, the treatment of protection at this stage shall be treated in accordance with the basic laws of Albania, Serbia and Kosovo, as three countries of West Balkans, to see the way of treatment, similarities and differences between them as well as to draw conclusions for better practices.

Criminal Procedure Code in Kosovo of 2012 and Criminal Procedure Code of Serbia of 2013, are new codes and have much more provisions that regulate the position and protection of victims during a criminal procedure, than the Criminal Procedure Code of Albania.

In Kosovo this has come as a consequence of participation of representatives of European Union and United States in Kosovo, in drafting laws in Kosovo, which are engaged within the scope of European mission of the Rule of Law known as EULEX, which are part of police, prosecutorial and judicial system of Kosovo and have executive competencies in these three fields. Also the engagement of many international experts who were included within the scope of international missions in Kosovo, had an impact that the same give their contribution also in compilation of many laws of Kosovo, including the Criminal Procedure Code of 2012, which was compiled by experts of United States of America and Kosovo, and later were engaged also experts from European Union.

According to Criminal Procedure Code of Kosovo, the first duty of the police, after the identification of trafficked victim, is the notification of the Unit on Protection of Victims¹, as a special unit created only for assistance and support to victims. Among all countries of West Balkans, only Kosovo possesses this unit or division, which has taken this as a model form United States of America, where these units or divisions have shown many results in practice and have created a respectful system in service to the victims of crime in general and trafficked victims in particular.

In Kosovo also in regard of protection of victims during a criminal procedure, provisions are foreseen by law on prevention and combat of trafficking in human beings, too, and protection of trafficked victims, in which possibilities are foreseen that in cases when before a court are reviewed issues in relation with acts according to this law, for persons identified as victims, the prosecutor and other authorised parties should request from the court to permit the application of special investigation possibility, in compliance with Criminal Procedure Code².

When the question is about trafficked victims – children during investigations and criminal procedures in Kosovo also are foreseen some specific rules, according to which without prejudicing the rights of protection, and in compliance with the individual evaluation conducted by authorities, child victims receive a special treatment which aims prevention of re-victimisation.

Number of interviews of child victims, may be more than one, just for the purpose of special and complex investigations, in compliance with the Juvenile Justice Code, Criminal Code and Criminal Procedure Code³.

According to Criminal Procedure Code of Albania from 2008, which has undergone some changes until 2011, the protection of witnesses and co-operators of justice was treated, only in relation to essential procedural issues, including questioning of these persons from a distance, with the purpose to protect their identity and take appropriate measures in order to enable that the face and voice of the person to not be distinguished from parties, but, if in case the recognition of an identity is necessary or looking at a person, the court orders taking the necessary measures to avert the distinguishable view of the face of a person, whose identity had been changed⁴.

Criminal Procedure Code of Serbia has foreseen many provisions on protection of witnesses from the beginning of a criminal procedure until its end and regardless if the question is about protection of witnesses, in this case it should be meant also protection of victims of the injured, because usually victims are the ones who experienced the consequences

¹ Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Kosovo, 2012, Article 77 paragraph 1, p.28

² Law on prevention and combat against trafficking in Human Beings and Protection of Trafficked Victims in Kosovo, 2013, Article 15, p.10.

³ Law on prevention and combat against trafficking in Human Beings and Protection of Trafficked Victims in Kosovo, 2013, Article 15, p.10 and 11

⁴ Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania, 2008 with amendments, Article 361, paragraph 7 and 361/a, p.145

of trafficking in human beings and are the most important witnesses in criminal matter, therefore, their protection as witnesses means also their protection as victims.

2.2.2 Protection of victims, according to Criminal Procedure Codes – comparative aspects in Albania, Serbia and Kosovo

In procedural - criminal aspect, Albania has not foreseen any concrete provisions that would treat the protection of victims of the injured in a criminal procedure, but, it refers this matter to the Law on Protection of Witnesses and Co-operators of Justice¹, in cases when the question is about witnesses and co-operators of justice.

According to Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania, in Article 103, paragraph 4, attention was paid to the protection of the identity or generalities and publication of photos of the defendants and juvenile witnesses, accused and injured by the criminal act, whereas, there is only one exception, when the publication turns in the interest of the juvenile or when the juvenile reaches the age of 16, which means that the adults or persons above 16 years-old do not enjoy protection as per this provision.

Provision of article 157, paragraph 2 of the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania, which cites for the right of witness to not testify on facts from which can result a criminal responsibility for it, although it does not expressly mention the victim or the injured by the criminal act, this provision is applied also in the cases when the victim reports as a witness in a criminal procedure.

Also in cases of holding trials with closed doors, in the Republic of Albania was foreseen the possibility that in case the question is about the need to protect the safety of witnesses, the trial shall be held with closed doors². In these cases, the possibility to have a trial with closed doors means also the possibility for trafficked victims, because usually these victims are also witnesses in a criminal procedure.

It is also worth mentioning that the provision of Article 361, paragraph 7 of Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania³, according to which the witness may be questioned from a distance inside or outside the country through audio-visual appliances, but, paying attention to protection means, whereas, this provision is supplemented also by provision of Article 361/A of this code, where it was foreseen that the face and the voice of a person to not be distinguishable by the parties.

Furthermore, the provision of Article 364 of the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania is interesting⁴, too, according to which provision the court may examine the witness at his home, too, in case of the absolute impossibility to report to court, one of the members of trial panel in presence of parties but excluding the public has the possibility to take the testimony from the witness. In this case, too, the court may apply this provision in cases of trafficked victims, if they cannot report to court. Here, it is worth mentioning that the text "absolute impossibility" is not very clear, however, hereby the court is given the right to decide what can be understood by the word "absolute impossibility".

As a kind of protection at a criminal procedure can be considered also the exclusion from the obligation to testify, for the person who is injured or one of her relatives in that criminal procedure⁵.

This is because the injured party in such cases can choose if she will use this possibility and continue with providing evidence or not, in case she considers that the testimony would endanger her safety.

¹ Ibidem, Article 37/A, paragraph 2, p. 28

² Ibidem, Article 340 paragraph 1, point c, p.180

³ Law No. 9276 of 16.09.2004 on amendment of the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania

⁴ Law No. 8833 of 13.06.2002 on amendment of the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania

⁵ Ibidem.

In case of Serbia, the Criminal Procedure Code of 2013 has foreseen special measures on the protection of witnesses, which means also the protection of the injured when they report as witnesses, taking into account special protection measures.

According to Article 102 of the Criminal Procedure Code of Serbia of 2013, the body that hold the procedure is obliged to protect the injured or the witness from insults, threatens or any kind of attack. In the provisions of this code is included also the hiding identity not only from public but in extraordinary cases also from the defendant and his defence¹, this protection is provided in accordance with official duty or the request of parties or the witness herself².

This defence in accordance with the Criminal Procedure Code of Serbia means that the bodies which conduct the procedure are obliged to consider every situation as per their official duty, when the witness/victim needs protection and meanwhile action even if there is a request by the parties in procedure or the witness of victim herself as a witness.

It is for appraising that the existence of a special category of witnesses, in the code of Serbia and existence of witnesses with special sensitivity, which are distinguished from other witnesses as per age, life experience, life style, gender, health state, nature, the manner and consequences of conduction of a criminal act, respectively, other circumstances of special sensitivity. In this category may be included also trafficked victims, therefore, the protection of these victims, in special manner means also the protection of trafficked victims when they are witness in a criminal procedure, because the manner of the interview itself of these persons means the need to be treated differently from other persons.

According to Article 105, paragraph 2 of the Criminal Procedure Code of Serbia of 2013, means for special protection, by which the right of defendant and his defence is denied to have access in the data or identity of the protected witness. The court may undertake exclusively if two conditions are fulfilled, such as: by the statement of witness or prosecutor it is verified that life, health of freedom of witness or her relatives are in danger in the amount that the restriction of the right of defence is justified and that the witness should be reliable, respectively, her statement should be true.

In the occasion of taking protective measures of the witness in Serbia, the judge of the preparatory procedure in the decision to announce a person as a protected witness notes only a nickname of the protected witness, the duration and manner of applying the protective measure, the change and removing the evidence of the data on the identity of witness, hiding the view of the witness, interviewing her in special premises besides changing her voice, making the interview through technical appliances transformation and change of the voice and photography³.

Moreover, during the interview of the witness/victim in accordance with Article 109, paragraph 3 and 4 of the code of Serbia of 2013, the court draws the attention of all the participants that they are obliged to protect as secret the data of the protected witness and her relatives as well as other circumstances which may result up to the disclosure of the identification of the witness and that the disclosure of this secret presents a criminal act. In this case, the court prohibits any question that requires an answer through which the identity of protected witness could be disclosed.

As regards Kosovo, in addition to general provisions mentioned above, related to protection of witness and injured identity, the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Kosovo has foreseen one more specific chapter related to protection of injured and witnesses and this is the chapter XIII, in which details have been foreseen for all actions which need to be undertaken in the course of a criminal proceeding with the aim of protection of injured and witnesses, including the definitions of serious risk, anonymity and members of families.

As regards identity of victim witness, the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Kosovo in many provisions has foreseen restrictions for persons who are entitled to be notified about the case files, in cases of protected witnesses or

¹ Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Serbia, "Sl. glasnik RS", no. 72/2011, 101/2011, 121/2012, 32/2013 and 45/2013, Article 105, p. 53

² Ibidem, Article 107, p. 53

³ Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Serbia, "Sl. glasnik RS", no. 72/2011, 101/2011, 121/2012, 32/2013 and 45/2013, Article 108 paragraph 2, p. 54

also in cases of interviewing where the possibility is foreseen to interview in distance through video or audio link¹, thus giving a higher importance to protection of victim witnesses than the right to have access to case files.

According to Kosovo code, family members entitled to protection are considered as follows: husband, extra-marital husband, a person in direct blood relation, adopting parent, adopted child, brother, sister or adopting parent². As noted, uncle (father's brother or mother's brother) and aunt (father's sister or mother's sister) cannot be considered as members of family, except sister or brother although they are in indirect blood relation and also family members cannot be considered father in law and mother in law or their children.

Although the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Kosovo has not expressively specification of situations when a person is protected only by public and situation when a person is protected also from the defendant and exceptions from the defence of the defendant, this may result from the provisions which deal with protection of witnesses.

Protection from the public implies protection of identity from public, thus, is this situation the identity of victim or witness is known for the defendant or his defence, but not for the public although in these cases the defendant and the defence of the defendant are obliged not to make public the identity of protected person and this obligation derives from court order for witness protection.

In certain cases, abovementioned measures are insufficient and the need arises to undertake additional measures for protection in effective manner the person who needs protection and by undertaking these additional measures a higher degree of protection is achieved known as the stage of anonymity.

Anonymity according to Article 220 paragraph 1.3 of the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Kosovo implies as follows: lack of information given for identity or whereabouts of the injured, cooperative witness or witness, identity or whereabouts of family members of the injured, cooperative witness or witness, or the identity of whichever person that is related to the injured, cooperative witness or with the witness.

The stage of anonymity can be applied in cases when: there is a serious risk for witness or member of his/her family and full anonymity of the witness is necessary to prevent such a serious risk; the evidence of witness is so important for the matter so that it makes unfair the realisation of protection without it; the credibility of witness is investigated and disclosed fully for the judge in a closed session; and the need for witness anonymity is more important for doing justice than the public interest or the interest of the injured to know the identity of the witness in implementation of the procedure and anonymity would prevent the serious risk for the injured, cooperative witness or the witness³.

An analysis of the criminal procedure codes of the Republic of Albania, Republic of Kosovo and the Republic of Serbia indicates that the codes of Kosovo and Albania have many more advantages than the code of Albania, because they have provided for numerous provisions regulating to detail the protection of witnesses, inclusive protection of victims of trafficking when they are as witnesses, whereas the code of Serbia in relation to the code of Kosovo has also provisions regulating protection of other persons involved in protection of witnesses which are not foreseen in the code of Kosovo, such as: covert investigators, experts, professional advisors and other professional persons and the obligation of police and prosecutor to notify citizens when obtaining information related to protective measures.

These novelties brought by the code of Serbia are very important for the progress of criminal proceeding and for the safety of involved persons in protection of those persons and at the same time they have their impact in disciplining bodies of prosecution: police and prosecution while collecting information in such cases.

As regards Albania, it is necessary that the criminal procedure code is amended and needs to include all provisions provided for by codes of Kosovo and Serbia and at the same time provisions which may suit better to the legal - criminal system of Albania and the needs for protection of witnesses and trafficking victims when they appear as witnesses, based on circumstances and conditions which are specific for Albania.

¹ Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Kosovo no. 04/L-123, 2012, Article 96 paragraph 4.7.3, p. 43, Article 130 paragraph 3, p.43, Article 149 paragraph 8, p. 68 and Article 213 paragraph 3 and 8, p. 96

² Ibidem, Article 220 paragraph 1 sub-paragraph 1.2, p. 100

³ Ibidem, Article 223 paragraph 3 and 224 paragraph 2 point 2.2 and paragraph 5, pp. 101 and 102

2.2.3 Victim protection in accordance with the laws on protection of witnesses and justice cooperative witnesses or parties in criminal proceedings

Protection of trafficked victims as mentioned above must be treated into two aspects, in the procedural aspect and in the operational or administrative aspect, because while in the procedural aspect victim protection is treated in relation to the criminal proceedings, according to operational aspect the protection is treated also in relation to measures undertaken by the directorates for protection of witnesses. Both these aspects are important for the trafficked victim, because they are interrelated with each other and they complement each other, so that the victim and its relatives feel safe not only in the course of criminal proceedings, but also before and after conclusion of the criminal proceedings.

Conclusion of the regular trial proceedings does not imply automatic cease of potential risk existence for the trafficked victim, for his/her relatives and for his/her property in a large volume, in contrary, exactly the reasons for revenge because of the imposed sentences shall be even stronger after conclusion of the criminal proceedings.

In cases when along with the sentences, the trafficking criminals are also confiscated the property obtained through commitment of criminal offences, shutting down of businesses where trafficking was carried out, and obliging for compensation of damages caused to the trafficking victims, are additional reasons indicating that trafficking offenders have enough reason to take revenge and to endanger the life, health, freedom and property in a large volume to trafficked victims who need protection also after conclusion of criminal proceedings.

In Kosovo, Albania and Serbia, witness and witness victim protection is regulated by specific laws, which are named by different denominations. This law is named in Kosovo as Law On Protection Of Witnesses, in Albania it is named as Law on Protection of Witnesses and Justice Co-operators, whereas in Serbia it is named as Law on the Program for Protection of Parties at Criminal Proceedings, but, although denomination of these laws for protection vary in names, in essence these laws contain quite similar provisions, because their aim is almost the same.

Although Kosovo law is denominated as Law on Protection of Witnesses, when it deals with the scope of the law, it specifies that this law offers protection for witnesses and for co-operators of justice¹ and when it elaborates issues of persons enjoying the right to protection, it includes as follows: witnesses or injured persons who make announcements or witness about the facts and circumstances amounting subject to relevant evidence in a criminal proceeding², therefore, denomination of this law in Kosovo does not reflect the purpose it has as a law, but this purpose derives from the content of the law itself, whereas according to Serbia's Law on Program for Protection of Parties at Criminal Proceedings, in the category of persons enjoying protection are included as follows: the suspect, the defendant, cooperative witness, witness, the injured, expert or professional person³, whereas as far as Albanian Law is concerned, although it does not mention victims, in essence it includes the victims too, but on condition that they are witnesses in the criminal proceedings.

The problem stands more at cases when victims of trafficking do not want to give their testimony and to cooperate with justice, because all the three abovementioned laws require that for a person to enter in protection program, he/she must cooperate with justice⁴, or such persons should give their evidence and due to such evidence the risk may appear for them or for their relatives.

In such cases, these stances at first glance will seem as if they were in contravention to international standards for support and giving aid to trafficking victims, and for lack of punishment of it in cases of non-cooperation, but if this problem is seen in the aspect of justice interest, so, to decide rightfully in a criminal case, which aims at protection and

¹ Law on Protection of Witnesses, in Kosovo no.04/-L-015, 2011, Article 2, p. 1

² Ibidem, Article 3, p. 1

³ Zakon o programu zastite ucesnika u krivicnom postupku, Sl. Glasnik RS br.85/2005, Article 3, p. 1

⁴ Law on Protection of Witnesses, in Kosovo no.04/-L-015, 2011, Article 5, paragraph 2 point 2.2, p. 2 and Law on protection of witnesses and justice co-operators, in Albania no.10173, 2009, as amended by Law No. 10461,2011, Article 10 paragraph 1, p.5 and Zakon o programu zastete ucesnika u krivicnom postupku Srbije Sl. Glasnik RS br.85/2005, Article 1, p.1

support of trafficking victim, by making justice in the country and by giving the opportunity to the victim to be compensated, in a costly procedure for the country, then it would be considered as normal and logical for the state to receive the support or the cooperation from the victim in order to bring justice to place. So, it would be a reciprocal support between the state and the victim, even more when in such cases lack of victim cooperation would bring irreparable damages to victim herself and would also lead to failure of the criminal proceedings, because the victim is the most appropriate person to shed light to many important facts in a criminal proceeding, because she herself was part of the whole history of her trafficking.

Criminal punishment of the offender of the criminal offence of trafficking in human beings is another distinctiveness between Kosovo, Albania and Serbia, because trafficking victims in Kosovo can benefit from the program of witness protection if the offender is charged by a criminal offence where the foreseen punishment is 5 or more years of imprisonment and for other specific offences such as offences against international law where trafficking in human beings is included, whereas in Albania this punishment must be not less than 4 years as minimum and it applies for all such offences without specifying any other type of criminal offence, whereas in Serbia no punishment has been foreseen but there are only mentioned the criminal offences for which the program of protection applies, and the criminal offences are as follows: criminal offences against the constitutional order and security, those against humanity and other goods protected by international law and organised crime ¹.

2.2.4. Conditions for victim protection

As regards to conditions for protection of victims when they are witnesses, codes of Albania and Kosovo have not foreseen provisions to regulate the procedure for introduction of witnesses into their protection programs, but they have referred to special laws for this field, namely those for protection of justice co-operators, in this case also of the injured or victims in case they are reported as witnesses, thus criminal procedure codes have only regulated the procedural matters which are related to measures needed to be undertaken in cases when protected persons are summoned to give their testimony, for the manner of posing questions and preservation of their identity in the criminal proceedings, and not their protection following completion of the criminal proceedings.

To be part of the protection program in Albania, the following conditions must be met: implementation of usual measures of protection has not been sufficient and suitable for protection of witness of justice co-operator, if he (so, the witness or the injured as witness) accepts to willingly cooperate with the prosecution and the court, and through statements and/or full testimony, given without conditions or reserves, to give grounded details which constitute decisive evidence for discovery, investigation and trial of crimes and their perpetrators. Implementation of witness protection program for the witness or justice co-operator is decided only if he is at a dangerous situation, is appropriate to be included in the program (will implement the rules of protection program and will not endanger his own life and health, the life and health of other persons) and by his/her own free will accepts to actively participate in implementation thereof².

In Kosovo, the protection measures can be implemented against a person if: information given by a person is important, which is deemed admissible as evidence while in trial review and that is considered that it cannot be ensured through any other alternative source, the risk is serious, readiness of the person proposed to be included in the program to cooperate with investigation and court bodies while implementing the program and eligibility of the proposed person for inclusion into the program in order to operate in concordance with the program for convincing that displacement of witness will not cause any risk for life or health of other persons³.

As it may be seen, Albania and Kosovo at this point have two conditions in common, they are: cooperation with justice and existence of risk, whereas for other points, the law of Albania is more comprehensive and has more in detail

¹ Ibidem, in Albania, Article 2, p.1 in Kosovo Article 4 paragraph 1, p. 2, in Serbia Article 5, p. 2

² Law on Protection of Witnesses and Justice Co-operators, in Albania no. 10173, 2009, as amended by Law no. 10461,2011, Article 10 paragraph 1 and 2, p. 5

³ Law on Protection of Witnesses, in Kosovo no. 04/L-015, 2011, Article 22, p. 8

foreseen conditions as to when a person may in this case a victim be included in the protection program, whereas as regards to Serbia, almost all conditions are required as in the case of Kosovo.

2.2.5 Types of protection measures

As far as protection measures are concerned, in Albania the following measures have been provided for: changing of identity; changing the residence; issuance of false documents; temporary protection of the identity, of the data and documents; giving testimony through another identity and administration through special means for voice or view image distortion and other types of forms as provided for by the law, in compliance with the Article 361/a of the Criminal Procedure Code (**the question of justice co-operators and protected witnesses**); physical and technical protection at the place where the person stays, and while in his/her moves; social rehabilitation; providing financial support; professional requalification; provision of advice and specialised legal support; any other measure which is estimated and approved as necessary in compliance with this law.

The following protective measures are provided for in Kosovo: physical protection of the protected person; temporary displacement of protected person to a safe place; special procedures for access to data and documents related to protected persons, from the office for issuing documents and other formal databases; change of residence, work or education of the protected person; changing the identity of the protected person; change of physical appearance of protected person including plastic surgeries; financial support for protected persons; social, legal and any other type of support, as necessary for the protected person and special regime for protected person in custody, in correctional institutions¹.

The following protective measures are provided for in Serbia: physical and property protection, change of residence and settling in any other security institution, hiding of identity and the data for ownership and changing of identity².

From this diversity of protective measures, it resulted that there are some distinctions between Albania, Kosovo and Serbia, given that the laws in Kosovo and Serbia have expressly foreseen the measures, whereas in Albania except expressive numbering of some measures, the text also is added specifying that "every other measure assessed and approved as necessary in compliance with this law", this implies that the law of Albania has left the possibility open to undertake other measures which have not been expressly numbered in this provision and it is completely implementable.

An essential similarity between the above mentioned laws of Albania, Kosovo and Serbia is also the fact that by the three laws, each protective measure can be implemented only upon consent of the protected person and not against his/her will. In the three, signing of agreement is required in between the directorate and the protected person and if deemed necessary other urgent protective measures can be taken too, until a decision is made by Commission for protection.

2.2.6 Responsible bodies for implementation of protective measures

As regards the responsible bodies for preparation, evaluation, approval and implementation of the witness and justice co-operators or parties at a trial proceeding protection program, in the three cases, the following have been foreseen: the Commission for Evaluation of the Protection Program, then in Albania and in Kosovo – Directorates, whereas in the case of Serbia – the Unit for Implementation of the Program for Enforcement of Protective Measures.

In Albania, the Commission is chaired by Deputy Minister of Internal Affairs, covering the issues of public order and it consists of the following: a judge proposed by High Council of Justice in the position of deputy chair; a prosecutor proposed by General Prosecutor in the position of a member and a judicial police officer as proposed by General Director

¹ Law on Protection of Witnesses, in Kosovo no.04/-L-015, 2011, Article 5, paragraph 2, p. 3 and Law on Protection of Witnesses and Justice Co-operators, in Albania no.10173, 2009, as amended by Law no. 10461,2011, Article 12, p. 6

² Zakon o programu zastite ucesnika u krivicnom postupku Srbije, Sl. Glasnik RS br.85/2005, Article 14, p. 5

of State Police in the position of a member and the director of directorate (for witness protection) in the position of a member¹.

In Serbia the Commission consists of one judge from Supreme Court of Serbia as appointed by the President of Supreme Court, a deputy Republican Prosecutor as appointed by Serbia Republican Prosecutor and the chair of the Unit (Directorate) for implementation of protective measures².

In Kosovo, the Commission consists of three (3) members: Chief State Prosecutor of the Republic of Kosovo, chair of the office of investigation from Kosovo Police, and the Director of Directorate for Witness Protection, whereas the Chief State Prosecutor is the chair of the Commission³.

As it may be noted, and as regards to the responsible bodies for implementation of witness and justice co-operator and trial proceeding parties protective measures, there are distinctions related to related to the level of representations, because while in Kosovo members of the Commission hold leading positions in the institutions they come from, in Albania and Serbia there come persons who are proposed by leaders of institutions they come from, except the director or head of the directorate or unit for witness protection coming based on the position.

From the composition of the commissions, the power and the level of responsibility of commission results proportionately in the cases when decided to include a person in the protection program, therefore Kosovo has an advantage in this direction, because the responsibility has been conveyed to higher levels of bodies dealing with provision of protection for endangered persons and this indicates a serious approach when treatment of this important matter is in question, not only for the lives of protected persons, but for the criminal proceeding too and for the integration of these countries into European Union.

2.2.7 Duration of the protection program

As regards the duration of the protection program, this program in Albania as a rule is implemented for an indefinite time and can extend into all stages of criminal proceedings, and even after their conclusion, and this depends on the existence and condition of the risk, eligibility of the protected person, in relation to the particular protective measure that is being implemented, and based on the implementation by the protected person as regards to protection agreement foreseen obligations.

In Serbia the program of protection of parties at a trial criminal proceeding is implemented in a duration as estimated by Commission and the duration depends on the case circumstances, whereas in Kosovo the duration of protection program for some measures is not defined, for some of them it may last initially up to a maximum of 12 month duration, but it can be extended again if the same ground conditions continue to exist based on which the measures have been assigned⁴.

As for the program duration compared between Albania, Serbia and Kosovo, there are two distinctions, one of them is related to initial duration, considering that this duration in Kosovo is set for 12 months, whereas in Albania and in Serbia it has not been defined and the other one is related to initiation of application of the protection program. In Kosovo this program includes the pretrial stage of the procedure, the stage while the criminal proceeding is ongoing and after the criminal proceeding conclusion, whereas in Albania and in Serbia this program may be implemented only during the criminal proceeding and after conclusion of the criminal proceeding, whereas the pretrial stage of the criminal proceedings is not included.

¹ Law on Protection of Witnesses and Justice Co-operators, in Albania no. 10173, 2009, as amended by Law no. 10461,2011, Article 9 paragraph 2, p. 5

² Zakon o programu zastite ucesnika u krivicnom postupku Srbije, Sl. Glasnik RS br.85/2005, Article 7, p. 3

³ Law on Protection of Witnesses, in Kosovo no. 04/-L-015, 2011, Article 15, paragraph 2 and 4, p. 5

⁴ Ibidem, in Albania Article 11, p. 6, in Serbia Article 31, p. 12 and in Kosovo from Article 6-14, p. 3-5

2.2.8 International cooperation while implementing the protection program

Taking into consideration the sensitivity of protection of witnesses and justice co-operators or parties at trial criminal proceeding, Albania, Serbia and Kosovo have foreseen international cooperation, in the cases of including certain persons in the protection program. This cooperation is necessary because in certain cases it is almost impossible to provide safe protection for certain persons depending on the seriousness of the criminal offence and the type and level of risk involved.

In Albania, the international cooperation is provided for by Article 27 of the Law on Protection of Witnesses and Justice Co-operators and it is carried out based on obligations deriving from international agreements, in which the Republic of Albania is a party, or through agreements for concrete cases made by the director of directorate with the similar units in other countries. According to this law, the agreements for the concrete protection program may provide for the mutual implementation of protection program, including the change of residence and stay of protected persons in respective territories of the parties.

Law on Protection of Witnesses, in Kosovo, has provided for the international cooperation by Article 28, and according to this provision the international cooperation must be approved based on the international agreements, bilateral and multilateral agreements, based on comity, following the approval by the Commission also in other individual cases.

As regards Serbia, the international cooperation has been foreseen by Article 39 of the Law on Program for Protection of Parties at Trial Criminal Proceedings, and based on such provision this cooperation is realised based on international agreements or based on reciprocal agreements and based on the request for protective measures from the other state as submitted to the Unit for Implementation of Protective Measures.

In this case also, it is obvious that the international cooperation is mainly normed in the same way, but there are differences contained in the law of Albania related to "classified information" contained in the international cooperation agreement, for signing the agreement, because the general rules are not adhered as in the case of international agreements and in this case the agreement shall be signed by the director of directorate, whereas according to the law of Serbia, the Unit (directorate) for implementation of protective measures is competent for international cooperation, whereas according to the law of Kosovo, it is said that the agreement is signed by the Commission.

3. Concluding summary

As a conclusion in dealing with protection of victims in Albania, Serbia and in Kosovo, it may be stated that these states have the same aims which are related to trafficking victims' protection when they appear as witnesses, always based on victims consent or will, and that the directorates/units of the three countries have the possibility to undertake similar measures for protection of witnesses, which are foreseen by respective laws of these countries.

In the three cases the state has taken as obligation creating of mechanisms for protection, it has allocated financial means for functioning of directorates for witness protection, they have established or helped in establishing shelter facilities or safe houses for protected persons, although in the financial aspect of supporting directorates and safe houses, the government of both countries would need to do more to achieve the goal of protection.

Likewise, the three countries have acted in accordance with the European Council Convention on actions against trafficking in human beings of the year 2005, requiring from member states (although Kosovo is not yet a member of Council of Europe) that each party will protect the private life and the identity of victims, will approve the measures to secure, in particular that the identity or details allowing identification of children, victims of trafficking are not made public, through media or by any other means unless in extraordinary circumstances and in compliance with Article 10 of the

Convention for Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, interpreted by the European Court of Human Rights, will approve measures aiming at encouragement of media to protect the private life and identity of victims through self-regulation or through regulatory measures or co-regulation¹. Thus, all the three states have undertaken the measures as required by this convention by making protection of witnesses and justice co-operators as part of laws.

Aiming at protection of trafficking victims, Albania has foreseen as obligations to make the national strategy and the operational cadre for improvement of special programs for witness protection, through strengthening the directorate for protection of witnesses and justice co-operators², whereas Kosovo and Serbia although in their strategies or action plans have foreseen protection of victims, they have not provided for any plan or action towards improvement of the program for witness protection.

Also when in question is protection of trafficking victims, a cooperation will be necessary not only between Albania, Serbia and Kosovo, but also between these countries with other states of Western Balkans and other states of European Union, because all countries of Western Balkans are small countries by territory and number of inhabitants and the possibilities of risking the trafficking victims are always present. Therefore, this cooperation would help in cases when it is required for victims to be sent to third countries or where they would be safer.

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¹ Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings, Warsaw 2005, Article 11

² National Strategy of Combating against Trafficking in Human Beings in Albania, 2008-2010, operational cadre, II protection, item 4. (b).1, p. 55

The Impact of Blogging on Primary School Students' Writing

Mirela Frunzeanu

Doctoral School of Educational Sciences,
Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences,
University of Bucharest, Romania
mirela.frunzeanu@yahoo.com

Abstract

Reading and writing form the foundation of education, and are basically required for all academic disciplines, including mathematics and science. Writing is a skill that all primary (elementary) school students in Romania are required to develop in their learning of the Romanian language. However, this is an area in which not all students excel. This study investigates if the use of blogging can improve students' writing skills. Data were gathered from 30 primary fourth grade students through pre-post writing tests, reflection sheets, and interviews. The pre-post writing tests were administered before and after the pupils had completed their blogging activities, while the blogs were used to draft their writings and to comment on their peers' writings. The teacher also used a writing guide that served to help students plan their writing on their blogs. Overall, results showed a statistically significant difference of medium effect size between the pre-post test scores. Students' perceptions of using blogs as a tool for writing were also explored.

Keywords: blogs, writing skills, primary school, education

I. DIGITAL TECHNOLOGIES - HELPFUL TOOLS FOR TEACHING WRITING

Reading and writing form the foundation of education, and are basically required for all academic disciplines, including mathematics and science (Cassell, 2004). Children begin developing reading and writing skills even before they attend school (Huffaker, 2004). Although writing is a skill that primary school pupils in Romania are required to develop in their learning of Romanian language as a subject, not many pupils excel in it. In order to help pupils improve their writings, some primary school teachers have begun exploring the use of digital technologies.

Digital technologies are shaping student writing in myriad ways and have also become helpful tools for teaching writing to elementary school students. Digital tools have several distinct, beneficial impacts on student writing, including providing a broader audience for student work, encouraging creativity and personal expression in a multitude of formats, and offering more opportunities for collaboration, interaction and feedback. Many teachers say that taken together, these three impacts of digital technologies make writing both more meaningful and less intimidating for many students, while also encouraging greater commitment to, and personal investment in, what they produce.

Not only are their students are doing considerably more writing outside of the classroom than they would without these digital tools, but they have the unique experience of writing for broad and varied audiences because of the internet. Exposing student writers to a wider audience via online platforms is a considerable change from a time when only one's teacher and perhaps a few classmates would read a student's writing.

Teachers see digital technologies benefitting student writing in several ways:

- digital technologies “allow students to share their work with a wider and more varied audience”
- these tools “encourage greater collaboration among students”
- digital technologies “encourage student creativity and personal expression” (Purcell, Buchanan & Friedrich, 2013).

The combined effect of these impacts is a greater investment among students in what they write and greater engagement in the writing process.

Teachers share some concerns and challenges they face teaching writing in today's digital environment. Among them are:

- an increasingly ambiguous line between “formal” and “informal” writing and the tendency of some students to use informal language and style in formal writing assignments
- the increasing need to educate students about writing for different audiences using different “voices” and “registers”
- the general cultural emphasis on truncated forms of expression, which some feel are hindering students willingness and ability to write longer texts and to think critically about complicated topics
- disparate access to and skill with digital tools among their students
- challenging the “digital tool as toy” approach many students develop in their introduction to digital tools as young children (Purcell, Buchanan & Friedrich, 2013).

Despite some challenges, most teachers say the internet and digital tools make it easier for them to teach writing and they believe that digital tools make their students more likely to write well because they can revise their work easily.

Asked in focus groups to clarify what, specifically, they consider “writing,” the majority of teachers indicated that “formal writing” and “creative writing” fit their definition of “writing.” Slightly fewer said they would classify “blogging” as writing (Purcell, Buchanan & Friedrich, 2013).

While most teachers in the focus groups said they do not consider texting, blogging, or micro-blogging (posting on social network sites) “writing” in the traditional sense, they believe these digital formats do spur thinking and encourage communication among their students, which may lead to deeper thinking and self-expression.

These digital technologies give students a reason to write. Social media and texting are very engaging for them; they write reflexively. It is not classic academic writing for sure. But, they do use the written language to communicate. This requires a certain amount of composition activity. Texters must decide the most efficient set of words to include in their message in order to convey meaning. These activities are “pre-academic writing”, but nevertheless for some kids they are formative processes that can lead to more sophisticated composition skills.

Students can write and voice ideas in many different registers. It is often not “academic” writing in the sense that many teachers would consider. However, I think the kinds of real world applicability of student work in classes makes these new digital tools much more relevant for students beyond their schooling years.

Digital technologies provide many opportunities to practice writing through participation. Mobile technologies allow one to write, capture, edit, & publish while on the go, anytime, anywhere. Be it at a museum, walk through the old neighborhood, or on a wilderness hike. Writing is no longer limited to a designated time or location.

The ease of accessibility brought via technology has opened the availability of writing opportunities for students today. Some devices have tempted students to write everything as if it were a text, but teacher focus on this issue can channel the text craze into more academic writing. Like all technologies, there are good and bad points, but at least the thought processes of writing are taking place.

II. BLOGS - THE IMPACT ON STUDENTS WRITING

The word ‘blog’ is actually an abbreviated form for ‘weblog’ (Ray, 2006; Wu, 2006). It can be used as a noun and a verb. When used as a noun, it refers to an online journal or web diary and, as a verb, ‘to blog’ or ‘blogging’ means to write on the weblog (Wu, 2006). Blogs display the work of the main author(s) in reverse chronological order (Hall & Davison, 2007; Wu, 2006). It also has other functions such as creating links to other Internet resources and the integration of comments from others (Hall & Davison, 2007; Ray, 2006; Stiler & Philleo, 2003). The most recent entries are supported by an archive of

earlier posts (Hall & Davison, 2007; Wu, 2006). Similarly, blogs can be defined as personal journals made up of chronological entries that are similar to a paper diary (Huffaker, 2005; Poling, 2005).

One of the most quoted features of a blog is that a blog can have instant publishing of text or graphics to the Web without the need for sophisticated technical knowledge (Huffaker, 2005; Martindale & Wiley, 2005). Huffaker (2005) also brought up other features of a blog that include: ways for people to provide comments or feedback to blog posts, the opportunity to archive past blog posts by date, and hyperlinks to other bloggers. However, most blog tools do not have spell checkers, and this may pose a problem for individuals who rely heavily on having a spell checker to correct their spelling errors. One way to circumvent this problem is to first type the comments in a word processor (e.g., Microsoft Word) and use the spell checking feature of the word processor to check for spelling errors before copying and pasting the comments into the blogs. It is also important to note that although a blog is open to all readers by default, an author can restrict his or her blog to only certain selected readers. However, the author must explicitly give access to these readers, and the readers will need to log in before reading the blog.

Blogging provides learners with a less formal environment outside the classroom where they could use it as a knowledge log (Brescia & Miller, 2006) to record their learning journey (Dickey, 2004). Instructors may also use a blog to post class times and rules, assignment requirements, suggested readings, and exercises (Downes, 2004).

However, the number of empirical studies pertaining to the use of blogs in primary or elementary school context is still very few.

Many schools are launching school blogs as a way of developing their online profiles and involving pupils in digital writing. Blogs are used in many different ways. They are sometimes used as a way of sharing class activities with pupils' family members and caregivers, or as a showcase for pupils' writing – a kind of online school magazine with a wider audience. They can be used as 'work blogs', a way of establishing ongoing learning dialogues with pupils, and sometimes they include personal journal spaces for individuals. The extent to which pupils are involved in organising the blog and posting their contributions differs, and so does the extent of their personal involvement. Sometimes pupils write their blog-posts only in school time, sometimes they blog and post from home – this raises issues about access to computers and the internet. The extent of teachers' contributions and the control they choose to exercise over blog content also differ.

At the moment, very little is known about whether there are differences between pupils' digital writing and their regular school writing on paper. There is some evidence to suggest that blogging increases pupils' interest and enthusiasm for writing (see the recent survey: *The state of educational blogging2* – The Edublogger, 2012), but little attention has been paid to its effects on the quality of writing in general, about its potential for developing pupils' writing in new directions, or about the ways in which teachers frame tasks for blogging and respond to pupils' writing on class blogs.

Blogging, like any technology, will not independently or autonomously improve pupils' writing performance. Certain guidance should be developed and practiced, along with the use of technology, in order to achieve increased pupils' performance (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

Writing is typically perceived as an abstract task because it involves a second-order symbolic system that must be consciously applied to communicate with a distant audience.

Most young writers demonstrate an immature writing strategy known as the knowledge-telling strategy, as exemplified by the recording of their ideas in whatever order they come to mind. The use of appropriate scaffolding could help them.

According to Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976), scaffolding is defined as a temporary form of support "that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts". After some time, the adult will take away the scaffolds from the child once the child has a conceptual understanding of the entire task and is able to accomplish the task on his or her own.

Findings from Englert, Manalo, and Zhao (2004) indicated that students wrote more, elaborated with topically-related details, incorporated more genre specific characteristics, and became more organized in expressing their ideas on written

assignments that made use of scaffolding. Perry, VandeKamp, Mercer, and Nordby (2002) also added that even younger students who are struggling with writing are able to develop their writing skills when guided using scaffolding.

There are different types of scaffolding. Some types of scaffolding are: questioning scaffolds that can be used in teacher-student interactions or in written contexts where questions are in print to guide students, peer revision scaffolding where students are allowed to discuss ideas and aid each other in their writing, writing prompts that offers structural reminders to prompt students' attention to certain text features such as organization of ideas, and developing of ideas, writing frames that structure pupils' expression of understanding of processes by providing a template of starters, connectives and sentence modifiers which give pupils a structure within which they can concentrate on communicating what they want to express, writing model guides that can be used as an outline or mind-mapping guide for the planning component of the writing and teacher modelling that looks at the teacher demonstrating how the writing should be done by focusing on different aspects such as language, text organisation, and ideas generation (Gibson, 2007).

III. METHOD

In this study, we investigate the impact of using such a learning environment on the pupils' writing abilities. Pupils' perceptions of using blogs as a tool for writing are also explored.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following two research questions:

- (a) Did the use of blogs improve pupils' writing ability?
- (b) How did primary school pupils perceive the use of blogs as a tool for writing?

Participants

The participants in this study were 30 primary four (equivalent to grade four) pupils, taking Romanian language as a subject. Although many pupils might have experience using the computers and Internet, this was the first time the pupils experienced blogging.

Procedures and Data Analysis

The current study is best characterized as a one-group pre-test and post-test experimental research design, in which a single group was measured both before and after a particular treatment. The study was done over three weeks with various activities conducted in each week. In the first week, the 36 pupils were given a pre-test which consisted of a narrative writing task.

The purpose of the pre-test was to gather baseline data on the pupils' initial narrative writing ability. Pupils completed the pre-test individually on paper. They were given 50 minutes to complete the pre-test in class.

Still within week one, following the pre-test, pupils were introduced to blogs. Each pupil was taught how to sign up for a Gmail email account and to use it to set up their individual blogs. Once, their blogs were set up, the pupils were taught how to invite their peers to their blog as blog readers so that their blogs could only be read and commented upon by the participants of the current study.

In week two, the teacher prepared and introduced to the pupils a writing guide as a scaffold to help pupils' use of language and plan for their writing on their individual blogs. Specifically, pupils completed the following tasks:

- (a) First – pupils typed out the first draft in their individual blogs in response to a blogging practice question by using a writing guide as a scaffold.

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- (b) Second – pupils worked on their first draft by transferring their first draft to a Microsoft Word document (i.e., through copy and pasting) in order to use its spelling checking, and word count tool which was not available on their blog. The edited first draft was subsequently re-posted on their blog as a second draft.
- (c) Third – pupils read and provided comments about each other's second draft. Pupils specifically commented on their peers' use of vocabulary and linking words. Pupils then worked on their second draft to produce a third draft based on their peers' comments.
- (d) Fourth – pupils worked on their third draft to produce a final draft, after their peers had again commented on their third draft. This time, however, pupils commented on the sequencing, development, and relevance of their peers' ideas.

Overall, each pupil received between three to five comments from different pupils.

In week three, the teacher used another narrative writing question as a post-test that tested the pupils' narrative writing ability after the blogging and scaffolding treatment that was conducted in week two. Similar to the pre-test, pupils completed the post-test individually on paper. They were also given 50 minutes to complete the post-test in class. Pupils were not allowed to use blogs and the writing guide as a scaffold.

To address the second research question, "How did primary school pupils perceive the use of blogs as a tool for writing?" pupils were asked to reflect upon four open-ended questions at the conclusion of the study. The questions were:

- (a) What do I like about blogging as a tool for writing?
- (b) What do I dislike about blogging as a tool for writing?
- (c) What are some suggestions to improve the use of blogging as a tool for writing?
- (d) How do I compare blogging and writing on paper?

The teacher prepared the aforementioned four open-ended questions on sheets of paper (hereby referred to as reflection sheets). All 30 pupils completed the reflection sheets in class. Individual face-to-face interviews were also carried out after the reflection sheets were done. Six pupils were purposefully selected for the interviews in order to clarify unclear issues that surfaced from their reflection sheets, and to seek a more in-depth view of some of their perceptions of using blogging as a writing tool. To increase the validity of the interview data, we used member checking by sharing our gathering of the pupils' interview data with the pupils to clear up possible areas of miscommunication.

IV. RESULTS

The results revealed that pupils' mean scores had improved for all three areas (i.e., content, language, and overall total), after the blogging and scaffolding treatment. In addition, the standard deviation for all three areas had also decreased, indicating that the spread of the scores had decreased and that the scores of the pupils were more consistent. This suggested that the blogging and scaffolding treatment had narrowed the score differences between pupils.

Results further revealed that pupils' language component post-test scores were significantly better than their pre-test scores. Some improvement for narrative content had taken place though it was not significant.

In addition, pupils' overall total post-test scores were significantly better than their pre-test scores.

Based on the content analysis of the pupils' comments from the reflection sheets, it seems that primary school pupils enjoyed using blogging as a writing tool as compared to writing on paper. There were more positive comments on what they liked about blogging as a tool for writing as compared to negative comments on what they disliked about blogging as a tool for writing. Some sample comments were:

Reflection Question 1: What do I like about blogging as a tool for writing?

- "It is very fun and interesting."

- "I can improve my writing through my friend's comments on spelling, grammar, vocabulary."
- "I can make my posts attractive by choosing a colour for the font. I can also change the type of font."
- "I can use the computer to type instead of wasting my pen ink to do the writing on a piece of paper."
- "Blogging also helps us to train our speed of typing."
- "It also helps me improve my technology. I also learn a lot about computers."
- "We can easily understand what our friends type and people can understand what I type."
- "We would not need to copy out the whole composition on a paper."

Reflection Question 2: What do I dislike about blogging as a tool for writing?

- "I type slower than I write."
- "What I dislike about blogging is if we sit with it typing out a big composition it will spoil our eyes."
- "There should be word count so that we would not need to count the words one by one."
- "Sometimes I could make mistakes and accidentally delete my work, then I will have to do it all over again."
- "It sometimes annoys me when the computer is slow."
- "It does not auto-save often enough, often resulting in lost work."
- "I will miss out some letters while typing."

Reflection Question 3: My suggestions on how to improve the use of blogging as a tool for writing?

- "We can have a word count so that we do not have to copy everything and paste it in the Microsoft Word."
- "Maybe teacher could put aside 30 minutes every week for blogging."
- "Maybe we could let more people, friends to comment on our posts."
- "The blog could have the option for checking the words or check for mistake to save us the trouble of copying and pasting our composition to Microsoft word for checking."
- "We hope that we can add polls, music, comics and other elements into our blog to describe what type of entries to write."

Reflection Question 4: My comparison between writing on paper and blogging.

- "I prefer blogging to writing as I can type very fast."
- "I do not like writing on paper as my hands get tired very easily."
- "Writing on paper takes less time."
- "When we do blogging, we have more ideas from our peers through their comments but on paper, we only have the teacher's idea."
- "Writing on paper requires you to count the number of words whereas while blogging, the computer can count the words for you."

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Through this study, the results may imply that the use of blogging and scaffolding can help improve pupils' writing ability as pupils' writings in terms of their language use (e.g., vocabulary) and their total scores for the post-test showed a significant gain compared to that of their pre-test scores, after the blogging and scaffolding treatment.

This could be due to a number of reasons including blogs as motivational tools that motivate pupils to write better, blogs present a fun and authentic writing environment that ensures that posts are read by an audience that does not only include the teacher, pupils are able to personalize their blogs and writing, pupils can concentrate on problem areas and modify or develop their writing accordingly, instead of having to copy out all of their writing, blogs enable unidirectional peer revision

scaffolding, contributed by peers to be published and read on individual pupils' blog sites so that they can use them to improve their writing and writing guide that helped pupils to craft better writing pieces.

Pupils valued the wider audiences for their blog writing, yet many placed greater value on the more personal feedback from teachers that they received on their blog post compared with that given to writing in their notebooks.

Blogging could enhance relationships between pupils and teachers and between schools and homes. Though parents do not always comment on the school blogs, pupils reported that many follow the blogs and are interested in what classes are writing.

In most classrooms, for most pupils, blogging resulted in pupils' increased engagement in writing, increased confidence in writing, greater awareness of audience, a greater sense of their 'voice' as a writer, greater awareness of their own writing and that of others, and an enhanced sense of belonging to a writing community.

This study points to several implications for the use of blogs in primary school contexts. First, the finding suggests that teachers wishing to implement peer comment should constantly remind pupils to provide feedback on the content generation component, and not merely focus on the language part of their peers' writings. Second, it is noted that some pupils had difficulty in using blogs due to their limited typing ability. This finding suggests that teachers should perhaps provide a typing workshop or class for these pupils before actual blog use commences. This can help bring their typing ability up to par with the rest of the pupils so that they would not be disadvantaged when using blogs in the classroom.

The results suggest that blogging and scaffolding can help improve pupils' narrative writing ability as a comparison of their pre- and post-test scores show an improvement in overall test scores. Overall, pupils also prefer the use of blogs for writing as compared to pen and paper writing and this is determined through the analysis of the pupils' reflection sheets.

Beyond simply providing students more opportunities to practice their writing skills, teachers noted that digital tools can be critically important in providing specific feedback to students on where and how their writing can improve. Many felt this interactive feedback helps make students more receptive to improving their writing. As students implement suggested changes in their writing, they (students) begin to see improvements and start to gain confidence. Moreover, by working on both their own and others' work, they learn to identify and appreciate good writing.

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Lobbying in the United States of America and European Union: A comparative Approach

Gerti Sqapi, PhD Cand.

European University of Tirana, Albania.

gerti.sqapi@gmail.com

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to set in a comparative perspective the development of lobbying in the United States of America and the European Union, taking into account the particular political and institutional structure that characterizes these two areas. Lobbying, as an activity that has had a significant expansion over recent decades, has become increasingly a legitimate part of every democratic system. As such, the legislation of each country has been expanded and adapted to include and regulate such lobbying activities. Per se lobbying is a matter of interest to be studied whether in terms of challenges, opportunities, transparency and potential access it has for influencing the political system of a country. And the two entities that make up more interest to be studied in relation to their properties or characteristics of lobbying are USA and EU. Although the techniques of lobbying in Brussels and in Washington are often regarded as the same, the differences in style and content are still existent between the two areas. The comparative analysis in this paper takes into account institutional differences that exist between the United States of America and European Union; the more strict regulatory approach that leads activities of lobbyists in USA and that less formal in regulating lobbying activities that characterizes the political institutions in the EU; differences that exist in the ways of funding the different lobbying groups; and the differences that exist in the ways of representing diverse interests between these two areas. From such a comparative perspective, this paper will identify the diversities and differences that exist in lobbying between the USA and EU.

Keywords: lobbying; interest groups, European Union, USA, lobbying regulation, funding, transparency.

I. Introduction

On lobbying – as the process of seeking to influence government and its institutions by informing the public policy agenda (Zetter, 2008: p. 3) - we may say that it is a legitimate part of any democratic system. Although the term in itself carries negative connotations, and is frequently associated with corruptive affairs or unlawful influences of various interests, its legitimacy and importance in influencing the political process in a democratic system are in general accepted. Seen in this perspective, and as a result of the blooming and spreading of the lobbying activities in various policy-making fields during the last decades, the need to regulate the lobbying activities within the legal frameworks is becoming more and more imminent. Such need comes from the fact of securing the necessary transparency and equal opportunities for various lobbying groups to influence a specific policy on one hand, and of guaranteeing the credibility of the political process and the actors involved in it on the other. As such, we could say that lobbying is a matter of interest to be studied in terms of challenges, opportunities, transparency or the potential access it has in influencing the political system of a country. In this paper, two entities will be analyzed in terms of their lobbying specifications or characteristics, the United States of America and European Union; since they are more interesting to be studied in this light.

The aim of this paper is to offer a descriptive study in a comparative approach of the main lobbying characteristics in the USA and EU by focusing on the legal framework of each country (or better, each entity) on the regulation of lobbying activities. Such thing will be carried out by considering as well the institutional, political and historical differences which exist between these two areas on both sides of the Atlantic. The second part of this paper is focused on identifying the particular political and institutional structures which exist in the USA and the EU, by thus providing an overview and by showing the important influence they have on the lobbying natures of each area. The focus on the third part will shift mostly

on the legal framework reforms on the regulation of the lobbying activity in the USA and the EU, by thus highlighting the distinctions and differences in lobbying which exist between them.

II. United States and European Union – Two separate political, institutional and cultural environments

Before examining the separate specifics of the lobbying practices in the USA and the EU, it is important to identify the different political and institutional frameworks which characterize these two areas. Naturally, the field or environment where lobbying activities take place is important to be identified and analyzed, because it defines their particular specifics. As Broisched and Coen has shown in this regard, different institutional venues create different political opportunity structures, thus affecting the nature of the lobbying environment they face (Cited in Baumgartner, 2007: p. 484).

In terms of the USA, we could afford to say that it is a nation-state, with a well-defined federal structure which characterizes it and which has been stable for over two centuries. In this regard, the United States can be considered a genuine state, with an institutional frame relatively stable in time (despite the frequent territorial enlargement the US has gone through) under a single Constitution since 1789 when it entered into force. Unlike it, the EU is a system in-the-making that have evolved over the last half century through successive extensions and institutional changes, and therefore “the persistence of the provisional” (Wallace W., 2000: p. 537). In contrast with the USA which has the attributes of a genuine federal state and where sovereignty stands between the national and state governments, the EU is a complex system of supranational institutions with inter-governing features, with decisions which are continuously negotiated by its member states. In other words, “it is an expression of the preference for the “deliberate ambiguity of this semi-confederation” instead of full federation” (Wallace W., 2000, p. 500). The EU is a very complex organization which consists in a mixture of the attributes of a state and those of an international organization [...] and rules and policies are decided and executed by many actors at different levels (Mihut, 2008: p. 7). And, by stressing here that the EU is not a state with genuine attributes which characterize it, but a voluntary political-economic union of 28 different countries that agreed to give up a part of their sovereignty, its institutions (the most important of which are the Council of Ministers, the European Commission and the European Parliament) are often characterized by a tension between inter-governing and supranational features.

From this complex system often referred to as “*multi-level governance*” within the EU, derives the fact that here, the power, or force, is more disperse, in contrast with the American system where power is more concentrated. (Wallace H., 2000, p. 31). And from this concept, that the EU is not, and should not be considered a genuine state, derives the fact that it has a much more limited jurisdiction or competency compared to that of a state or national government such as the United States of America. While in the USA the sovereignty of national and state governments extends in all policy fields, we cannot say the same about the European Union which has exclusive competencies only in certain policy fields (mainly those related to the Single Market issues and customs union); in other fields, European institutions have only restricted coordinating competencies. This has direct implications in the policy-making process, in the various actors involved in such process, in the legitimacy of various institutions on those involved in lobbying activities, etc. It is also important to mention here the fact that the EU budget is much smaller than the US federal budget, as well as the size of the European institutions administration is much smaller that the American government (Mihut, 2008: p. 8).

Also, another important characteristic which needs to be highlighted before comparing lobbying in the USA and the EU is the different historical and cultural environment which characterizes both sides of the Atlantic in terms of lobbying traditions. Lobbying as a professional activity was created in the United States starting by the end of the 18th century, and since then it has constantly developed and been accepted as a legitimate activity. Different authors (Zetter, 2008: p. 392; Mihut, 2011: p. 65) when referring to the high level of lobbying in the USA and the well- consolidated and legitimate traditions there, refer to, or find the source of it, in the US Constitution Amendment which guarantees US citizens not just freedom of religion, but also freedom of speech, a free press and the right to petition (i.e., lobby) Congress. In such history of development, lobbying in the United States is seen as a legitimate way of representation and advancement of interests from various groups. The contrary can be said about the Europeans, where the lobbying tradition was less developed than in the USA, and which

have been skeptical about the legitimacy of lobbying practices as representation channels of various interests. The long American tradition of lobbying means the practice is largely accepted, drawing a wider variety of interest groups - including NGOs and citizen's groups - to fight for the attention of politicians. Europeans are more skeptical towards lobbying as a legitimate part of the political process and have turned to it in fewer, yet growing proportions (Cited in Euroactiv, 2005: p. 1-2). And the important lobbying differences between the United States of America and the European Union also derive from this different historical and cultural development.

III. Distinctions and differences between the USA and the EU in the development of lobbying

Mainly because of this Madisonian tradition, which has also been sanctioned in the US Constitution, the US has chosen not to restrict the lobbying practice and, generally speaking, the interest groups activities, but to regulate them instead in order to assure more fairness, transparency, and responsibility (Mihut, 2008: p. 5). As a matter of fact, starting from 1946 with "The Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act", which marked the first attempt to regulate lobbying within the legal framework; then with "Lobbying Disclosure Act" of 1995; and the amendments made to the latter through the "Honest Leadership and Open Government Act" in 2007, all attempts made in this regard are related to the strengthening of the lobbying activity regulation. In essence, the main objective of these laws was the disclosure of lobbying activities, but gradually they became stronger in terms of directing and regulating the behavior of those involved in the lobbying process as well. Some of the main principles of these acts are: *the obligation for the lobbyist to register with the Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House of Representatives; to provide quarterly reports on their activities, and other detailed disclosures; to report who their clients were; what house of the Congress or what agencies they lobbied, how much they were paid; moreover the "Honest Leadership and Open Government Act" of 2007 enhances the disclosure by requiring that campaign fundraising by lobbyist be disclosed to the public and posted on the Internet; establishing a fully searchable and downloadable electronic disclosure database on the Internet; prohibiting gifts and travel by lobbyists and lobbying organizations for lawmakers and congressional staff; and, for the first time, criminal penalties are also provided, namely imprisonment for up to five years or a specified fine, or both* (Library of Congress, Thomas 2007; Mihut, 2008: p. 12). Thus, in essence, the tendency of the United States to strengthen the regulation on lobbying activities and make them more formal and transparent, without hampering or restricting those who lobby, becomes more obvious.

The regulation of lobbying activities situation in the European Union is different and compared to the United States, more minimal and less formalized standards have been developed. However, it must be highlighted that differences in the regulation of lobbying can be found within the EU institutions themselves, in the European Commission and in the European Parliament, as the two main institutions which undertook initiatives to regulate the lobbying activities, but have also adopted these regulations in various ways. The European Parliament was the first institution within the EU to undertake the initiative of legal proposals for the regulation of the lobbying activities. Thus, through the "Rules of Procedure" approved in 1997, the European Parliament forces its members to adhere the Code of Conduct; while securing to lobbyists access in the Parliament through special passwords, but in exchange requires that lobbyists also to adhere a Code of Conduct and sign a special register. So, the Parliament has adopted an accreditation system for lobbyists, but the register provides only the names of the pass-holders and of the organizations they represent, without giving information about the interests for which the lobbyists act (Mihut, 2011: p. 69).

Meanwhile, the European Commission has been even more open to the consultative process with various interest or lobbying groups, by setting even more minimal rules and standards for them and by relying more on the self-regulation approach. In line with the self-regulation approach of these groups, the Commission launched the "European Transparency Initiative", approved on 23 June 2008 (European Commission, 2008). In essence, the objective of this program was to increase the necessary transparency between the lobbyists and the actors involved in decision-making processes in European institutions, but on the other hand, it makes the registration system voluntary and not binding. European Transparency Initiative set up a *voluntary registration for interest representatives coupled with a binding code of conduct* (which parties in question must abide by); as an incentive, *those who register certain information about themselves will be*

alerted in return to consultations in their specific area of interest; limited financial disclosure, leaving it up to the registered individuals to disclose their estimated expenditures on lobbying activity, and identify the major sources of their funding (European Commission, 2008; Holman, 2009: p. 280-281). Thus, the European Commission position remains open in this regard, by requesting limited financial disclosure and specific items of their budget sources from the registered individuals, without forcing them into a full mandatory financial disclosure.

Other differences or distinctions in terms of lobbying ways exist between the United States and the European Union beyond these different approaches of lobbying regulations in institutional and legal terms. An important distinction which separates them is the way various interest (lobbying) groups are financed, or the flow towards which the money is headed to. In the USA, various corporations continuously support the electoral campaigns of politicians through the Political Action Committees. "Although the practice is regulated and the sums capped, corporate funding of politics is still a central element in US political life. Such practices are not recognized or regulated in the EU and are generally seen as unethical. In Europe, money has a bigger tendency to flow the other way, from the public sector to civil society in the form of state aids, grants, subsidies and contracts" (Cited in Euroactiv, 2005: p. 2). This way of collecting money and financing of the electoral campaigns is certainly a major difference, because it has stronger and more direct implications in the relations between lobbyists and the elected politicians. This explains in a way why lobbying in the USA is more professional and aggressive than anywhere else. As Nick DeLuca has noted, "establishing oneself as a prodigious fundraiser is a sure way to get noticed on staff radar screens and is the first big step towards winning friends and then – most importantly – gaining access" (Cited in Zetter, 2008: p. 386). In contrast with the USA, in Europe such practice of collecting and spending the money from various interest groups (such as in the case of Political Action Committees) for electoral campaign of politicians is not known, and not developed either. It is different in the USA, where the candidates run for positions in the House of Representatives, the Senate or for President, and who need considerable amounts of money for their campaigns; they are always attentive to financial donations made by lobbyists or representatives of various businesses or corporations. In a way, it can be said that this represents an endemic relationship between politicians and lobbyists in the USA, because certain donations can make the elected politicians adopt stances on certain policies which favor lobbyists who supported them. And this is important for the USA, if we keep in mind that the key to achieve an effective lobbying here is gaining access through political relationships and through financial support.

Another factor which implies specific differentiations, maybe not of a lesser importance, is related to the pluralist (or even individualist) dichotomy of interest representation in the USA, and that characterizing Europe which is of a more corporatist nature. As Vogel (1996) stressed, unlike the European countries, where the consultation of companies by the government is assumed, the American companies must invest substantial resources, mostly in lobbying, if they wish to affect public policy decisions, as they do not benefit by the official channels to communicate their positions to public officials (Cited in Mihut, 2008: p. 10). Similarly, even within the EU, the European Commission as the main policy entrepreneur through the right of legislative and consultative initiative, bases its policy-making process mostly on the inclusion of various interests and deliberative trust. As Mahoney has noted, EU policymaking leads to more compromise with all parties achieving some level of success while the U.S. policymaking system tends toward winner-take-all outcomes (Mahoney, 2007: p. 44). This is an important factor which has its implications in the policy-making processes, and also explains the various approaches to lobbying which exist between the US and the EU. In Europe, the corporatist tradition of interest representation continues to remain strong and this is also reflected in a large number of business associations federated into a European level to defend their positions; in the US such interest representation is made on more individualist basis from various interest groups or corporations. If, on one hand (in Europe) social dialogue is an important channel for communication between trade unions, employers' associations and public officials; on the contrary, the lack of official channels through which organizations can influence policy-making in the US explains why substantial resources are spent on lobbying and strict regulations for it are enforced (Mihut, 2008: p. 14-15).

Another reason which marks a distinction in the different approaches to lobbying which exist between the two countries is related to the representation system or the way how representatives in the Parliament are elected. The more pluralist and democratic American system (of course, this is also influenced by the fact that this is a national Parliament and not one which represents multi-national interests of 28 different countries) makes candidates who seek to be elected in Congress particularly attentive to the demands of their electors, regardless of where they come from. While the members of the European Parliament are elected, in most countries, through a system of proportional representation defined at the national level; once elected, they are focused on the European agenda and are trying, sometimes quite hard, to make the national agenda consistent with it (Mihut, 2008: p. 8). Thus, we could say here that the Members of the European Parliament are more detached from their electorate. Also, the lack of knowledge about the Brussels policies in general, the high complexity of issues in question here, and the higher level of difficulty in the way decisions are made (where consensus in a European level between a multitude of institutions and actors, with community and national interests which frequently clash with each other, is continuously sought); all of these, in general, increase the perception of a greater distancing between the elected MEPs and their electorate, by thus making the EU representation level less readable and deportable. Exactly the contrary could be said about the same situation in the US Congress, where members of House of Representatives and senators are more cautious and attentive to the voices and demands of their electorate, thus also becoming easier targets. For this reason, a good lobbying strategy in this case, would be related to securing the support of voters who support your proposals. The best lobbyists know that members of Congress will meet with their voters and respond to the ideas and concerns coming from their district (Zetter, 2008: p. 382). In the MEPs case, the different way of being elected and the largest distance which exists between them and their voters, makes them less attractive to the eyes of lobbyists who could direct their energy and resources on them.

Perhaps another reason to be mentioned which explains to a certain point why lobbying which exists in the USA is more sophisticated and aggressive compared to the one developed in the EU, is related to the considerable amount of money spent and allocated in the annual budget by the government in Washington. In the financial year 2007-8, the total US federal Budget was \$2.66 trillion (without taking in consideration here the expenses of particular states)... and you have a truly staggering amount of money up for grabs (Zetter, 2008: p. 395). And this represents a reason not so inconsiderate for whoever involved in a "war" with others by using all means or tools to benefit from them. While such a thing cannot be said in the case of the EU budget – although its population is double that of the US – in 2007 it had an annual budget which did not exceed €130 billion. Put differently, this budget represents just over 1.2% of the GDP of the member states – and the Budget is not allowed to exceed 1.24% (Zetter, 2008: p. 349). Thus, the pieces of "cake" one could get, are smaller here, and the budgeting process itself is more complicated given that we are dealing with a multitude of various institutions and actors, and various interests which frequently clash between them.

IV. Conclusions

In conclusion, we could say that, although lobbying tactics or ways implemented in the USA and the EU are often considered the same – and considering that lobbying is mainly a Western democratic tradition – distinctions or differences in lobbying continue to exist between the two countries. These differences in lobbying between the two countries are first of all related to the different historical, cultural and political environment which characterizes both sides of the Atlantic. Also, another important factor which was mentioned here is related to the long and legitimate lobbying tradition in the US as compared to that in Europe, where it is seen with skepticism. Perhaps, the biggest difference of lobbying between the USA and the EU is related to the different regulation approaches from a legal and institutional point of view. If in the USA, the first attempts in this regard were more and more related to the strengthening of lobbying activity regulation, and by making their registration binding; in the EU, the approach adopted mostly (from the European Commission) was that of self-regulation. However, during the recent years, attempts to somehow strengthen the regulation on lobbying were made here as well, by making lobbyists observe a Code of Conduct and by requesting their accreditation (as in the case of European Parliament). Other characteristics which separate lobbying between the two countries mentioned here are related to the

different financing ways or the flow where money is directed to: from various pressure (lobbying) groups or corporations towards politics as in the case of the USA, and the contrary in Europe, where the money flows mostly from the public sector towards civil society; we also mentioned the different interest representation nature which exists in both countries: more pluralist (and more individualist) in the USA and with interest groups which compete with each-other to gain access or get what they want (which explains why in the US more considerable resources are spent in lobbying than anywhere else), and the somehow corporatist and social nature of these interests representation in Europe. Also, the different representation system (the way representatives are elected) in both countries makes a difference in lobbying between them: US Congress members are more attentive to requests/concerns of their electorate thus becoming easier targets, while MEPs are more detached from their electorate and more focused on the European agenda, which makes lobbying with them difficult. By taking all these in consideration, we could say that there are differences and distinctions in the lobbying made in the USA and the EU.

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Referendum as a constitutional right of citizen participation in Albania

Blendi Dibra, Adv. PhD Cand.

Master in Public Law

Abstract

The referendum is one of the oldest forms of putting directly the democracy into use. The referendum represents a personal, direct statement of the citizens for any legal act or any "other matters of special importance", so that the state must take citizens' opinions before taking a decision. This notion implies the coexistence of sovereign representative bodies (assemblies) and direct popular intervention procedures. The idea of developing referendums in Albania for various issues, has become one of the main subjects of the political debates; especially when dealing with political disputes and the debate fails to find consensus. Although every political debate mentioning the idea of a referendum, once they have achieved the political consensus they let the will of the people in limbo. Unlike many other countries of the world, where the organization and development of referendums is common, leaving people the right to decide on certain issues, Albania after the dictatorship have been organised only three referendums. The referendum as a form of direct democracy is provided in the Constitution of the Republic of Albania in Articles 108/4, 150, 151, 152, 177/4, the Law No.7866, 10.06.2004 "On Referendums" and the Code election of the Republic of Albania in Articles 118-132. The paper analyses different forms of referendums as an important tool for the citizens' participations. A special attention is paid to the case in Albania. Below there is a brief analyse about the referendums in Albania by bringing the practice and facing it with albanian constitution provisions. Event though it is a common form of direct democracy in different countries, Albania has a poor experience which had faced several problems and arised different discussions through researchers of citizens participation right.

Key words: citizens, referendum, constitution, government, decision-making

Referendum

The referendum is one of the oldest form of practicing directly the democracy. The referendum represents a personal, direct and secret statement of the citizens for any legal act or any "other matters of special importance" that the state must take citizens' opinions before taking a decision.

This notion implies the coexistence of sovereign governance and direct popular intervention procedures.

"Referendum" is the term given to a direct vote on a specific issue, in contrast with votes cast at elections, which are made in relation to parties or individual candidates and generally reflect voters' preferences over a range of different issues. Referendums may be held in relation to particular circumstances (e.g., to amend a country's constitution) or in relation to particular political issues (e.g., whether or not to join an international organisation) but are in general held in relation to issues of major political significance. The terms used to define referendums may differ in different countries; the following are the most common types of referendums held in countries across the world.

A referendum usually offers the electorate a choice of accepting or rejecting a proposal, but this is not necessarily the case. In Switzerland, for example, multiple choice referendums are common.

For easier study, referendums are usually classified using two criterias:

I. According to the type of the act or decision that is taken by the referendum under this criteria there is a classification:

a- Constitutional Referendum means when the highest act of a state, in this case the Constitution, should be put to a referendum entering into force. In this case the referendum has constituent character or decision making character. Constitutive character means that Parliament should take the consent of the people before approving the constitution and as such, it is binding for the Parliament. Decision making character is expressed in those cases when the constitution is approved by parliament. Furthermore, asking the consent of the people in a referendum has such a binding character.

b-Legislative Referendum is similar to that Constitutional except that in that case we are dealing with a particular law of a particular importance. In such cases parliament requires the consent of people through referendum. This referendum has a decision-making character or the referendum is organised before parliament approve it and in this case it has a constitutive character.

c-Political-statutory Referendum is seeking citizens ability not to deal with things that are not in a right manner and that have the will to decide on matters of political or statutory importance. This referendum is used when formed a new state, or when required the division from another state or when it comes to creation of a federation or confederation, in case of change of political regimes etc.

d-Local Referendum, in addition there is also a kind of referendum which compared to others is partial and is organised only in a few of territorial administrative units. This type of referendum is used in cases of local administrative matters such as in the case of investments in municipal infrastructure, investment in urbanism, etc.

II. According to the character or the consequences of the decision making through the referendum, there are:

a-Obligatory Referendums. This type of referendum is used to decide about important issues, which are explicitly provided to be decided through the referendum. This referendum has constitutive character and obliges state authorities to act on the basis of the results obtained in the referendum.

b-Facultative Referendum Compared with the Obligatory Referendums, which is resolved by law or any other action, the Facultative Referendum is not obligated for the state authorities. But this referendum is used in cases when the organ itself find it necessary such a thing. Even though it is not obligated, with its application it is converted as obligated for the state authorities and they need to follow it strictly. In contrast of obligatory referendum which is provided by law or by any other act, facultative referendum is not mandatory for state authorities to implement it, but used only when it is decided as necessary. Although not mandatory, on the occasion of his application the its results becomes obligatory to be applied from state authorities.

c- Consultative Referendum. The difference with the two other types of referendums is that this kind of referendum is not mandatory for state authorities and does not require them to apply. But it has more advisory character from which the state authorities may take appropriate decisions, based on the results of the referendum. So this kind advises, does not obligate.

Arguments for and against referendums

Supporters of the use of referendums argue that, in the context of increasing voter apathy and disenchantment with traditional forms of democracy, direct democracy can help to re-engage voters with politics and democracy. Another argument advanced in favour of referendums is that they can be used to resolve political problems, particularly for incumbent governments; where a governing party is divided over an issue, for example, holding a referendum can help reach a solution on the issue without splitting the party (one example of this is the 1975 UK referendum on whether the UK should remain in the EC, over which the ruling Labour government was deeply divided).

There are also a number of arguments made against the use of referendums. One is that it weakens representative government by undermining the role and importance of elected representatives. Another is that voters do not always have the capacity or information to make informed decisions about the issue at stake, and instead may make ill-informed decisions based on partial knowledge or on the basis of unrelated factors such as the economy or support for the government. This trend may be exacerbated in the case of referendums on complex issues such as constitutional change or international treaties, with which voters are likely to be unfamiliar.

Opponents of referendums also argue that, if the executive has the power to determine when referendums are held, they can be used as a political tool to suit the needs of the governing party rather than in the interests of democracy. They also claim that, since in many countries turnout at referendums is lower than at national elections, the argument that referendums increase the legitimacy of political decisions does not stand up. However, experts in Switzerland (where a number of direct democracy votes take place each year) believe that, although turnout at referendums is around 45%, more than 45% of electors participate in direct democracy, since different voters participate in the different votes that interest them.

The Referendums in Albania

The idea of developing referendums in Albania on various issues, has become the main subject of political debates, especially when dealing with political disputes and that the political debates fail to find consensus. Although every political debate mentions the idea of a referendum, once it is achieved the political consensus the will of the people is left in limbo.

Unlike many other countries of the world, where the organization and development of referendums is common, leaving people deciding by their own on certain issues, Albania after the dictatorship has only been organized three referendums.

The first one was held in 1994 for the purpose of approving the new Albanian Constitution. The second was on 29 June 1997. The referendum was organized together with the elections for the new parliament, where citizens voted if Albania should be a monarchy or a republic. A year later, in 1998, a popular referendum was organized to vote for the Constitution of the Republic of Albania.

The referendums focused on organizing referendums about local issues and that should be noted that the initiative for organizing it requires only 10 percent of the signatures of the municipality's or commune's population. The organization of the local referendum can be requested as well by a number of municipal or communal councils which represents not less than one third of the population of a region, about a local issue of local government issues at the regional level.

One of the most discussed in the field of law for local referendums in Albania remains the denial of the request to hold a referendum in Vlora which has been debated for years about building a petrol station named "La Petrolifera" at the Adriatic coast at the city of Vlora. In this case by the majority of the votes the Central Election Commission (CEC) has denied the request for a referendum.

From the point of view of the Albanian laws, it has an uncertainty about the competence of the CEC to decide about the object of the referendum, to review its content and relations it creates with the legal framework. In my opinion CEC has no such jurisdiction as neither the Constitution nor the Electoral Code, ninth section of which sets out the legal framework for referendums, by not mandating CEC to enter the judgment of the object and the content of referendums.¹

The right to judge on the content of referendums the Albanian law recognizes only to two institutions:

1. The President of the Republic, who "decides whether or not" only for the referendums "on issues of a particular importance"²

¹ "CEC decides to accept or reject the request - sanctioned in Article 122, Paragraph 2 of the Electoral Code are based only on the regularity of the presented documentation"

² article 129, point 3, Electoral Code

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2. The Constitutional Court which is the competent body to judge "about the constitutionality of the referendum and verifying its results" and that, in a determined order – for the "constitutional referendum" and "general referendum"¹.

Regarding the constitutionality of the referendum, the Court must verify whether, in the case under consideration are present restrictions of the type envisaged by Article 151, paragraph 2 of the Constitution, which makes it necessary to interpret this provision.

Taking the example of the citizens' of Vlora demand for a referendum because of the "La Petrolifera" issue that questions naturally whether there is a legal right local community expressed through the referendum on such an issue that is related to the environment?

The virtue of the "On Environmental Protection" principle which termed "the awareness and public participation in environmental decision-making" as one of the "basic principles of environmental protection". This law stipulates that "local government represent the most important governmental structure for the management and protection of the environment under their jurisdiction". In the process of environmental impact assessment and strategic environmental assessment under the legal definition attended by all stakeholders, "it is especially the local government, public and environmental nongovernmental organizations" which has given the constitutional principle according to "local self-government units is exercised through their representative organs and local referendum" environmental law. It expressly recognizes the "public and non-profit organizations" right to request" general organization of referendums or partial environmental issues". Principles and norms of international law contained in the reports of the public to environmental issues, have become an integral part of the Albanian positive law, and, as such "guarantee public access to environmental information, to participation in the environmental decision making and access to justice in relation to environmental issues".

Referendum as an expression of sovereignty

Article 177 and Article 150 of the Constitution regulate the various procedures and ensure fair referendum, from one side to the Parliament, as the representative of authority delegated by the people (Article 2.2 of the Constitution); and on the other hand, for the people, to whom belongs the sovereignty of the Republic of Albania (Article 2.1 of the Constitution).

The spirit of the Constitution and its specific provisions, so far, guaranteeing the right of the people (the sovereign) to repeal any law passed by Parliament, except those explicitly defined in Section 151.2 of the Constitution. These are the only laws in order to determine more precisely the correct and for which has not been granted to the people by the Constitution repealed by referendum. For any other law, including the revision of the Constitution, or other relevant laws, the people have the right to exercise its powers through a referendum abrogates. Actually, the article no. 117¹⁰ of the constitution fixes the procedures for "consitutional referendums". Their designation in this way has to do with the fact that this referendum is required for approval or the ratification of the consitutional changes. It is obvious that in this case we are dealing with the Consultativ Referendum, or in other words "citizens consultation". This kind of referendum cannot be initialised by the citizens (via 50.000 voters), but it is anticipated as a possible procedure for the adoption of consitutional amendments, the permission for thir use, or consultations with the citizens for the presentation of the special attention laws (this kind of referendum is stipulated on the articles 177.4, 177.5, 150.2 of the Constitution).

In all cases, Consultativ Referendum is developed before the legal norms (amendment, draft-law) have the legal permission for their use, and unless it is considered necessary by the proceeding body. Certainly that the Consultativ Referendum expresses in a straightforward way the will of the citizens, and that means that the mass has the power, but in this case, it is not straightforward. We need to distinguish the direct expression of the citizens' will from the direct action of the citizens. There is another case of the will expressed directly by the citziens – general elections; and there is no practice of the sovereignty but a procedure for the pass of the right to practice it to the elected representatives.

¹ article 129, point 2, Electoral Code

Direct practice of the sovereignty is when the citizens, in accordance to the specific procedures, without being conditioned from the will of any other organ, initiates and concludes a legal process expressing directly its will, which creates legal consequences.

This case is anticipated only in the article no. 150.1 of the Albanian Republic Constitution. Unless it is initialised a general referendum for the repeal of a law, after the completion of the formal and procedural papers, that no "authority body" has the possibility to "prevent" its development. This is the direct practice of the sovereignty, as it is mentioned in the article no. 2.1 of the Constitution.

It is needed the clear differentiation between a amendment (review) process practiced by citizens power and an abrogation process (repeal, derogation) exercised by another branch (in this case refer to formally sovereign supreme power). According to the Constitution of the Republic of Albania, in any case that will undertake a process to amend the Constitution, therefore, a positive legislative process, clearly must follow procedures laid down in Article 177.

General abrogative referendum has nothing to do with the process of amendment. Through abrogative referendum provision may only remain without power, turning the legal state in the previous situation (when we repeal of an amendment), or leaving the legal relationship. In the second case, a positive process begins immediately legislative body to extract new legal state according to procedures. More clearly, in the second case, the referendum repealed a constitutional provision, the Assembly begins proceedings under Article 177 for the adoption of new legal norm regulating the corresponding relationship.

Article 177 of the Constitution establishes a procedure that follows the Albanian Parliament to amend the constitution, while section 150.1 defines a general security, in fact the only control of people (the) on whose authority has passed the right to exercise sovereignty (Assembly). In any case, the practice of sovereignty by selected representatives is checked and after being elected the representatives of sovereignty practiced primarily through the issuance and enforcement of laws, the right to abolish laws is the only means of control, (but highly effective) against elected representatives. The only laws, which people have removed the right to control themselves, are those mentioned in Article 151.2 of the Constitution." Issues related to the territorial integrity of the Republic of Albania, the restriction of freedoms and human rights, the budget, taxes and financial obligations of the state, and the lifting of state of emergency, declaration of war and peace and the amnesty cannot be submitted to a referendum". This is the position of the sovereign who adopted the Constitution and only for those laws he has given the right to himself.

This has to do with the special nature of these laws that makes it impossible to be submitted to an objective popular judgment. There is not even the Constitution of the Republic, as the highest law of the Republic, or amended laws.

Constitutional amendments, to change one or several provisions of the Constitution, as the form, the content, are in themselves elements of a law, therefore, under Article 150 of the Constitution the people through 50,000 voters have the right to request repeal of this law, without prejudging the outcome of the referendum. In the end, put the people themselves, as if the amendments will not be canceled, meaning that it is the right one is adopted. Albanian legislation has oriented referendums' options, while the institution of the referendums determining (ratification, suspension or rescinding) is specifically prescribed by law: constitutional referendum, for the total and for a referendum on an issue of particular importance.

While consultative referendums regarding Albanian jurisprudence through decisions of the Supreme Court, despite more than modest experience of the practice of referendums, has been identified as an essential feature of a consultative referendum, the fact that he and his score directly produces no obligation to intervene in the content of the normative act on a specific issue, to suspend or abolish it.

The decision as voters as well as the Assembly to pass a referendum will be reviewed by the Constitutional Court. This control is very important because the phrase "issues of particular importance" are reviewed by the Constitutional Court because it is a very general term that can be abused. The Constitutional Court considers that the review of the constitutionality of the requirement for a referendum, calls for clarification of the general conditions associated with the institution of the referendum in general and the abolishment in particular, in view of Article 151 of the Constitution.

In a general perspective, the position of the constitutional referendum as a tool, is linked to the notion of sovereignty¹, which is exercised by representatives chosen by him². In this regard, the fundamental importance takes the issue of determining the conditions and cases in which people can practice sovereignty firsthand. According to the doctrine, the principle of the practice of sovereignty by people, implies a democratic concept according to the criteria of a representative democracy that contains elements enabling the direct practices of constitutional democracy. This means that people with the right to practice the legislative function, normally not for themselves directly but through their elected representatives.

The Assembly may decide an international agreement to be ratified by the referendum. The idea was that if such an agreement does not unanimity within a political force that has the power, it calls people to solve its dilemma. Furthermore, the Constitution recognizes the local referendums, or in other words referendums that are held by local governments. In this case the referendum is held at the time as one or several territorial administrative unit .

Voters do not have the right of initiative to amend the Constitution. In this sense, the initiative to challenge the law on the Electoral Code is an inefficient operation. Such an initiative belongs to the Assembly. Assembly has no draft constitutional obligation to lead to a vote by referendum. 3/5 of the members of Parliament are enough to make such changes. It belongs to the political realities of the moment and the desire to know the opinion of the sovereign (the people) to decide whether an amendment will be voted by the referendum.

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¹ Article 2/1 of the Constitution

² Section 2.2

Turkey in the EU - From a Public Health point of view

Lidra Ballhysa, MSc.

Abstract

In this paper the question whether Turkey, with the status as a Candidate country to enter in the European Union (EU) or not, will be discussed. This question will be discussed and analyzed from a public health point of view. Before starting with the analysis a general description about the current situation in Turkey will be presented in terms of health status, the main problems and threats at community level, which criteria stated from EU are already achieved from Turkey and others which they still need to work on. Turkey has currently the status of a candidate country to enter in the EU, but still the question to become a member state is a big dilemma for the EU politicians due to the possible impact that it would have in terms of economy, population, religion, cultural diversity etc.

Keywords: Turkey, EU, public health

Introduction

According to the WHO report in the 2011 the health status in Turkey has improved the recent years and this improvements are mainly in the health system under the Health Transformation Program (HTP) reform. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute and relevant research centers in Turkey:

- ▣ Infant mortality rate: 17 per 1000 live births in 2008, compared to 28.7 per 1000 live births in 2003
- ▣ Maternal mortality ratio: 19.4 per 100 000 live births in 2008, while it was 28.5 per 100.000 live births in 2005
- ▣ Life expectancy at birth: 73.6 years (71.4 for males and 75.8 for females) in 2008 compared to 68.9 in 2004
- ▣ Crude death rate: 6.4 per 1000 in 2008

According to the same Institute of Statistic in Turkey the major causes of death are cardiovascular diseases (47.7%), and on second place are cancers with (13.1%) followed by infectious diseases with (8.8%). However beside the evident improvements in the health system and the reforms made so far there is a lack of an effective health information system covering the precise level of health in the country. The majority of the information is retrieved from research studies and international health surveys conducted in Turkey. Furthermore from a Public Health prospective according the findings of Turkey Demographic Health Surveys (TDHS) infant mortality has been decreasing especially the last 10 years from 43 per 1000 live births in 1998 to 17 in

2008. On the other hand the vaccination services are in general good. Measles, mumps and rubella (MMR) vaccines included in the vaccination scheme have a high coverage in the whole community per 96% in 2008. (WHO 2011)

Although the improvements made in health status and especially after the implementation of HTP are visible there are still some issues that will need effort and work to be solved before being a member state in the EU. However before answering the question whether Turkey is ready to enter the EU from a public health point of view it is important to give an overview of the health system of the country and what are the Copenhagen criteria lined out in the enlargement policy that the country needs to fulfill.

Overview of the health system

According to the WHO report, at national level the health care system in Turkey the main policy making body is the parliament while the Ministry of Health is the main provider of health services, in terms of primary and secondary care, maternal and child care and family planning services. After 2005 the Ministry of Health is responsible also for all preventative services and all hospitals, dispensaries and health care facilities. Furthermore the Ministry of Health and the Social Security Institution (SSI) are the main agencies for the policy making process although parliament gives the legal status of the policies. The provincial directorates within the Ministry of Health implements the health policies at operational level, while municipalities have also a responsibility related with health which is mainly focused in public health interventions. (WHO 2011)

The social health insurance framework has undergone a major restructuring, three of the five main social security funds are transformed in the Social Security Institution (SSI). The General Health Insurance Schemes (GHIS) include every one joining the social health insurance system. The population groups covered by the GHIS are: the part of the community already member of the pre existing social security schemes (SSK), active civil servants, citizens with income less than one-third of the base wage rate, foreign resident who do not have social security in their home country and people benefiting from unemployment insurance. (WHO 2011)

The Finance System and the allocation of the resources are mainly under the responsibility of the Ministry of Finance and SSI while the health care services and planning is under the auspices of Ministry of Health. The parliament sets the budgets according to the requests of the Ministry of Health basing on the previous year's budget. For the public sector no contract are discussed because it is arranged from the Ministry of Health while for private sector contracts are negotiated between SSI and providers.(WHO2011)

Conditions for Enlargement

According to the European Commission, every country, including Turkey, before being a member of the European Union needs to meet some core criteria set by the European Council. These criteria are called "Copenhagen criteria", established in December 1993 by the Council. Before a country is assessed according to the core Criteria the DG Enlargement states that "Any European country which respects the principles of liberty, democracy, respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and the rule of law may apply to become a member of the Union"(DG Enlargement,2012). Furthermore the official starting point is completing and submitting an application to the Council. The European Commission presents a formal opinion about the applicant country and Council decides whether to accept the application or not. This is a long process which takes time and the final results, the acceptance as a member, depend on the progress of the country to achieve the predefined criteria. (DG Enlargement, 2012)

The "Copenhagen criteria" set by the European Council include:

- 'Stable institutions that guarantee democracy, the rule of law, human rights and respect for protection of minorities'
- 'Functioning market economy, as well the ability to cope with the pressure of competition and the market forces at work inside the Union'
- 'The ability to assume the obligations of membership, in particular adherence to the objectives of political, economic and monetary union.'(DG Enlargement,2012)

Beside the criteria just mentioned above according to the European Commission the candidate country should have the structure in order to be able to implement the EU procedures into practice. However it is important for the candidate country to have the

necessary administrative and juristic system for the effective adoption of EU legislation at national level.

Discussion about Turkey as an EU member state

In this part of the assignment the possible impact that EU will have if Turkey will become a member of the union. Arguments pro and against this issue will be analyzed from a Public Health prospective. Nevertheless in order to give a bigger picture about the complexity of this topic, arguments will be provided also from other dimensions not only related with health issues.

According to the Organization For Economic Co-operation And Development (OECD) reviews on health system, the health status in Turkey has been improving rapidly in the last decades especially due to the HTP reform implementation. Health indicators such as infant mortality, child mortality and maternal mortality have decreased and the life expectancy has increased over time, nevertheless if these indicators when they are compared with other EU member states are still below the level that was expected. Life expectancy in Turkey remains low and the still the infant and maternal mortality remain high. In addition according to the WHO report about the health system in Turkey although the access to health care services in recent years has improved due to the measures taken by the HTP reform to consolidate health care services under one authority, still obvious regional inequalities are a challenge for the health system in Turkey. Further improvement, developments at the socioeconomic level are also required.

While many factors are responsible for the improvement in health status in Turkey, mainly due to the effective spending on health care system. Nevertheless when it is compared with other OECD countries the spending on health care and public spending is above the global comparator averages. This increasing in the spending is mainly explained by the rapid economic growth in Turkey. On the other hand other main determinants of health status such as: low GDP per capita, low educational status (especially among women), increasing of the obesity levels and high smoking rates show that there is still room for improvements.(OECD 2008)

Beside the fact that Turkey has a young population which is growing, one other reason arguing against Turkey entering to the EU is the quality of the educational level which in comparison with other OECD countries is still below the average. In addition the level on inequalities in education in Turkey is quite high. This shows a need for standardization from both the public and private sector in the country.(OECD 2008)

One other argument against the acceptance of Turkey in the EU is because of the large number of the population in the country. At the moment Turkey has a population of 73 million inhabitants, consequently they would bestow the second largest number of Members in the European Parliament. This membership would influence the future plans not only for other countries that would seek membership but also other voting rates, economy, decision making process etc. In addition Turkey has a population which is 99% Muslim so this will bring to differences interests and points of view much different from the EU.(Thomson 2009)

One other issue is the question about the sustainability of health systems. At this moment EU is facing an economic crisis which has major effects also on the health sector. The acceptance of the Turkey as a member state will rise questions in terms of the ability of the governments and health care system to deal with high number of emigrants. The high envision of emigrants with very diverse cultural and socio-economical background will be a major challenge for the Health System structures. Inevitably this would mean that most of the member states will face difficulties in finding appropriate solution to this issue. However in times of the economic crisis health care system and dealing with emigrants is has not the main focus and priority in the political agendas. Consequently this would lead to more issues and problems and more effort will be required from the member state. (Thomson 2009)

Other factors which provide an obstacle for the membership of the Turkey are not related to the public health sector such as the recognition of the genocide toward Armenian people, other political issues which are connected with the relation with Greece, the issue of Cyprus etc. However the aim of this assignment is not to analyse and compare the political or legal implications, although they present strong obstacles for the access of Turkey in the EU.

Conclusion

It is very obvious that Turkey in the recent decades did major improvements in the health system due to the Health Transformation Program (HTP) reform which lead to increase not only on the general health status of the population but also at organizational and structural

level of the health care system. Although the reforms at theoretical level are much more earlier in time the implementation of this reforms in action starts at the 2003. This progress can be measured through the major health indicators such as infant and maternal mortality, life expectancy, crude death rate etc which show that in comparison to previous reports they are improving. However beside the big progress of these indicators when they are compared to EU standards they are still below the average level, and more efforts are needed. In the light of the facts presented on the previous sections there are still some issues that should be taken in consideration before the admission of Turkey in the EU in order to find possible solutions. In addition EU enlargement is not on the main EU agenda at the moment, due to the economic crisis, other concerns are more urgent. On the other side the health care system of the member states is not strong enough to accept a large invasion of emigrants. However define a general conclusion is difficult due to the complexity and the immensity of this topic. Consequently for a bigger picture of this issue and in order to have more accurate conclusions other factors from other dimensions which are not related to the health prospective should be taken into account.

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Political Engagement on the Internet and Technologies of its Implementation in Modern Russia*

Sokolov Alexander Vladimirovich

Candidate of Political Science, associate professor,
Chair of Social and Political Theories at
Demidov Yaroslavl State University
e-mail: alex8119@mail.ru

Abstract

The article presents data of sociological research of the online political participation of citizens and political actors in modern Russia. The research was focused on the Internet political participation as an important component of citizens' political involvement that has a significant impact on a political process in modern Russia. By the political participation on the Internet, we mean the use of Internet technologies to involve different groups of citizens into policy; to organize interaction of political actors and citizens; to affect the formation and implementation of political decisions, formation and functioning of political institutions, activity of political and public organizations as well as to affect the activity of non-system political movements and actions for radical transformation of the existing political system. The article comprises data of the expert opinion polls conducted by the author in October-November 2012 in 4 subjects of the Russian Federation (the Yaroslavl Region, Vologda Region, Ulyanovsk Region and Novosibirsk Region), with the sample of 30 persons. A mass Internet poll was conducted among the users actively participating in online political campaigns, and other politically engaged Internet users, with the sample of 400 interviewees. In this article, the author presents the data results from 15 regions of Russia. A degree of the main actors' Internet political engagement has been analyzed. The authors have determined the most popular and efficient forms and technologies of the Internet participation. Special attention has been paid to the analysis of forms and mechanisms of political actors' Internet participation during election campaigns.

Keywords: Internet, political participation, political online campaign, Internet technology, channels of communication

1. Internet Opportunities for Political Engagement

One of the features of the modern Russian society is a transfer of political engagement onto the Internet. Wide spread, convenience, accessibility and efficiency of information exchange are factors for the Internet political engagement. Internet applications provide citizens with the opportunities for their active participation in public processes. For example, online access to the decision making process, online consultations on key issues, online sharing of opinions, viewpoints and disputes, etc. Moreover, mass and available ways of communication between people, communities, parties and other society elements are extremely important for the formation of different coalitions and blocks between associations [2].

At the present stage, in the epoch of globalization and information technologies, a civil society is not just a set of organizations. Thanks to the Internet, political processes and management got a new content providing new actors of civil society- online communities[1].

The necessity to involve many concerned actors into the process of solving socially significant problems determines an important role of the Internet for providing their communication in modern conditions. It should be noted, that an online dialogue between certain parts of the society could hardly have taken place in off line regime. On this basis, Internet communication between groups similar in rhetoric and targets, is logical and actual. A wide use of Internet services and tools for social communication, a growth of their part within the communication suggests that the role of online

communications in the system of public relations will be increasing and the trends towards the online unification will be growing.

The Internet has provided environment for different activists' societies and projects existing only in a virtual form (for example, help cards, fund-raising, etc.). They are used, if different means of self-realization is difficult to use (high need for anonymity, low capacity to communicate off line, etc.). With the Internet, new kinds of activity, that would have been impossible before, are possible today (for example, webcam based election monitoring) [3, p. 24].

Different ways to join this or that community determine the difference in the membership. The backbone is the initiative citizens ready to participate regularly. If this part of the members is constantly enlarged, the movement will be changing and developing. In mass movements, the greatest part of the participants is those ready to help only once or during a certain period of time. When involving supporters into the public political campaign, the content of the web site and information resources is principally important, as they are the basement for interaction and communication of actors.

It is evident, that modern communication technologies are affecting all the spheres of social life. Using the Internet for the development of public initiatives is an important feature and a method to increase the efficiency. Online interaction is a factor for many participants to get involved into the discussion and editing of the information provided. The necessity to involve a great number of the concerned actors to solve socially important problems determines an important role of the Internet in providing their communication under the modern circumstances.

Open and free communication is the reason for the Internet to be an indispensable tool for social and political actors. At this level, civil initiatives are being implemented into the virtual space that will have results off line.

The Internet is an accessible means of communication, that provides fast and efficient data transfer within the society. For the organizations based on online principles, this is a key feature of the Internet as a communication tool.

2. Methodology of the Research

Our research is focused on the Internet political participation as an important component of citizens' political involvement that has a significant impact on a political process in modern Russia.

By the political participation on the Internet, we mean the use of Internet technologies to involve different groups of citizens into policy; to organize interaction of political actors and citizens; to affect the formation and implementation of political decisions, formation and functioning of political institutions, activity of political and public organizations as well as to affect the activity of non-system political movements and actions for radical transformation of the existing political system.

The article comprises data of the expert opinion polls conducted by the author in October-November 2012 in 4 subjects of the Russian Federation (the Yaroslavl Region, Vologda Region, Ulyanovsk Region and Novosibirsk Region), with the sample of 30 persons (deputies of regional and municipal representative bodies, journalists, leaders of regional branches of political parties and public associations, etc.).

The poll was conducted by a semi-formalized questionnaire. That let us get both qualitative and quantitative assessments of the citizens' political participation on the Internet.

To interpret the obtained qualitative data, in November, 2012- January, 2013, a mass Internet poll was conducted among the users actively participating in online political campaigns, and other politically engaged Internet users, with the sample of 400 interviewees. In this article, the author presents the data results from 15 regions of Russia:

- 1.Vladimir Region;
- 2.Volgograd Region;
- 3.Vologda Region;
- 4.Krasnodar Krai;

-
5. Novosibirsk Region;
 6. Perm Krai;
 7. Primorsky Krai;
 8. Pskov Region;
 9. Republic of Bashkortostan;
 10. Republic of Dagestan;
 11. Republic of Tatarstan;
 12. Rostov Region;
 13. Ulyanovsk Region;
 14. Khabarovsk Krai;
 15. Yaroslavl Region.

Thanks to this geographical coverage, it is possible to get representative data from all around Russia.

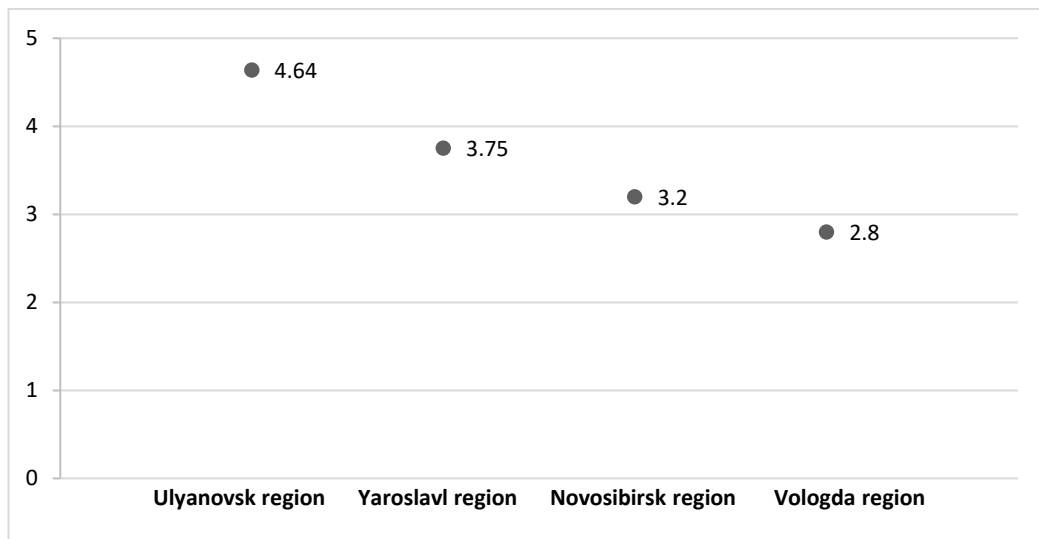
As a result, we got both quantitative data on the Internet spread in the political sphere and their interpretation.

3. Level of Political Participation on the Internet

One of the research hypotheses is that the level of online political engagement depends on the off line engagement of political actors, and this means that the peak of political actors' online engagement corresponds to the period of maximum political engagement or official election campaign. We have recorded that political forces actively use the Internet to organize protests, to involve supporters, for communication, etc. The experts have also recorded a considerable increase of political engagement for the last three years- in average 4.01.

It should be noted, that the experts predict an increase of the Internet political engagement in the regions in three years (Diagramm 1). The experts from the Ulyanovsk Region and Yaroslavl Region give the highest rates to the increase of potential. The average rate of the experts from the Vologda Region is 2.8. The experts in the Vologda Region note, that even nowadays the system forces tend to block online protest political engagement. Thus, if it goes like this, protest activity on the Internet will likely to get reduced.

Diagram 1. How do you think, how will the activity of political participation in Internet in your region in 3 years? (from -5 to 5)



The forecast on the increase of the online political engagement is confirmed by the experts' data on its level nowadays, both during election campaigns and during preparations. The highest rates were not given, that proved the potential for increasing online political participation.

In the conditions of gradual spread of the Internet across the country, citizens involvement into different initiatives and discussions, leaving network for different off line events, we can talk about the increase of civic engagement on the whole. The highest rates of the increase of the online engagement in the regions are recorded in the most politically active regions. Thus, the forecast for the coming future is realistic, provided that strict measures and restrictions against the online political engagement are not applied.

On the whole, among the reasons for different online activity during political campaigns, we can determine objective and subjective ones.

Objective reasons are the level of political culture and activity of the residents of the region. There is a connection between a level of culture and number of political events. The higher the level of political culture and activity of the residents is, the more events and information occasions, including those within the promotion of political projects. Respectively, the use of the Internet for political campaigns is becoming more necessary.

Another objective reason is the difference in the Internet access in different regions. The interviewees note, that in faraway parts of the country the Internet access can be limited or not available, that is why the level of online activity is lower there. Thus, the degree of the Internet use for political campaigns depends on the Internet spread, quality, price and necessity.

One more reason is the level of urbanization in different parts of the country. To the experts' point of view, the citizens' online activity is higher in cities and large settlements.

Subjective factors affecting the quality of the Internet use in political projects, are citizens' activity in politics in this or that region. The higher the activity is, the higher the Internet activity in the politics.

The interviewees understand political engagement, that can have an impact on the Internet, as certain events in social and political life, including unlawful ones.

Another factor is competitive and resonant nature of electoral activity, as during the election campaigns more attention is focused on the politics.

Certain politicians creating information occasions for the Internet, play a considerable role. For example, the Governor of the Kirov Region Nikita Belykh, who promotes the Internet activity in the region.

There is an opinion, that in some regions, the authorities restrict activists' opportunities to speak for their interests and opinions, to take part in public events. These citizens use the Internet for defending their positions as the Internet is free for that.

We should take into consideration a professional approach to the online political campaigns. That is the work of teams creating the content and working with the public. In case different teams with different level of competitiveness work in different regions, the degree of the Internet use will be different.

It should be noted, that the interviewees still do not have a common opinion whether the Internet activity depends on a region. Some of them doubt that the degree of the Internet use is different in regions. Others distinguish the territories by the boundary 'regions-capital'. There are intermediate views on a gradual reduce of the differences between the regions.

To the experts' point of view, the main reasons for a difference in the use of the Internet in political campaigns in the regions of Russia are the following:

- voter's political culture and activity;
- Internet, proper use of it;
- efficient use of the Internet in political campaigns, that determines the priority of other channels of political information propaganda;
- organizers of discussions, actions, site administrators, specialists and activists;
- political traditions in the region, stereotypes;
- an occasion, reason for the activation.

4. Internet in the Election Campaigns

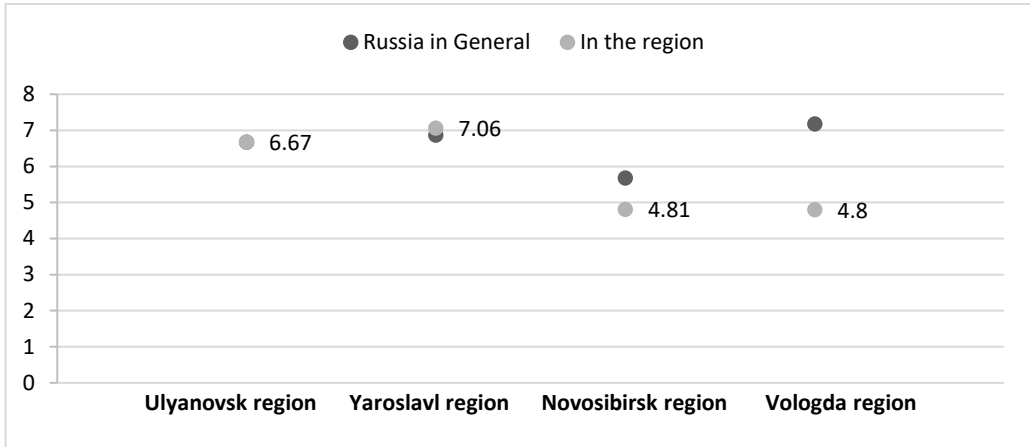
The poll experts were asked to assess the level of the online political participation in an official election campaign (after the lists of candidates were approved). During the period, according to the experts' assessments, political engagement of system forces is higher than that during a period of preparation for the election campaign, both at all-Russia's level (average rate 6.6 and 5.04 respectively) and regional level.

On the whole, we can say that the experts from all the regions give approximately equal assessment to the online political participation in an official election campaign - 6.6, no considerable deviations (Diagramm 2). This suggests, that the situation with the online political participation is rather holistic, established and ready to be studied. A determined position of the interviewees may be explained by a possible centralization of sources for the online political engagement in Moscow and Saint-Petersburg as the centers of off line policy.

The experts give different assessments to certain regions; thus, the highest rate of the Internet activity is given by the experts from the Yaroslavl Region (7.06), the lowest activity is in the Novosibirsk Region and Vologda Region (approximately 4.8). Taking into consideration the regions location, a geographical principle is not the main one to determine the level of the online political engagement. The Novosibirsk Region and the Vologda Region got similar rates, though the latter is closer to the centre of political engagement. In Russia, this criterion is not a determining one. Probably, the reason is the degree of the Internet spread across the territory of Russia and specific political conditions in each region.

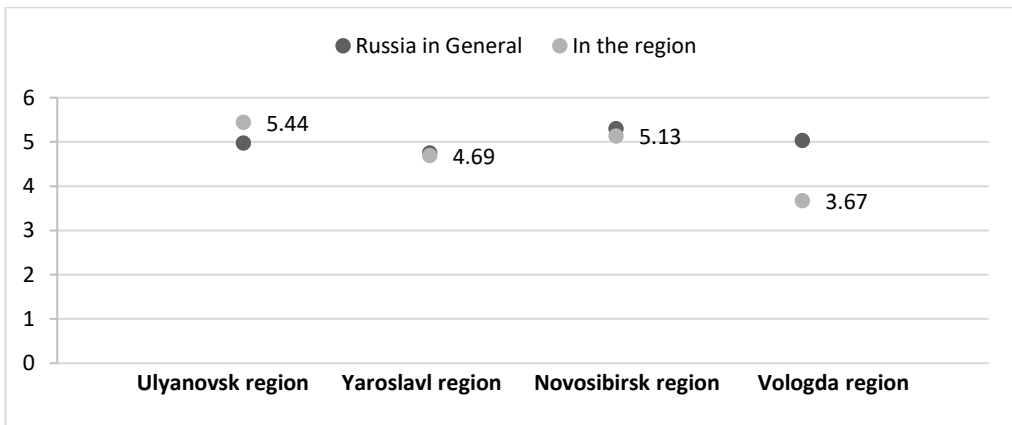
According to the assessment given by experts from the Ulyanovsk and Yaroslavl Regions, these regions can be called one of the most advanced in Russia. Their rates are similar to the overall rate in Russia.

Diagram 2. Expert evaluation of political participation in Internet during the official campaign period (0-10 points, average)



It should be noted, that in the regions in general, the experts give similar assessments to the online political participation in Russia in general during the preparations for election campaigns- 5.4, no considerable deviations. Experts from the Vologda Region note a considerable reduce in political engagement before the elections, this rate in the region is lower than that in the country - 3.67 (Diagramm 3).

Diagram 3. Expert evaluation of political participation in Internet in the preparation period of official election campaign (0-10 points, average)

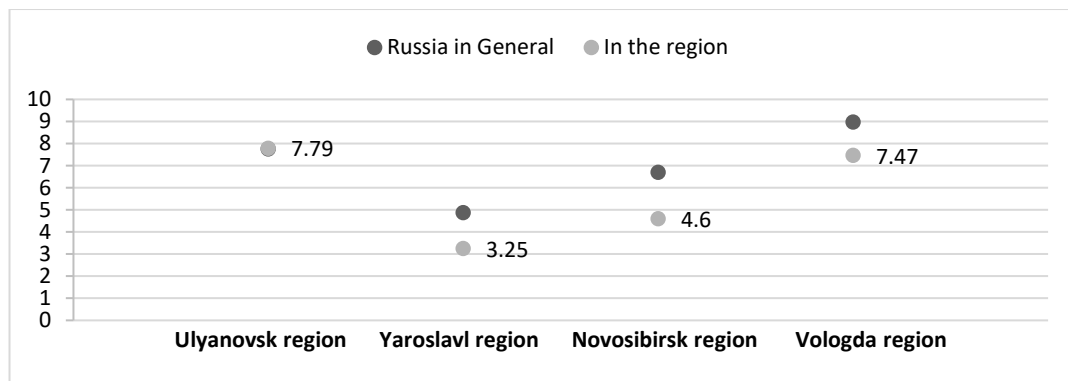


As it was expected, the assessment of the online political participation during the period of preparations for an election campaign is lower than that during the campaign. This suggests that in the assessed regions, except the Novosibirsk Region, Internet users concentrate their political engagement in the period of election campaigns.

These results are rather expected and depend on a variety of factors. The online political engagement is increasing during the period that is interesting for discussing. Apparently, the higher results of the election participation are possible with an active pre-election period, when the population is not very negative towards the politicians, psychological barrier of perceiving information on this topic is reduced. During the period of preparations for an election campaign, the online political engagement must be initiated by candidates to make their activity open and transparent for the citizens, and thus, to involve people into the discussion.

As shown in Diagram 4, the experts do not have a common assessment for the online political engagement of the actors, that do not participate in the elections. At the same time, even in the assessment of the overall situation in Russia, the experts' views differ. The lowest rates of the Internet political engagement in Russia as a whole, were given by experts from the Yaroslavl Region (the region with an overall high Internet activity and where the elections of deputies of the municipality have been just held), the highest rates- in the Vologda and Ulyanovsk Regions. We can conclude, that in these regions, the political forces non-participating in the elections are more efficient on the Internet, than the system forces are. This indicates, that these regions are more receptive to the opposition moods.

Diagram 4. Expert evaluation of political participation in Internet opposition forces, not participating in the elections (0-10 points, average)



Experts from most of the regions noted that the opposition forces' activity is higher in Russia as a whole than in the region. The exception is the Ulyanovsk Region, where the processes mentioned above were given similar rates.

Apparently, the Internet activity of non-system opposition depends on a geographical factor, as the rates differ in different regions. Nevertheless, the rates in Russia as a whole are higher than regional ones, in three or four regions (The Yaroslavl Region, Novosibirsk Region and Vologda Region). That is why, for the political forces non-participating in the elections, there is a common opportunity to increase their participation on the Internet and to raise it to all-Russia's rate.

To the respondents' opinion, the political forces Internet activity is not zero in a non-election period, but much lower than during the elections. Moreover, the opposition was singled out as the more active party but by a small margin. Each of the parties has disadvantages that prevent non-stop activity. Without continued funding, only 'United Russia' party shows episodic activity, opposition parties are practically off line.

Summarizing the experts' opinions, if the political forces' Internet activity is low during a non-election period, the opposition is more active, because with the lack of allocated budget and instructions, the authorities supporters are not engaged. The opposition activity is less noticeable for the lack of resources.

Half of the respondents answered that during municipal or large regional campaigns, the Internet was used by political forces not to a large extent. A quarter of the interviewees think that the Internet is used only for large regional elections. Other experts believe that the Internet is actively used only at one of the two levels presented.

The Internet activists participating in the poll, note a dynamics in the use of the Internet by political forces. But this practice has been just started and is more typical for large election campaigns in cities of the region. At the rural areas elections, this technology is not used as it is not efficient. This trend does not depend on the territory where the campaign is held.

As for the Internet's role in the election campaigns in regions, a general trend is that the low significance of this resource is gradually increasing. In Yaroslavl, a supporting role of the Internet was mentioned, that was a duplication and discussion of the main information occasions of the campaign. Political forces promote their campaigns with the use of the Internet. The Internet is a mechanism to share information.

The respondents enumerated many technologies common for politically active citizens. These are community formation in social networks, dissemination of positive information about the communities and their candidates; anonymous negative information about competitors; compromising evidence and rumors; collecting signatures, etc.

A respondent from Yaroslavl singled out such technologies as 'an observer', 'voters' opinion', 'experts' opinion' and open 'Internet-agitator'.

It should be noted, that the majority of the respondents pointed out the so-called 'dirty' technologies. To their opinion, the Internet has become a platform for concentration of such means of struggle. The key reasons for this are spreading of the Internet and social networks among the electorate, opportunity to send anonymous information. More often, such information comprises rumors, compromising evidence, false news. The information is disseminated at forums, social networks groups. To involve people in such groups, fraudulent schemes are often used. First, such a group or an event with an attractive name is created, and during the election campaign, the name will be changed without the knowledge of subscribers.

We can trace a negative attitude towards the technologies used in the election campaigns. Internet- tools for the public deception are enumerated. For instance, a respondent from the Khabarovsk Krai answered: 'Spam, spam, spam, and provocation'.

A respondent from Rostov-on-Don notes that political forces create 'information noise' to suppress real problems and to expose imaginary ones, for example, 'fair elections'. That is done to waste public energy.

Along with some printed editions, the Internet becomes a platform for spreading rumors and black PR technologies during election campaigns. Due to the free access and high speed of disseminating information, this is an important and difficult problem for the political campaign participants.

In most of the regions, however, the experts give a low rate to the Internet use during election campaigns. In the Khabarovsk Krai, Kazan, the reasons are undeveloped communications, low citizens' involvement into political life in general. A respondent from Vladimir answered that such a situation was caused by a lack of public policy in the region. In the Primorsky Krai, Krasnodar, Volgograd, Vologda and the Republic of Dagestan, the respondents state an insignificant role of the Internet in the election campaigns.

In the city of Perm, a respondent rated a significant role of the Internet in Perm-the center of the region, and an insignificant one in districts and towns of the region. In the cities and towns, the most efficient means of communication with the electorate are still personal meetings with candidates. But the experts note an increased role of the Internet in the process both in cities and towns. The same perspective was mentioned by the respondents from Rostov-on-Don and Ulyanovsk.

There are some other factors affecting the intensity of the Internet use in political campaigns in this or that region. One of them is the elections level. The experts have a common opinion, that the higher the level of the elections is, the more significant role the Internet has. Probably, this depends on the funds invested in the campaign. The Internet access and spread in the regions are also of great importance.

5. Technologies to Organize and Conduct Online Political Campaigns

As a result, the online political campaign initiators can be divided into two groups: customers and activists. The first group includes politicians, the second- engaged participants of the events.

The initiators can be both the organizations implementing their project, and the users who have no other resources but their own activity and the Internet.

The majority of the respondents single out two mechanisms of disseminating information on a political campaign. In the first case, based on his interests, the customer hires professionals and a campaign is initiated. They create a content disseminating in blogs and social networks on the Internet. If the content is supported by target groups, it will be disseminated through the network by reposting, sharing, creating new materials on the base of the content. For example, meme 'Party of crooks and thieves' in 2011.

Very often, successful campaigns are initiated by the people not engaged in the policy. At first, there are just rumors, but because of the resonance, they are transferring into information occasions in the Internet and Mass Media. In this case, professionals use such a good material in someone's interests.

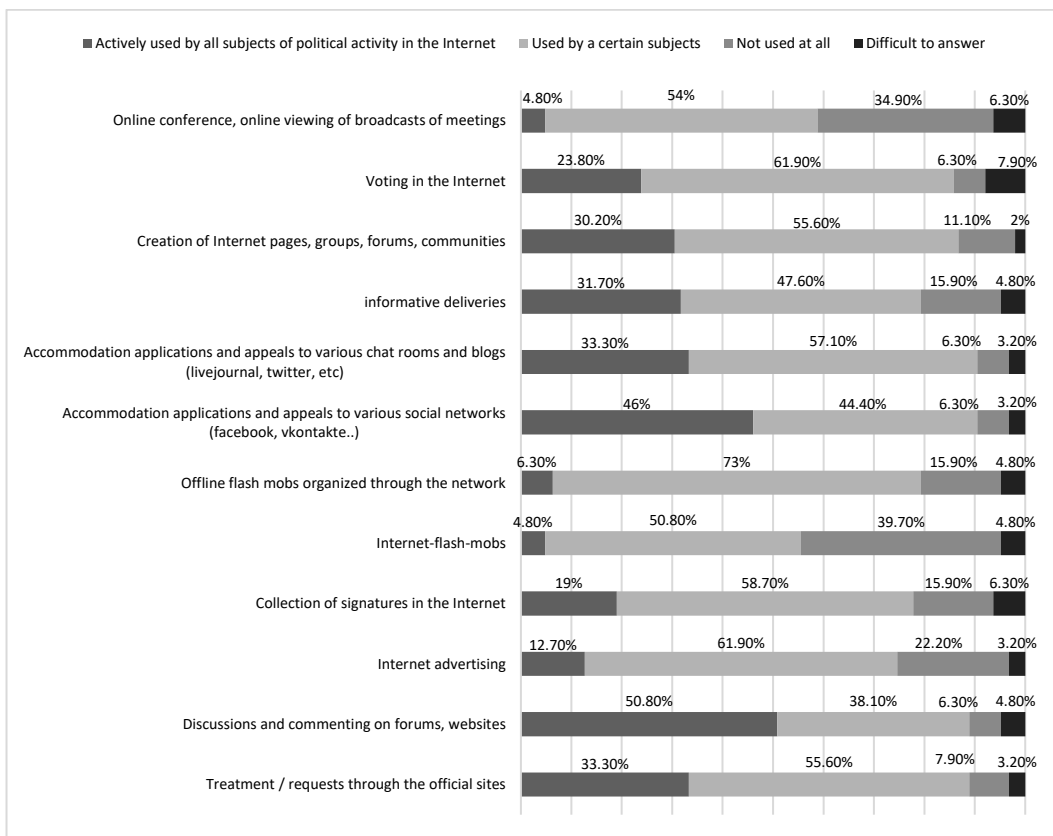
The mechanism for promoting Internet campaigns is becoming similar to off line campaigns. They have similar stages: an idea, plan, organization of the head-quarters and implementation. Another common feature is the criteria of efficiency. These criteria differ in quality, but necessary for the professional approach to the product promotion.

It should be noted, that such thoroughly elaborated campaigns are conducted, more often, by the authorities. As an expert from the Primorsky Krai thinks, the campaigns of opposition have a spontaneous character and are lacking in a worked out plan. Despite this, such campaigns are gathering pace and, on the whole, are more efficient than the others.

A respondent from the Republic of Bashkortostan notes, that a resonant event followed by discussions is important. It helps the groups of like-minded persons find each other, attract and efficiently use the resources. If a project or a campaign are considered by the authorities to be 'undesirable', even with all the resources or teams, administrative measures towards the activists are often fatal.

In Diagram 5, the most popular form of the online political participation typical for all the actors of the political process, is to place applications and appeals in social networks (46.0%), to discuss and comment on forums and sites (50.8% of the experts).

Diagram 5. Rate the various forms of political participation on the Internet in terms of the activity of their users



A half of the experts from the Ulyanovsk Region state that political groups hardly ever use Internet advertising (43.8%) and Internet flash mobs (81.3%).

Experts from the Yaroslavl Region give a low rate to the use of such technologies as collecting signatures on the Internet (43.8% of the respondents noted the technology was not used), online conferences, watching sessions online (50 % of the experts noted the technology was not used).

More than half of the experts from the Vologda Region note, that political groups in the region do not use online broadcast of the conferences and sessions (60,0%).

We can conclude, that the tools of political participation are used more often, if they require no great efforts and, particularly, no much time. It is easy to place applications and appeals in social networks, to discuss and comment on forums and sites, and such tools attract the attention of the audience. The events more complicated to implement, for example, online and off line flash mobs, collecting signatures, are used by those who have opportunities and, that is more important, the necessity to use them. Among such users, one should mention the most active participants of social political life, professionals of the online promotion of campaigns , as well as coordinators and other heads of social political projects.

The more frequently used tools are provided by social networks. Due to this and to a great audience, the social networks are the most popular channels of communication of the actors of political engagement. Moreover, they combine the functions of the Mass Media and disseminate information faster than news sites, TV or radio.

It should be noted, that such specific and, to a certain extent, innovative tools as online conferences and Internet advertising, are not in demand of the online wide audience. That means, that to show their political engagement, they would use more common methods which have become the most popular ones according to the poll results.

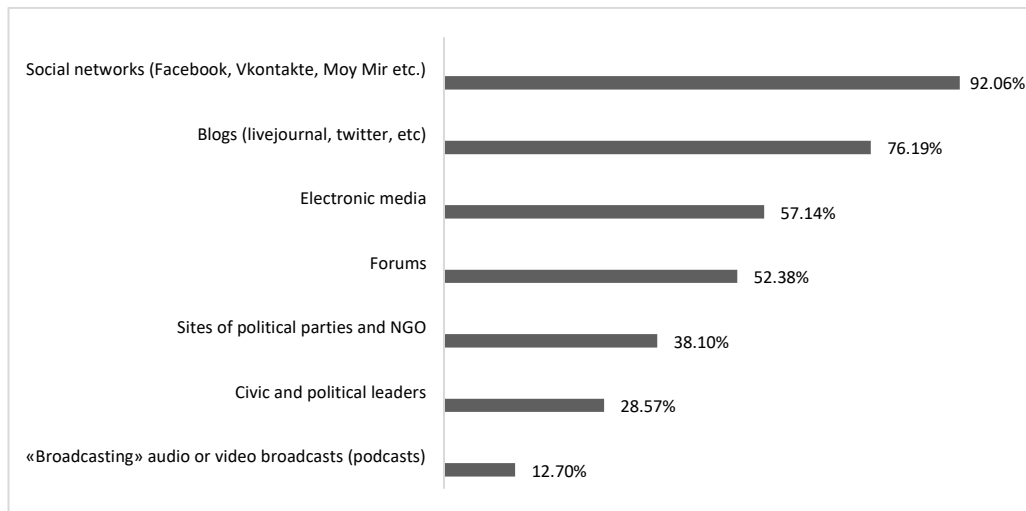
To place applications, discussions in social networks, blogs, chats is the most popular method of the Internet political participation as it is very convenient, efficient and can partially replace such unpopular forms of activity as Internet advertising, online conferences and sessions. Conference results placed on forums or sites, will be more efficient as the problem, if described briefly, will be read and understood. Participation in online conferences and sessions takes time. Internet advertisements require financial costs.

Thanks to discussions, particularly in social networks, it is possible to organize off line events and flash mobs, to shape public opinion, to disseminate information, etc.

Both of the process parties will get benefit of using social networks as a channel of communication of the political participation. Besides a great number of users of social networks and blogs, they have a convenient form of communication in comparison to some other sites.

As a result, the experts rate social networks as the most popular channel of communication for the Internet political engagement (92.06%). (Diagram 6) Blogs are in the second place (76.19 % of the experts) and electronic media is in the third place (57.14%). 38.1% of the experts pointed out the use of the sites of political parties and public organizations.

Diagram 6. Specify what communication channels most often used for political participation in the Internet?



This suggests that the most popular method of the Internet promotion of political projects is social networks. According to the poll results, there are no significant differences in the experts' opinions on this issue in different regions.

The experts determined main Internet tools, frequently used in the political projects:

- means of coordination, organization;
- means of disseminating information, shaping opinion, means of influence;
- means of sharing information.

In general, the list of the Internet-tools is as follows:

- three largest social networks VK, Facebook, Twitter. Additionally, video hosting Youtube.
- electronic media;
- forums;
- sending photos and videos in social networks, implementing rumors, participation in the discussions on different topics;
- blogs posts, microblogging;
- audio and video chats, mailings, torrent distribution inside the organization;
- online conferences, online congresses;
- polls;
- organization of off line political events by means of social networks;
- PR attacks on the authorities.

6. Conclusions

One of the main reasons of the increased role of the Internet is that it is turning into a strong electoral resource due to a large audience of politically active citizens. Using the Internet, political actors either get a serious public support or lose citizens' confidence.

The Internet is not just a territory for the existent political forces competing- the Internet is creating new political leaders without traditional Mass Media active participation. Thus, on getting popularity as an Internet blogger, who investigates corruption schemes in large companies with the government participation in the capital, Alexei Navalny has become an important political actor.

The research shows there is a high potential of developing the online political participation, new methods to involve supporters, new methods of political communication and public control.

Internet users show the greatest activity in social networks, which provide great opportunities for communication, information dissemination, search of resources.

An accumulated experience of organizing civic engagement in local and regional campaigns, provided a qualitative leap in the development of political participation in 2011 in mass protests, which were a respond to the suspected falsification of the elections to the State Duma of the sixth convocation. All the main protests were organized using social networks and other Internet channels of communication. They made it possible to involve, according to different estimates, up to 150000 citizens in the protest events.

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Analysis of the Potential Use of Social Networking for the Success of Strategic Business Planning in Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises

Yong Dirgiatmo

Faculty of Economics and Business
Sebelas Maret University, Surakarta
the Republic of Indonesia

Abstract

The availability of information technology in supporting small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), especially in developing countries, to improve the business performance and overcome the business problem is an interesting issue to be revealed and analyzed. Social networks like Facebook, Twitter, Youtube, blogs, etc. which today can be said as a media to promote and sell products and services for any type and scale of business, seems still not to be used optimally by SMEs. Classical problems such as financial aspects, human resources, marketing and technology are obstacles that unable to be solved completely by SMEs. This study is an experimental study that attempt to raise the issue of the social networking model that can help SMEs in making strategic business plan to be success. The purpose of this study is to investigate the existing problems, provide treatments, observe, examine and analyze the extent to which SMEs use social networking in order to formulate a successful strategic business plan. The data sample is SMEs which already utilizing social networking but not optimal or SMEs that had never utilize social networking to develop strategic business plans. The selected samples is about 25-30 associations, clusters, cooperatives, associations of craftsmen or similar businesses which are chosen purposively. The location of research is 6 districts and 1 municipality (totally 5.667 km²) in the residential of Surakarta, Central Java. The results of the first phase of research obtained from the field indicate that the majority of SMEs surveyed have not made social networking as an effective medium to assist in strategic business planning. The main cause is due to geographical location constraints, especially telecommunications infrastructure, human resources dealing with doubt and uncertainty as to the success of information technology investment to be used.

Keyword: SMEs, social networking, promotion media, strategic business planning

A. Background

Nowadays, the role of social media which is mediated by the Internet can support small and medium enterprises (SMEs) to gain an edge in competing (competitive advantage). Media or social networks such as Facebook, Twitter, Google+ and others have been able to create a community that connects entrepreneurs and consumers who are interested in the products or services offered, extend the coverage to overseas markets (global market), maximize return on investment, measure sentiment purchaser of the product or service through the data/information entered, manage brand reputation, products, and services and identify existing opportunities, accelerate trade traffic that occurs between the seller and the buyer (by optimizing search engines such as Google, Yahoo, etc.), and improve employee productivity by collaborating, sharing ideas about the success of projects, products, or services.

Research conducted by Hourali et al. (2008) in Ghazi & Khalid (2012) stated that the Internet and e-business is seen by the government in various countries in the world as a strategic technology in supporting the development of SMEs. In other word, the existence of social media could also be involved in the business process and capable of being one of the strategic business planning tools to achieve the business success of an SME.

Technically, SMEs in fact realize that information technology is something necessary and important, but there is a doubt to invest in information processing devices which requires not few of costs, meanwhile the result and its effects cannot be perceived directly. For instance, the availability of company's web sites to introduce products or services to public are still as an unpredicted matters to be succeed or profitable for the company.

Some studies related to efforts to reduce the gap and overcome the lack of resources and business planning techniques that can be used by SMEs has been widely published and recommended (Curtis, 1983; Rockart, et al., 1985; Webster et al., 1989; Porter, 1998; Pollack, 2010). Similarly, research related to how or what factors can bring success for strategic business planning, including planning for enterprise information systems has been expressed by previous investigators. Martin (1989), Baets (1992), Ward & Peppard (2002) and Brumec & Vrcek (2002) stated that one of the critical factors of success in business was the strategic alignment between the company's business strategy, strategic information systems and information technology used by the company. In his book, Martin (2005) also mentioned explicitly that the company's decision related to information systems should be in-line with the business strategy of the company. Nonetheless, the atmosphere of strategic business planning is not easy to be implemented in SMEs due to the environmental characteristics of SMEs which is generally only for short-term goals, unstructured, not comprehensive and informal nature; also their lack of understanding in terms of management time when strategic business planning is conducted, skills of how to make a plan, and how to explore and empower the sources of information for the company (Cheng, 1990). Moreover, the fact that some of the methods or techniques suggested in strategic business planning is not always suitable and relevant to be adopted and implemented by SMEs (Curtis, 1983; Webster et al., 1989 in Tan, et al., 1995).

With regard to the availability of information technology which is able to bridge the limitations of the SME business climate with its business environment, the social network enable SMEs to compete with its competitors in the market both local, national and international. Griggs and Wild (2012) stated that social networks which are mediated by computer is a relatively new phenomenon and capable to evolve broadly to apply to a wide range of interests in the future.

B. Problem Formulation

From the above background, the study sought to map out the problems that occur in SMEs regarding the use of social networking, to explore the potential/ opportunities that are available to be developed based on the capabilities of SMEs, and to find a way or a suitable model, relevant, easy and cheap for SMEs. Next, to make strategic business planning as well to eliminate or remove doubts and lack of conviction SMEs in utilizing social networks to achieve its business objectives.

Problems in this study can be formulated in the following research questions:

1. Does the company with the size of SMEs utilized social networking for their strategic business planning? If not, why?
2. To what extent does social networking be an effective tool and contribute significantly to the success of strategic business planning for SMEs?
3. What critical factors determines the success (or failure) of social networking application in support of strategic business planning for SMEs?
4. What kind of model can be used by SMEs in utilizing social networks which support the success of strategic business planning?

C. Research objectives

1. To identify the problems that occur in SMEs with regard to strategic business planning.

2. To observe the effectiveness of processes, tools and techniques used for strategic business planning done by SMEs using social networking.
3. To find the critical success (failed) factors in using social networking to support strategic business planning conducted by SMEs.
4. To propose a methodological framework and model that is compatible to the SMEs in making the strategic business plan using social networking.

D. Significance

It has been a lot of research and previous studies conducted with regard to the success of the company's strategic business plan and not a few methods / analysis has been recommended to be implemented in various types of companies in order to achieve business success. Nonetheless, the company with the scale of SMEs seems to have not participated fully enjoy the success of its business due to a lack of resources. Today the use of social networking as a medium for the dissemination of information, collaboration, creating a social community, and feedback of knowledge in various fields has been a remarkable phenomenon in the world of business and non-business. However, the comprehensive study of this issue is still not much explored, especially for SMEs. On another side, a question on how effective a social network can be one of strategic business planning model for SMEs is not clearly answered. Therefore, the existence of social networking model that brings success in company's strategic business planning, especially SMEs, is a very important, unique and interesting issue to study.

E. Literature Review

Kau (1988), Cheng (1990), Tan, et al., (1995), Houralli, et al., (2008) stated in his study that the productivity, management skills, expertise in marketing of products or services, and use of technology (including information technology) owned by SMEs are generally lagging behind in comparison with the bigger company or industry especially from foreign competitors. It is actually a classic problem often faced by SMEs such as limited resources both human, physic and especially financial. Efforts to curb this problem and eliminate the gap has been proposed and recommended way out by several studies done by Martin (1989), Baets (1992), Ward & Peppard (2002), Brumec & Vrcek (2002), and Martin (2005). In his paper, Martin (2005) stated that in order to increase competitiveness, improve the quality of products or services, reduce the costs, and others related to the business for SMEs, the information technology is one of the most effective tools to be adopted and applied. Moreover, if the strategy business planning can be executed in harmony and in line with the strategic planning of information systems/information technology (IS/IT).

1. Strategic Business Plan

In his article, Curtis (1983) defined strategic business planning as a process in which a company prepared to maintain position or competitiveness in the market. Strategic business planning aims to formulate long-term goals and strategies of the organization or company through the testing on organization in a wider perspective on the environment of competition. On the other hand, McNurlin, et al. (2009) in Pollack, AJ (2010) stated that the strategy indicates the direction in which the company will run or operate and how or with what way the company achieve its goals. In this process, Pearson & Saunders (2010) explained there were three elements that must be considered in order to run the company's strategic business planning, namely: 1) business strategy begins with a mission and coordinated by a set of activities to achieve the desired goals and objectives with a number of limitations (resources) which are held for the purposes why the business is established; 2) anything in relation with the organizational strategy, work processes, structures, procurement (resource) and a plan that allows

to achieve the objectives of the company; and 3) information system strategy that is a plan of an organization to use the information services available.

What is expressed in those studies provide a simple conclusion that to be successful, the company needs a way, techniques, procedures, tactics and strategy that begins with careful planning. Technically, SMEs have a situation, conditions and equal opportunities with large companies (Bamberger, 1989; Aaker, 1989 in Tan, et al., 1995). Both should be able to fulfill what is expected by consumers toward products or services offered and give satisfaction to consumers or customers. Bhabuta (1988) also mentioned that in order to be successful, SMEs do not have to always be worried unable to compete with large companies because of technological backwardness, but the most important is how SMEs can arrange business strategy that is always in tune with the development of technology, and putting these technologies into the appropriate operation with their business.

2. Strategic Information Systems and Information Technology Planning

The establishment of the IS/IT planning by the company depends on how much the value of the benefits will be obtained by the company and the level of urgency for the achievement of corporate goals. In particular company, IS / IT planning is a very important activity and strategic, whereas for other companies it is not something crucial and become a decisive policy and strategy for the company. Ward & Peppard (2003) described how environmental of IT strategy is affected by the pressure out of organization control in the form of a two-dimensional matrix, namely infusion and diffusion. According to both, infusion is the organization's level of dependence on the IS/IT in its business, whereas diffusion is the rate at which the IS/IT entrenched in the organization and the decisions relating to its use has shifted. There are four quadrants that occur from infusion-diffusion matrix as shown in the Figure 1 below.

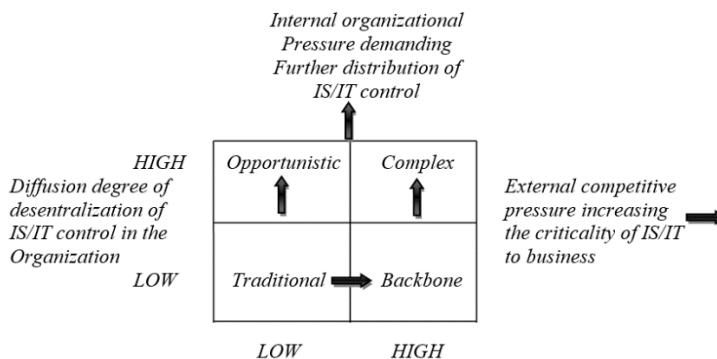


Figure 1. IS/IT environment (Ward & Peppard, 2003)

- a) On diffusion-infusion low (LOW-LOW), the resource control of information technology (IT) is centralized so that the information systems (IS) is not important to the business. This quadrant is called Traditional where companies use IT just to increase its efficiency by utilizing IS as a system-by-system separately. The company in this quadrant run its business management amicably, where the use of IT only as a tool to support business, for example SMEs.
- b) At diffusion high-infusion low (HIGH-LOW), IT is very high centrally controlled and IS is treated very importantly in the IS operational and business. Business will not benefit if the IS fails. IS becomes part of the backbone of organization. For instance, company with centralized banking system, where business processes and corporate profits are very dependent on the operational capability of IT. Whereas IS supports in fulfilling the

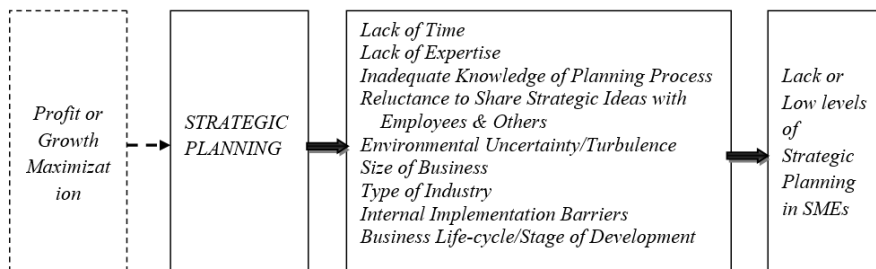
availability of information for companies and customers in a non-stop 24 hours x 7 days as well as services, such as online transaction ATM facilities.

- c) On low infusion-high diffusion (LOW-HIGH), IT is controlled decentrally so managers can implement local priorities. Integration of IS occurred due to the cooperation among users, not because of the design of a business or IT as a whole. Opportunistic management approach takes the existing opportunities and driven by short-term priorities that can create business advantage in some fields. In this quadrant, IT is still as a supporter, while the management of IS depends on each unit, for example, a franchise company that sells a business system that is supported by the use of IT as a mini market (WalMart, Indomart), property companies (LJ-Hooker, Raywhite), fast food (McDonald's, KFC).
- d) At infusion-diffusion high (HIGH-HIGH), the control system is decentralize, but to achieve the success of the business depends on IT. Both were taken to avoid losses and achieve overall business goals, so it is described as a complex environment and relatively complicated management. In this quadrant companies need the IS/IT strategic and high potential to anticipate the changes that occur. Companies that are in this quadrant is the holding company which has a large range of businesses, complex and wide because it consists of several branches or subsidiaries, as well as its geographical location is in the city traffic, inter islands and even across the country, such as Toyota, IBM, etc.

3. Strategic Business Plan Metodology through Information Systems

Wang, et al. (2011) gave a weak spot assessment of strategic business planning done by SMEs that for the majority of SMEs' owner-executors, what is obtained in the performance of its business, there may have a shift of its business goal which is to become more dominant in the fulfillment or personal purposes (usually primary) i.e. autonomy, personal satisfaction, and lifestyle. For some firms strategic business planning may have little value added to the success of the company. For this case Wang, et al. (2011) suggested the importance of motivation and aspiration of SMEs' owner-executors whether strategic planning is necessary for their business. Robinson & Pearce (1984) in his studies suggested that for effectiveness in strategic planning, structure of the SMEs should be directed to the short time horizon (about 2 years), and the process should not be too formal, sophisticated and spend a lot of time.

In their study, Wang, et al. (2011) described weaknesses and lacks of SMEs in the preparation of a strategic business plan as shown in Figure 2 below.



(Wang, 2011)

According to Wang, et al. (2011) weaknesses or lacks of SMEs in making strategic business planning can be seen from the problems that occur at the level of the organization/company (different at the individual level) and approach implicitly which assumes that the company's goal is to maximize profits or business' growth. This means that there is a fundamental problem of what is meant by a 'simple' and a 'very complicated' in making

strategic business planning for SMEs. That the success of SMEs in the operations can be determined on an individual level that is the owner-manager and the magnitude of the motivation of the owner-manager is to achieve its business objectives, but not solely for the purpose of maximizing profits or growth of firms. For this situation, Wang, et al. (2011) then proposed a scheme that can be recommended for SMEs in strategic business planning as shown in Figure 3 below.

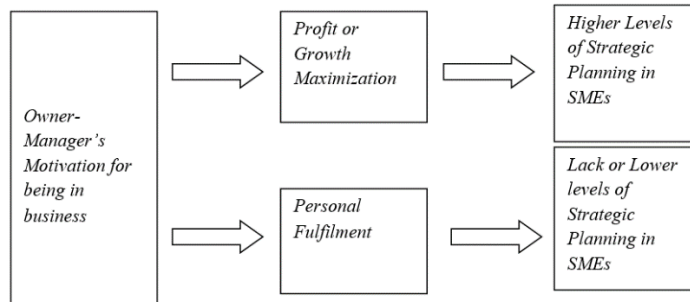


Figure 3. Proposal to explain the weakness and lack in preparing strategic business plan done by SMEs (Wang, 2011)

Figure 3 above explains that the majority of SMEs operate as an 'extension' of the owner-manager. According to Mintzberg (1984) in Shepherd & Wiklund (2005), the actions and decisions made in the range of SMEs owner-managers is that 'the purpose of the company is the owner-manager objectives, vision and strategy of the company is the vision and strategy of the owner-manager'. Therefore, the strategic vision of the company has a close relationship with the motivation and personal ambitions of the owner-manager. Motivation and personal ambition can be influenced by education level, gender, ethnicity, social marginalization, family commitments, personal aspirations or other considerations viewed in psychological, sociological, demographic and environmental perspectives (Beaver & Jennings, 1995).

Thus on SMEs, initial initiative and motivation of the owner-manager to run the business is determined by whether the owner-manager will pursue maximum profits or growth, or will improve his personal fulfillment. Whichever option taken will affect and determine business strategy.

4. Role of social network in SMEs business

The use of pages (web/website) and social networking in the community or businesses in developed countries has been accounted by Goad and Mooney (2008) in his study. There were three of the most popular in the UK, Facebook have been used 55% as social media that was able to take market share of 38% Internet users, 10.5% of Youtube and 2% of Twitter. However, Ballocco, et al. (2009) has observed 646 of SMEs in Italy found that the use of Mobile Internet (IM) in the country was still very limited. The reason is the lack of knowledge of the technology developed at that time and have not felt the benefits and value that would be obtained if adopting that technology.

Recent development of Facebook users are presented based on data from socialbakers.com showed the percentage of Facebook users worldwide was 44.97 per cent in North America, 29.96 percent in Europe, 33.92 percent in South America, 42, 14 percent in Australia and Oceania, 6.68 percent Asian, and 5.15 percent in Africa (<http://www.socialbakers.com>). While in Indonesia, data of social network users (in this case Facebook) on December 31, 2011 showed that there were 51,096,860 users have owned Facebook or 20.6% penetration rate of the Indonesian population of which nearly 250 million people (<http://www.internetworldstats.com / asia.htm>). That was just one-fifth of the population of Indonesia who use social networking for business activities. Meanwhile,

Internet users in Indonesia until the end of 2013 noted 63 million people, ranks fourth in the world after the US, Brazil and India, where its 95% is used to access social networking (www.webershandwick.asia).

In developing countries, especially in Southeast Asia, Omar, et al. (2011) conducted a study of 200 SMEs in Penang, Malaysia associated with the web-based marketing applications and found that the majority of SMEs in Malaysia which utilize IT for their business was still limited to the use of email and static pages, while the online payment system, processing orders online, moreover the use of social networks such as Facebook for business development was still relatively low. Omar, et al. (2011) also stated that an understanding of the benefits to be gained when adopting the technology was still low. More than 50% of SMEs were not aware that the web-based marketing will improve the performance and profitability of the company, increasing the ROI (Return On Investment), reduce operational costs and improve business process flow. On the other hand, the issue of technical security and privacy in adopting these technologies by SMEs in Malaysia became part of the most interesting to study.

Situations of SMEs in Malaysia is not much different from the existing SMEs in Indonesia. Studies on the use of information technology in 94 SMEs in Jepara (Roosdhani, et al., 2012) and 23 SMEs that were under development by LPB Joint-Venture Institute of Technology, Surabaya (Sari & Hanoum, 2012) showed that the use of social networking and moreover to support the improvement of the performance of SMEs was still relatively low. The motivation for adopting the technology was actually quite high but constrained financial problems, infrastructure, and human resources to handle it. Also uncertain situation whether the investments will be able to add value and benefit to the company.

F. Research Framework

The framework on this study will refer to and modify the model to strategic business planning conducted by Wang, et al. (2011) and involves variables that affect motivation and personal ambition proposed by Beaver and Jennings (1995), but will focus on the involvement of social networking as a means to achieve the success of strategic business planning for SMEs. The diagram on the conceptual framework of this study can be explained in Figure 4 below.

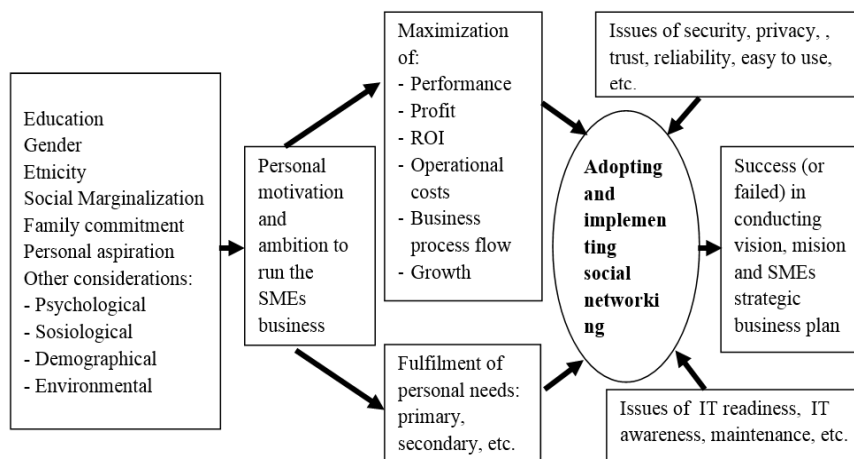


Figure 4. Research framework

G. Research Methodology

This study was designed in the form of experimental study of One-Group Pre-test Post-test design which takes approximately 6-12 months to collect data and information in the field. In this experiment every SME as research sample was observed and tested before and after a treatment provided, and subsequently its results recorded. Treatment as independent variables, whereas the results as dependent variable. The figure below shown the experimental process for this study (quoted from Ertambang Nahartyo, 2013, p. 85).



Figure 5. *One-Group Pre-test Post-test Design Experiment*

O₁ = score of pre-test (before treatment/training)

O₂ = score of post-test (after treatment/training)

X = treatment

Impact of training to success of strategic business plan = O₁ - O₂

Samples were selected purposively based on specific criteria or reasons that are considered to represents the population. The target of sample is approximately 25 to 30 pieces of SMEs (in the form of community / associations, clusters, cooperatives or business / similar business centers) that exist in the study area and represent each district in former Surakarta recidency. There were 6 districts and 1 municipality in this location, or about 4 to 5 SMEs per district which have business in garment, home industries, agricultural/plantation commodities, metal craft, clay, food and beverage businesses, or other products as samples in this study.

The instrument used in this study are:

- 1) In-depth interviews both toward the chairman of the association/cluster/ cooperatives/group of similar business and with artisans directly in the field to collect data and information relating to the issues that (may) encountered so far.
- 2) Discussion groups (focus group) or forum of a question and answer at a meeting with members of the association/cluster/cooperatives/business centers to supplement and cross-check the data and information obtained previously with their chairman.
- 3) List of questions in the form of open and closed questionnaire distributed to the chairman and members of the association / cluster / cooperatives / associations / business centers to explore deeper into the data and information relating to aspects of the input, process and output as well as internal and external issues that (may) happen during this time.

Generally, this study is analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively in order to obtain optimal results. For qualitative analysis, SWOT analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) is used to map the problems occurred by viewing of strengths and weaknesses owned by SMEs, opportunities and challenges or threats faced by SMEs and the potential that can be raised and developed related with strategic business planning on SMEs. Whereas for quantitative analysis, GSCA analysis (Generalized Structured Component Analysis) is applied to accommodate the variables involved in this study and to explore the correlation and the influence among variables. GSCA is a multivariate analysis to observe the characteristics of an object of research conducted simultaneous/concurrent and has relationships between variables that are observed simultaneously (Hwang, et al., 2010).

H. Research Findings

The data and information obtained from the field which is conducted by interviews, group discussions, and distributing questionnaires to research samples provides descriptive results as follows.

1. Location of the municipality of Surakarta

- a. Of the three samples of research, the issue of financing/capital cannot be avoided, but due to the location of sample is in the city, then other funding agencies can be available many more. However, the more urgent is the ability of SMEs in managing finances, making bookkeeping, preparing financial statements, and other related matters seems not perform well, organized and systematic. Utilization of information technology is also still not optimal yet.
- b. From the aspect of production, three samples showed the good performance because it is an area of their expertise. The problem lies in the productivity and the ability to fulfill orders in large amount from prospective buyers. Unfulfilled orders will have a sub-contract to other SMEs which are willing and able to deal with the consequences of inconsistent quality.
- c. Marketing for batik products, culinary and furniture is not a problem for SMEs since its duties are only fulfill orders from prospective buyers who own big capital or merchants, but it will be a constraint if SMEs should seek buyer candidates by their own way.
- d. Low quality of human resources due to the disparity on the class of economic, social and educational found in the samples. Work stimulation and motivation to become craftsmen of SMEs are also relatively low because they do not be provided career advancement opportunities, income and life assurance. Being a craftsman of SMEs is considered only to survive in the city, look for additional income, or just spend leisure time.
- e. Transport and telecommunications infrastructure in urban areas is relatively better than in suburban or rural. Nevertheless, the use of the Internet and mobile phones to support the business activities of SMEs are still few and not optimal. Internet and mobile phones are only used for general purposes such as sending sms, chat, and browsing.

2. Location of the district of Boyolali

- a. Of the three sample locations, crucial issue regarding the financing is that to buy the raw materials is difficult to obtain. If it can get then the raw materials will be expensive, if there is no funding sources then the raw materials are not available`.
- b. Production and productivity in all samples is low because the production process using the traditional method, the equipment used is simple, and not enough capital available, especially to fulfill large orders.
- c. Lack of knowledge and information led to the SME market is very dependent on a third party/capital owners/merchants who have a shop or gallery. In addition, to get in the market is also relatively limited because of the lack of ability to sell their products. Also stiff competition among SMEs to get prospective buyers who come to the business location directly or through intermediaries. The use of down-payment is sometimes not enough to buy raw materials or only fitting to cover the cost of production.
- d. The low of education and lack of expertise/skills become issue of poor quality of human resources. The enthusiasm and interest in the community of productive age to become artisans/entrepreneurs of SMEs is not so much because be a civil servant or private/factory worker provides more guaranteed salary, career and future.
- e. Technology used by SMEs is very common due to continuing the tradition of ancestor who taught for generations. Some existing SMEs have and use the Internet to create a page (website), but cannot be empowered optimally because of physical constraints (Internet network), human resources who handle the technology as well as English language skills for media communication with buyers from overseas.

3. Location of the district of Sukoharjo

- a. There are five clusters/associations of SMEs become research samples in this area. The problem of capital becomes a classic issue, particularly for the procurement of raw materials. Financing for the procurement of raw materials by SMEs to the supplier can be done through three ways, namely cash to get supplies from

suppliers in Surabaya, credit to local suppliers (in a cluster) and the 3-day term of up to 3 months if using services exporter.

- b. Constraints scarcity of raw rattan or wood which must be imported from outside the island of Java, sometimes have to use illegal way (smuggling), which causes extra cost. For ordering in large quantities, the productivity usually low due to limited production capacity and weak managerial capacity, low quality of human resources and lack of marketing media.
- c. In terms of marketing, SMEs' competitive power is low compared to similar industries from other regions. Quality of products which are marketed abroad is also low due to the low quality of human resources of SMEs particularly in terms of processing products, such as furniture. Lack of promotional programs has made products such as furniture actually better known in foreign markets than at home country.
- d. Lack of training and skills of workers in SMEs makes product quality does not meet the standards as done by less skilled labor.
- e. The use of simple technology with old equipment, lack of waste management of production, poor waste disposal installations (e.g. dye), inadequate sewage treatment is a problem that is encountered on the samples in Sukoharjo. Some existing SMEs already have their own website, but not yet used optimally to support their business.

4. Location of the district of Karanganyar

- a. Financial problems on three samples in this location do not exist because the scale of business is relatively small. The tourism business is managed and become the responsibility of Regional Government so the role of SMEs is just complementing the accommodation of the sites, for instance food court, vending souvenirs, tour guide, and so on.
- b. Aspects of production on the industrial medicinal constrained by the drying process (herbal pieces) that depends on the intensity of sunlight. Under conditions of excess production, the use of sunlight becomes ineffective. Drying machine provided by the Local Government is also too wasteful of energy generator (electricity, gas) and its use is inefficient (production slightly, engine capacity is too big), so the machine be terminated.
- c. On tourism SMEs, marketing promotions conducted by the Regional Government, whereas on SMEs medicinal herbs promotions carried out in collaboration with the medicinal herbs' company namely Sidomuncul, Semarang, meanwhile on SMEs Batik Girilayu left entirely to batik entrepreneur who is also as relatives of the palace of Mangkunegaran.
- d. A similar concern with respect to human resources with SMEs in other districts is low quality of product caused by low education and little motivation to work or do business on SMEs.
- e. The technology used in SMEs medicinal herbs uses sunlight, while SMEs Batik Girilayu still use traditional means for holding the tradition which passed down from the palace Mangkunegaran. On the other hand, tourism SMEs already have a page (website) but in the form of static website (not dynamic) so it cannot make direct communication with visitors of the page (website).

5. Location of the district of Wonogiri

- a. At the five samples in this region, the issue of capital is a common problem. Some SMEs are able to meet the international market such as SMEs who produce seaweed, buyers demand from China and Taiwan is quite high but constrained by the problem of funds, while the role of Local Government merely provide guidance. As a result, several cost components should be treated by SMEs themselves before being sent abroad, for example the cost of labor, packing, shipping, and so on.
- b. Production processes in SMEs cashew, cassava, agate and furniture are still using traditional methods with simple equipment.

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- c. For the marketing of products such as cashew, seaweed and cassava SMEs is quite able to meet demand from overseas buyers. In conditions like this sometimes price factor becomes a problem because overseas buyers then set the price for the SME market.
 - d. Low quality of human resources due to economic crisis, social affairs and education problems. Also, mentality of society, especially those of productive age has low motivation for entrepreneurship or continues his/her parents business. Limited availability of educational facilities, transport and telecommunications infrastructure is not sufficient and is also an obstacle to their development.
 - e. Technology to help SMEs has not been run optimally because one of the requirements cannot be met, for example, production of cassava can be processed into bio-ethanol as an alternative fuel. A company of China intends to build an ethanol plant in Wonogiri, but it has canceled that project due to the availability of water as a requirement cannot be met. Information technology and mobile phones cannot be fully exploited due to the constraints of land contours in Wonogiri region which is hilly.

6. Location of the district of Sragen

- a. Financial problems in the five samples showed that craftsmen of SMEs is placed as a party that needs to be assisted financially in order to produce needed goods for the third party e.g. owners of capital or merchants. As a result of this situation, craftsman became 'bound' to thrive financially because their needs have been fulfilled by those third parties.
- b. No technical obstacle on the samples because of what has conducted was a hereditary tradition. It could say artisans/entrepreneurs of SMEs in the Sragen regency has had advanced skills even in SMEs Batik there is a specific uniqueness in production process where the dye material is taken from natural materials such as banana leaves for green color, teak leaves for red color, and so on.
- c. Some SMEs be quite overwhelmed to fulfill orders, especially from overseas buyers, such as weaving sarung goyor buyers from Somalia, Africa. Its main constraint is the limited number of craftsmen available and willing to be involved when necessary to fulfill the order anytime.
- d. The enthusiasm and interest of the community of productive age to be a craftsman of SMEs are still relatively low because there are other more promising alternatives, such as a factory worker or civil servants. As consequence, craftsman of SMEs are forced to reduce its production capacity rather than unable to meet the market demand.
- e. Technology used to produce SMEs' goods is still quite traditional and simple namely ATBM (traditional equipment) to produce weaving sarung goyor. On the other hand, the use of information technology such as Internet is also not much. If there are, it is usually a large-scale company and is able to export their goods abroad, e.g. furniture producers.

7. Location of the district of Klaten

- a. Viewed from the availability of capital, the three samples in research area strive to fulfill their own capital needs or get help from various sources, either from the Local Government (APBD), the Central Government (APBN) or from other financial resources (e.g. banking, the International Organization for Migration and the Java Reconstruction Fund).
- b. Most of SMEs in Klaten use traditional ways to generate their products as a form of preservation of the cultural values from their ancestors.
- c. Marketing products on SMEs in Klaten partly done by third parties/vendors, such as artisans/entrepreneurs pottery and ceramics in Melikan, but others are done by themselves.
- d. In Klaten there is a vocational school that educates students to be able to make batik so that future generation of batik craftsmen can keep be existed in Klaten. Nevertheless, ratio of craftsman who is needed to fulfill the demand product is still unbalanced, meaning there is not many productive age groups who have interest or desire to become craftsmen of SMEs. They prefer to be a factory worker rather than craftsmen of SMEs.

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- e. The technology used to make batik, striated and pottery/ceramics is still quite traditional with simple equipment. This is to continuing the tradition that has been passed down through generations, where batik or striated is produced using handmade to give the feel of originality rather than using the weaving machine.

I. Conclusion

Of what are obtained in the field with respect to the sample of SMEs in 6 districts and 1 municipality in former of Surakarta residency showed that nearly in all sample sites, the classic problem such as limited financial resources, infrastructure especially telecommunications and transportation, marketing mainly to promote SMEs products, human resources involved in the business process especially with respect to the quality of work and the availability of manpower/craftsmen, as well as information technology used has not been utilized optimally. Not only SMEs in rural regions, but also in the city or suburbs, those problems are still difficult to avoid, especially in developing countries.

The potential of information technology to be adopted and applied by SMEs has not been utilized optimally. Although some SMEs already have a page (web), but is still limited to be used as a mere completeness, except pages owned by the Local Government. Obstacles on geographic location, transportation and telecommunications become a very important issue to note all parties involved in the management of SMEs. The role of Local Government/City and the ranks of organization unit should be intensive and pro-active in providing facilities and infrastructure, including the aspects of education and skills for SMEs to prepare labor which has high quality and dedication to guarantee that the SMEs business runs well and keep exist in the future.

The findings is also supporting of what has been stated by Roosdhani, et al. (2012) and Sari & Hanoum (2012) that the use of information technology, especially social networking, by SMEs in Indonesia to improve the SMEs' performance is still relatively low due to several constraints both physical such as infrastructure, financial, human resources, marketing, production and non-physical such as management, strategy, bureaucracy, policy, and so on.

J. Research Limitation

Because this study is experimental and takes 6-12 months to explore comprehensively, i.e. identifying the problems occurred, finding its causes, providing a treatment in a particular form of training, then observing and analyzing what happened before and after treatment, and finally proposing a model or framework on the SMEs regarding the use of social networking for strategic business planning, it is necessary to do further research.

This research report is presented as the first part of two parts, where in this first part attempts to identifying the problems that occur and the potency of information technology in supporting SMEs to make strategic business planning. Whereas in the second part sought to provide further analysis to understand the correlation and the influence amongst variables which is involved in this research. Therefore, the deeper discussion is necessary to explore whether the proposed model in this research is suitable for SMEs which implement social networking for their strategic business planning.

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Women, Television and New Media – Engagement in the Makeover Culture

Aleksandra Powierska,

Jagiellonian University, Poland

e-mail: aleksandra.powierska@uj.edu.pl

Abstract

Among the most popular programs broadcasted by women's channels at present there are numerous makeover shows. Many researchers address them and analyze selected programs in the categories of reflexivity, governmentality (Sender 2012) or the culture of transparency, among others (Lisowska-Magdziarz 2012). However, at present television is not only the lineup but also the new media that accompany it and allow the viewers to comment on it. The aim of this article is to present to what extent the users of social media are engaged in the television narration taking place on the fanpage of a given channel as well as in what categories they speak of the programs, among which makeover shows are very popular. The basis of the research is the qualitative and quantitative analysis of posts and comments published on the official fanpage of the Polish women's television channel TVN Style. The research shows that in spite of the fact that, according to statistics, women are the most active users of social media, their transmedia engagement is relatively small. However, there are exceptions, which are extremely popular and whose interpretation reveals information on the internet users' worldview, the perception of television as an institution as well as the need to share one's own experiences.

Keywords: women's television, social media, makeover shows

Introduction

The contemporary television is not a single medium that can be described in a unitary category. Television has become a complex system requiring analysis on multiple levels. Among them the most important have become new media, which have changed not only the technology of broadcasting, but mainly the technology of reception of television. Television has become an interactive medium, oriented toward contact with the viewer, one that more and more often ceases to be a mass viewer. Program offers are personalized and channels aimed at viewers with specific interests emerge, because contact and the primacy of the target have pushed the lineup on to the back seat. Television has to be a good product that will satisfy the customer's needs – most preferably, on demand. Thus channels – alongside traditional broadcasting – share their programs on VOD platforms or in social media. The internet has become an inseparable element of production and distribution of television content and paratexts accompanying it; in the age of the “meme culture” those frequently become more popular than the programs themselves. Some of them are created only with a view to the internet and the new viewer, the active user. This change is the sign of paratextualization of culture, about which Kazimierz Krzysztofek writes (2010), identifying macroconnectivity as one of its features. The notion refers to the theories of networks, which, to the author, “explain how, through a mighty decomposition of relationships, re- and multiplication (...) of the content occurs” [own translation – A.P.] (Krzysztofek 2010: 16). In this context, Krzysztofek (2010: 16) uses the notion of “overmedia” to describe the growing media system. The multiplication of content as well as places where the content is available make television a multilevel and polysemic system that cannot be considered without taking into account its new media environment. The new media, especially social media, have given viewers the voice and the possibility of expressing their opinions, commenting on or replying to the issues discussed by journalists. The phenomenon is especially visible in case of thematic channels. In the face of the above, one should take a closer look at them. The aim of this article is to find answers to the research questions below:

In what way do social media users speak of television programs? Which content is the most interesting to them? What does the abovementioned activity say about our culture?

The analysis is based on comments published on the official Facebook fanpage of “TVN Style” – Polish television station aimed at women. The choice of this station is supported by the fact that women are the most active group in social media – they spend 40% more time using social media sites than men do (Michalska and Nowacka 2014). Hence the hypothesis

that a station aimed at women, along with its internet environment, will generate much engagement on the part of the users. An important aspect is also the critical potential of comments by the viewers, frequently subversive in relation to the mainstream or unmasking the mechanisms of television creation and manipulation. The analysis of the messages shows also what social and political topics are currently important. However, before the interpretation of any specific broadcasts, one needs to provide some theoretical background and the most significant theories that have influenced the selection of the subject, the course of the research process as well as the formulation of the final conclusions.

Literature Review

The development of women's television took place in the 1990s, when a number of soap operas, in which the main roles were played by women, appeared (Lotz 2006). Amanda Lotz states that it was at that time that women became the target of media producers:

"The expansion of sex-specific niche-audience targeting from cable to broadcast networks illustrates the importance of female audiences, a crucial target of industries now defined by media convergence and corporate conglomeration. Broadcast and cable networks enact intricate program selection and marketing strategies to acknowledge the variation among tastes and ideologies of different groups of women" (Lotz 2006: 7).

In Poland similar changes occurred almost a decade later. "TVN Style" is part of a media group named ITI Group, founded in 2004. From the very beginning the channel has been aimed at women and it has addressed topics such as fashion, beauty, cooking, family or health. The lineup is largely based on foreign programs and television formats, among which at present cooking and makeover shows dominate. In the lineup there is also place for talk shows, where the most popular is "The Social Mangle" (original title: "Magiel towarzyski") on show business and "The City of Women" ("Miało kobiet") – a program addressing social issues, frequently concerned with women's rights. It is worth emphasizing that both the station as well as selected programs have their profiles on Facebook, where the viewers may express their opinions on various subjects. Similar opportunities are provided by internet forums that accompany both the website as well as particular broadcasts on the platform Player.pl.

The presence of the programs in numerous places as well as their focus on interactivity with the viewer make TVN Style's shows more like a stage described by Joan Kristin Bleicher (2010). In this model it is the viewer who decides on his or her own lineup and, in a more or less advanced way, enters a relationship with the television text (Bleicher 2010: 520). Moreover, the text itself does not always play the main role here – its fragment placed on a Facebook timeline is not only detached from the lineup but also, in a way, from the whole program/series and works as a separate recording, the aim of which is to engage the viewer. Controversial words taken out of context, shocking pictures or ambiguous quotations excellently fulfill this role. Many web surfers taking part in the discussions express their opinions on the basis of the 1- or 2-minute long fragment, which is confirmed by frequent enquiries where the whole program may be watched. Metamorphoses on makeover shows are especially popular, thus it appears justified to provide the most important theories concerning this genre.

The popularity of makeover shows is connected with the notion of "lifestyle" (Lewis), which, first, has become very popular in the contemporary culture and, second, in many aspects has begun to refer to creation of the "self" – the creation of one's own unique identity that will stand out but also, most importantly, attract attention. Moreover, "the new self" may be acquired through new clothes, a new car or occupation: "Lifestyle television, and in particular the makeover show, thus extends the DIY rubric to every aspects in one's life from home décor to selfhood" (Lewis 2009: 3). Regardless of the main subject, it does so in a similar way, in accordance with a virtually identical pattern. Tania Lewis (2009: 2) mentions a few features of makeover shows, which, de facto, may be reduced to generic indicators. At the beginning the chosen person is surprised by the expert visiting him or her at home or workplace. Then the expert starts a conversation and shows what mistakes the protagonist of the episode makes: mistakes in his or her nutrition, attire, work or, generally, lifestyle. Polish researcher Małgorzata Lisowska-Magdziarz (2012: 31-32) emphasizes that the stage of confrontation with the revealed situation is connected with a public confession – frequently, in a way, being an admission of the problem and guilt. It is accompanied by strong emotions – the protagonist discovers as well as reveals before the viewers his or her weaknesses. The greater, the more visible and moving they are, the more visible is the power of television:

"The exposition is also recognition of the power of media. This is why the master of metamorphosis at this stage frequently emphasizes the need for complete trust and submission on the part of the transformed person, entrusting his or her own

privacy and future because at this moment the third stage begins: 3) rejection of the old “me” [own translation – A.P.] (Lisowska-Magdziarz 2012: 32).

The categorical separation from the person that one used to be is necessary and confirms the protagonist’s readiness for transformation. After this part the actual change takes place, the course of which is supervised by the expert, and, finally, the public reveal occurs (Lewis 2009: 3).

Jack Z. Bratich (2007: 8), on the other hand, considering makeover shows in the category of reality television, notes that transformation turns ordinary people into celebrities and celebrities – into ordinary people. The process is visible not only in the narrative and esthetic structure of the program itself. It gains even more significance in social media, where the protagonist of the makeover show appears and, most importantly, is assessed like a star, while well-known people are treated like friends with similar problems. This engagement makes transformations even more spectacular and visible. They are discussed not only by people in the studio or viewers in front of the TV, but also hundreds of web surfers expressing their opinions on internet forums. And, what is more, it is their opinions that will reach other users, who will engage in the conversation, and, as a result, become interested in a program that they have not watched before. Frequently the burden of attention is transferred from the protagonist himself or herself to the expert that supervises the transformation. He or she becomes not just a celebrity but an idol. Trinny and Susannah or Gok Wan are well-known people believed to be authorities on their fields. However, the question of understanding the term “authority” is controversial. One may speak here of the celebrity cult, which Zygmunt Bauman (2008: 204-205) calls “idolatry” influencing the life politics of an individual to a greater and greater degree. Idols, just as the transformations themselves, are not permanent – they last as long as they are talked about and shown. Therefore, the task of the contemporary viewer is to remain in the circle of newer and newer transformations and their masters, although this does not have to be an unreflexive or even thoughtless pursuit. As Katherine Sender’s research (2012) shows, to many people makeover shows provide an inspiration with simultaneous awareness of the introduced manipulative procedures. The author uses the notions of “reflexivity” and “reflexive self” in the description and examination of the genre:

“(…) reflexivity describes how makeover shows rework ideas about the self through the particular demands of contemporary television programming. These shows mobilize audiences’ reflexive engagements with the text, their viewing habits, their social relations and their ideas about themselves as projects to be worked on” (Sender 2012: 4).

This approach is confirmed also by the users’ opinions posted on TVN Style’s fanpage, which will be elaborated upon in the further part of the article. However, what is worth noting in Sender’s approach is the reference to other researchers (Oullette 2004; Oullette and Hay 2008) recalling Michel Foucault and his concept of “governmentality” in the context of reality shows. Television programs become implementations of the technology of power, especially of what the French philosopher calls “technologies of the self” (Foucault 1998) and relates to the process of change and creation of oneself in order to be happy. In this context, makeover shows indicate the directions of change but also control and supervise it: “(…) makeover shows both encourage audiences to view candidates with contempt and to reform themselves in order to avoid such contempt from others” (Sender 2012: 8-9). Thus so many programs focus on the metamorphosis of the looks through weight loss, changing hairstyles and clothes – in this way not only does a person emphasize his or her individuality (which, in reality, is just an appearance), but also fits into current trends, including market mechanisms. At the basis of change there is always consumption and this is what makes the consumption of media, especially entertainment programs, pleasurable – the more pleasurable the greater the possibility of expressing one’s own opinion or sharing one’s own stories by the viewers. Protagonists of the shows are selected so that the viewer may relate to them and apply appropriate changes in his or her own life. Małgorzata Bogunia-Borowska (2012) notes that in Poland change gains even more importance. The author emphasizes the role of television in propagating changes as a new way of living after the 1989 political transformation, when Poland became a democratic country. Similarly – just as the abovementioned researchers – Bogunia-Borowska writes that the omnipresent affirmation of transformation in every aspect of life is actually a tool of control that does not encourage people to take active part in the social life but provides “information about the need to conform with a specified way of being and acting” [own translation – A.P.] (Bogunia-Borowska 2012: 153). Similarly, the possibility of expressing their opinions may not equal the users’ actual freedom of speech and choice but be reduced to gaining much more control by the media over the viewers by learning what they do or do not like.

Finally, one should also note that women’s television largely maintains stereotypes about this sex. Any metamorphoses that are to “return” self-esteem to the woman actually push her back into the canon of what is accepted as “beautiful” or “womanly” in the consumption culture. Programs pertaining to, for instance, professional fulfilment, are in minority. If one looks at TVN Style’s lineup, he or she may feel that a woman, first and foremost, should know how to apply make-up (“The

Beauty Clinic” – original title: “Klinika urody”), dress up (“Style Magazine” – “Stylowy Magazyn,” “Sablewska’s Way with Fashion” – “Sablewskiej sposób na modę”), clean the house (“The Perfect Housewife” – “Perfekcyjna Pani Domu”), raise her child or, finally, cook a delicious meal (“Delicious 25”– “Pyszne 25”). Moreover, nearly all of the programs contain product placements, in accordance with the notion that women are the best consumers. And although they do not have to be just housewives anymore, still, many reflections of Betty Friedan’s (2012) contained in her book *The Feminine Mystique* remain valid.

Methodology

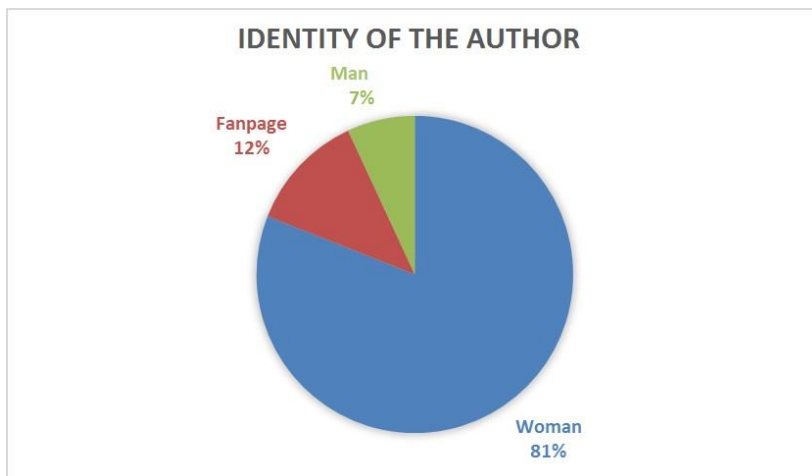
The conclusions presented in the article have been drawn on the basis of the analysis of the content of posts and comments published on TVN Style’s fanpage between November 10 and December 3, 2014¹. Overall, 60 posts and 794 comments were coded, which is a justified number due to the repetitive character of the published content, depending largely on the lineup of the channel. The posts published by the station were analyzed in two categories: autoreferential and engaging. The first one refers to the degree to which television refers to itself through new media. The other one specifies the content that is not related to the programs but aiming at an increase in the activity of the users and at engaging them in a discussion. Further analysis took into consideration all comments accompanying the posts viewed with use of the standard function “Top comments” provided automatically by the Facebook interface. The comments have been ascribed with the following codes:

- Positive opinion about the show or its participants – a message expressed usually by means of simple statements such as “I like this show,” “I love the host” or positive emojis;
- Critical opinion about the show or its participants – a message expressing a negative attitude toward the program or its hosts/protagonists;
- Discussion – problem messages provoking other users to express their opinions with a clear indication of one’s own belief;
- Own story – comments in which the users tell their own stories analogical to the main post and the problem touched upon in the post;
- Information – requests for details about a particular show pertaining to more technical issues than the content of the broadcast itself (e.g. questions about the time of broadcasting, possibility of viewing the program via the internet, the brand of clothes worn by the host);
- Simple interaction – answers to the question contained in the post, which simultaneously are not opinions about the program nor do they start a discussion;
- Hate – vulgar comments;
- Spam – advertising and promotional messages or ones that do not relate to the current discussion or the content of the main post in any way;
- Other – posts that do not classify as any of the abovementioned categories.

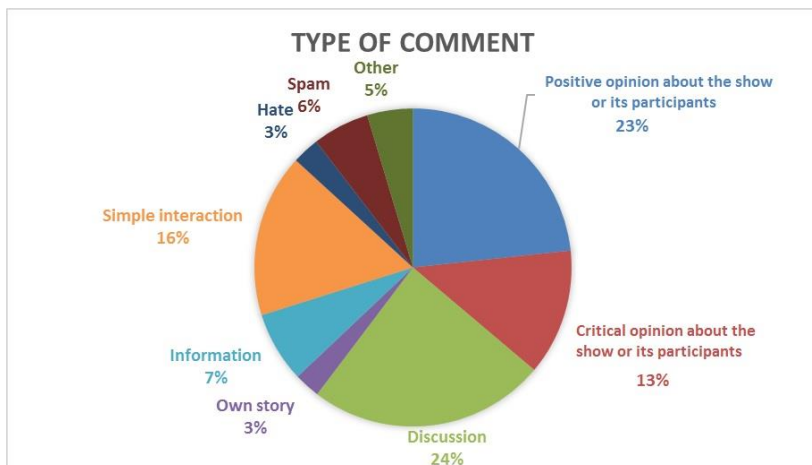
The coding categories have allowed for specification of the degree to which the content published on the fanpage is engaging and arouses an actual interest in given television content, at the same time broadening the reach of the station. The analysis of particular posts shows which of them are more interesting to the users as well as in what way the discussions are held or, above all, to what degree the published comments create discussions or remain simple opinions. Moreover, the conducted research indicates to what extent the users approach the broadcasted programs and topics touched upon in them critically.

¹ All the presented quotations of users’ comments and descriptions of particular posts come from the abovementioned fanpage, which is available at: <https://www.facebook.com/tvnstylepl?fref=ts>. The names of particular shows have been translated to English because they unambiguously indicate the subject of each program and help understand the whole text.

Graph 1. The identity of the author of a comment



Graph 2. The type of comment



Television for women – a fanpage for women?

Among the 794 comments most of them, 643, were written by women, the authors of 55 were men and 96 messages were written by official profiles (fanpages of various companies) or profiles in the case of which it was impossible to determine the sex of the author on the basis of the picture and the name given (graph 1). In accordance with the station's assumptions, the television fanpage engages women, that is the main target group, the most. Among the messages the majority are ones creating discussions (192), being positive (185) or negative (102) opinions on the program or simple interactions in response to the question asked by the administrator (graph 2). However, it is worth mentioning that the statistics are exaggerated by a few posts that were the most popular and by the analysis of which one may simultaneously note a few characteristic features of grassroots narration occurring around television. Discussions started usually in the case of linking makeover shows but also talk shows that touched upon topics controversial due to cultural relations in Poland. Such an example may be a trailer of "The City of Women," in which the hosts addressed the topic of catholic pre-marital courses or

contraception. This is a subject that for years has aroused controversies in Poland because the Catholic Church has a strong position in the country. Another post that provoked a discussion was one about a book and an idea of introducing a diet in which, for instance, one would not eat meat on Mondays. This is an interesting example of how a post on healthy food provoked a discussion on the worldview and religion, as it is accepted that Catholics do not eat meat on Fridays:

A: Why Mondays? It used to be Friday, so why change it?

B: You can add Monday to your meat-free Friday and it will be even healthier and more interesting. I assure you that the authors of the book didn't mean to disturb anyone's tradition.

C: Isn't Friday enough? I've heard ever since my childhood that Friday is the day of fasting, without any meat.

D: Have you been instilled with the faith, too, or is it just a conviction?

C: Unfortunately, no one succeeded in that... I eat meat whenever I like and, as for faith, it depends. I definitely am not perceived positively by Catholics because I go to church whenever I want to and I believe in what I want to believe. I belong to non-practicing believers, I guess that's what they're called...

Not only do makeover shows arouse discussions, but they also provoke viewers to talk about their own stories and broaden the narration with new sub-plots. Elisabeth Evans (2011: 1-2), analyzing the contemporary television and recalling Jenkins, writes about "transmedia storytelling" and "transmedia distribution" that need to be understood as narration composed of numerous texts and exceeding a single medium. Referring to this concept, stories described by the users, which, on the one hand, may be understood as extension of the program's plot, and, on the other hand, being an unambiguous reply to television content in the space outside television, may be called true storytelling. The true experiences of the users complement the story of the program's protagonist, confirm his or her struggles and, above all, make it close to "ordinary people". Moreover, they reinforce the status of the program itself, in accordance with the notion that "we really need such shows because many people struggle with similar problems". True storytelling also reveals the strength of the program, which provokes the users to describe their own experiences, which, on the other hand, shows strong engagement in the texts. Under a post referring to the program "Life without Shame" (original title: "Życie bez wstydu"), where a woman struggling with excess skin after losing 50 kg was shown, the following comments appeared:

A: Exactly as if someone was telling the story of my childhood...

B: (...) I've also heard that I'm too fat, that I should lose weight. I too used to torture myself with exercise but then I told myself that I wouldn't do as others wanted me to just to please them (...).

Honest confessions as well as the story told in the program usually make the commenters become a support group. It is hard to speak here of a virtual community, as it is rare for web surfers to establish any personal relationships, although one may say that the users fulfill the role of friends and family in the studio, who, first, support the participant and, second, witness a spectacular transformation:

A: Congrats! I admire your perseverance, you've achieved a lot. Losing so much weight is a great challenge... Keep your head up, now it's gonna be better than you think. You just need to smile a lot because you're a pretty girl. Keep warm.

Among the positive opinions pertaining to the programs messages concerning Gok Wan, a well-known stylist specializing in metamorphoses, dominated. Under his picture with the words "Hello, smile" 35 positive opinions expressed mainly through emoticons and messages such as "Gok is amazing", "I love his shows", "Gok is so nice", etc. appeared. A similar number (30 positive messages) were published under a post announcing a program featuring the stylist. This is an example of a celebrity that definitely wins the liking of social media users. Much engagement was also aroused by posts in which the station wished to learn its fans' opinions. In the first one the best metamorphosis was to be chosen and the second one was a simple question about the users' plans for St. Andrew's Day on November 30, that is on the name day of Andrew (Andrzej), on which in Poland usually meetings to play fortunetelling games with friends are organized. What is important, it was the only post, which, for 60 posts, did not redirect in any way to the station or news related to it. Posts that do not require lengthy responses from the users or any knowledge of the programs aim at building their engagement and, above all, at "stimulating" web surfers that usually do not take part in discussions. In this way the station shows that it wishes to start a dialog with the viewers.

TVN Style's television fanpage is also a place where the viewers may express criticism toward the station or even reveal the mechanism of media manipulation and the structure of some shows. The reason for such actions was, for instance, a trailer of the program "The Perfect Nanny" (original title: "Idealna niania"), in which a candidate for a babysitter discovers

that in the house of her potential employers hidden cameras have been installed and that she is being observed by the parents. Alongside critical opinions on the idea of the program there were also messages stating that the show was scripted and that extras appearing there had also been seen in other programs. One of the discussions pertained to the format and license of the production and proved that the stories that were supposed to be true were actually based on a scenario:

A: Scripted just like any other shows this kind. And the best thing is that the program "Why me" [original title: "Dlaczego ja"] reflects other foreign shows. I live in Germany and when I watch the Polish one I know what will happen because it was aired here a year ago. The same topic, just presented in a different way (...).

B: Those are licensed shows (...).

It arises from the above that viewers and users are aware of television manipulations, however, they are critical toward them only in the case of shows that are generally not appreciated. Such discussions did not appear in the context of trailers of shows where popular celebrities, such as Gok Wan, appeared. The person of the host is then, in a way, a catalyst of negative emotions.

At the end one should note that TVN Style's fanpage had, on January 3, 2015, 204,373 fans. From the conducted research it arises that, on average, for 60 posts there were 13 comments. The numbers show relatively little engagement of the viewers in the created narration. Interest is aroused by controversial topics or posts presenting metamorphoses and their authors. The fanpage does not fulfill the role of a forum or magazine for women. It probably stems from the fact that 99% of the posts refer to the lineup – there are few posts that exceed references to the station and reflect current communication trends in social media. Narration structured in this way, however, leads to the conclusion that television for women has been dominated by makeover shows and the culture of celebrities, while assessing, comparing and evaluating have become the dominant forms of reflection on reception.

Conclusions

In conclusion, metamorphoses and their experts are the topics that arouse the most interest among the users of TVN Style's fanpage. The most popular form of expression are discussions, in which the web surfers tell their own stories or express opinions supported by their experiences. From the conducted analysis it arises that through the selection of the published content the station emphasizes the importance of physical appearance in the contemporary culture. This interest in metamorphoses is caused also by sheer curiosity, the willingness to express opinions and to peep, that is features that excellently describe the culture of transparency. Lisowska-Magdziarz (2012: 44-48) writes that media have become its main tool. As the researcher emphasizes, the culture of transparency, on the one hand, consists in revealing and showing the problem and, on the other hand, in removing any barriers that could inhibit this process. The effect is the more spectacular the more the topic touched upon belongs to the taboo. Hence the growing popularity of makeover shows, in which the participants reveal their shameful problems and undergo, for instance, plastic surgeries. Breaking a taboo, however, remains within some limits, as the programs "still need to confirm the existing status quo, with its hierarchy of values, esthetic and communication principles, regulating the social functioning of individuals and groups as well as the assumption of the positive role of the medium" [own translation – A.P.] (Lisowska-Magdziarz 2012: 52). However, the notion of transparency gains new importance in relation to television and its new media environment. The users, by means of their messages, may reveal things that were meant by the station to remain secret, such as the stages of production, because a given web surfer had an occasion to observe or take part in them. And, what is important, it is not about the so-called making of, which serves to keep up the appearances of full transparency and the "fact" that television does not hide anything and the program is fully authentic (Lisowska-Magdziarz 2012: 55-56). Actions performed by the users are uncontrollable (although posts can be moderated by the administrator of the fanpage after publication) and may definitely be subversive. In this way actions performed by television may become even more transparent than would arise from the assumption of the station itself. Moreover, there may always be a situation in which a comment will appear that is an interpretation not compliant with the broadcaster's intention or that will provoke a discussion on a completely different, controversial topic. The conducted research shows, however, that in case of the Polish station aimed at women the level of tele-participation, using Sharon Marie Ross's term (2009), describing a situation when "(...) the Internet has become a site for tele-participation that opens up for viewers and creators myriad ways in which to experience watching and making TV" (Ross 2009: 4), is still at its beginning. In contrast with the initial hypothesis, women are not a very active group on the television fanpage. On the other hand, however, the station itself does not create texts aimed specially at the users of social media. Moreover, as long as the official profile of the station refers to the lineup, rarely do the programs themselves

encourage the viewers to be active on the profiles accompanying the shows. Still, the most popular form of expressing one's engagement is clicking the "Like it" button under a given link.

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Relation between Communicative Tolerance and Intercultural Adaptation in International Students

Irina A. Novikova

Peoples' Friendship University of Russia

Novikova_ia@pfur.ru

Alexey L. Novikov

Peoples' Friendship University of Russia

Novikov_al@pfur.ru

Abstract

The paper presents the results of a study of the connection between the parameters of the communicative tolerance and the intercultural adaptation in the international students from a multinational university (Peoples' Friendship University of Russia). A total of 337 respondents took part in the research, including 182 young men and 155 young women from five parts of the world: Latin America, Asia (China), Arab countries, Africa, the countries of the Central Asian region. The level of the communicative tolerance was measured with the technique "General communicative tolerance" by V.V.Boyko. The Questionnaire of the adaptation of the person to the new socio-cultural environment (APSCE) by L.V.Yankovsky, in T.G.Stefanenko and M.S.Panov's modified version was used to define the features of the intercultural adaptation of the international students. The Kruskal–Wallis non-parametrical criteria, the Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), and the correlation analysis (Spearman Rank Correlations) were used for the statistical analysis. The study revealed that the rates of the communicative tolerance, as a whole, are positively related to the efficiency of the intercultural adaptation of the international students in Russia (especially for the students from Africa, Arab countries and Latin America).

Keywords: Intercultural Adaptation, Tolerance, Communicative Tolerance, International Students, Multinational University.

Introduction

In the twenty-first century the academic mobility of students is growing all over the world including Russian Federation. Russian education is becoming more and more attractive to international students, and every year the quantity of students, coming to study in the Russian universities increases (Chebotareva, 2011). But the majority of the foreign students faced with difficulties in adapting to a new culture that can influence on the training effectiveness. So the study of the intercultural adaptation problems in the international students is very relevant. The study of this problem has a special importance for a multinational university such as the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (PFUR).

In February 2015, the PFUR celebrates 55 years since its foundation. Today the PFUR is one of the leading state higher educational institutions in Russian Federation. It is the only university in the world every year uniting more than 29 thousand graduate and postgraduate students from 145-150 countries. They represent more than 450 nations and nationalities of the world (About PFUR, 2014). The mission of PFUR is to unite the people of different nationalities, races and religious beliefs with the help of knowledge, and also to educate the youth capable to work in any country of the world successfully and to show their creative abilities in the conditions of the interrelation of civilizations and the variety of the modern society (PFUR Mission, 2014).

The team at the PFUR Center for personality studies has conducted a number of basic and applied studies on ethnic characteristics and personality traits, cross-cultural communication and adaptation (Chebotareva, 2011, 2014; Chebotareva, Novikova, 2013; Kovalenko et al., 2009; Novikova, Novikov, 2014). These studies are mainly based on a System and Functional approach to analysis of personality and behavior, developed by Alexander Krupnov (Krupnov, Novikova, Kozhukhova, 2013). This approach provides the opportunity to explore not only separate aspects of some phenomenon, but whole systems, taking into account the hierarchy and interaction of their components. A number of psychodiagnostic and correctional programs have been developed in this way. The scientists of PFUR have also carried out a series of studies on problems of intercultural communication and adaptation of students from Asia, Africa, South America, the Middle East, and the former Soviet countries. In this research they have emphasized the role of such characteristics as gender, Russian language acquisition, ethnic identity, values, tolerance, emotional intelligence, hardiness, etc (Chebotareva, 2011; Kovalenko et al., 2009; Maslova, 2011; Novikov, Novikova, 2013; Novikov, Novikova, Shkvarilo, 2013; Novikova, 2011).

We suppose that one of the most important factors of intercultural adaptation is tolerance. The tolerance is considered from different points of view in the modern Western psychology: as the value of personality, as the attitude, and as a personality trait (Craig, Richeson, 2008; Davies, Steele, Markus, 2008; Foulkes, Foulkes, 1965; Ibadova, 2011). Russian psychologists are studying different kinds of tolerance, for example, ethnic, social, communicative, and others (Soldatova, Shaigerova, 2008).

Since 2007 we have been studying tolerance in the Russian and international PFUR students in the context of the intercultural communication and adaptation (Novikova, 2011; Novikova, Novikov, 2013). For example, we identified four types of tolerance among international students:

- "Real tolerant" students have higher indicators for all three types of tolerance and the most harmonious character of cross-cultural adaptation;
- "Ethnic tolerant" students have high levels of the ethnic and personality tolerance, but low social tolerance, and they do not have many problems with adapting to a new culture;
- "Tolerant in social communications" students have a high level of social tolerance, but are moderate in personality tolerance and low in ethnic tolerance, and they are not very satisfied with their adaptation in a foreign country, and they do not seek to be included in the new environment, but they do not have strong nostalgia, anxiety, or helplessness;
- "Intolerant" students have the lowest indicators for all three types of tolerance, and ambivalent indicators of intercultural adaptation: they are ready to interact with the new environment, but have strong feelings of anxiety, depression, emptiness, isolation, and helplessness (Novikova, Novikov, 2013).

In this paper we present a study of the communicative tolerance among the PFUR international students in correlation with the features of their intercultural adaptation.

Communicative tolerance is a characteristic of the personality attitude to the other people. It shows the degree of the tolerability to an unpleasant or inappropriate psychological states, qualities and actions of the interaction partners. According to V. Boyko overall communicative tolerance is due to life experiences, personality traits, the moral principles of human (Boyko, 1996).

The aims of our study is:

- 1) to compare the level of the communicative tolerance in PFUR international students from different regions of the world;
- 2) to reveal connection between the parameters of the communicative tolerance and intercultural adaptation in the PFUR international students from different regions of the world.

The basic hypothesis is that the communicative tolerance level positively related with the intercultural adaptation efficiency of the PFUR international students from different regions of the world.

Method

In our research the **communicative tolerance** level was measured by the technique "General communicative tolerance" by V.V.Boyko, which includes 9 scales:

- 1) Misunderstanding of the another person individuality;
- 2) Using himself as a standard for the assessing other persons' behavior and mentality;
- 3) Being conservative when evaluating other persons;
- 4) Being unable to hide unpleasant feelings when confronting non-sociable partners;
- 5) The intention to correct some of the partners' traits;
- 6) The intention to fit partner for himself, make it "convenient";
- 7) Being unable to forgive other persons' mistakes, their awkwardness or accidental troubles they cause;
- 8) Being intolerant to the physical or mental discomfort caused by other persons;
- 9) Being unable to accommodate to the other persons' nature, habits and desires.

High rates on each scale indicate a high intolerance in communication. The sum of all scales is The General index of the Communicative tolerance (intolerance).

The Questionnaire of adaptation of the person to the new socio-cultural environment (APSCE) by L.V.Yankovsky, in T.G.Stefanenko, M.S.Panov's modified version was used to define the features of the **intercultural adaptation** of the international students. This Questionnaire includes six scales:

- **the Contentment scale** reflects the degree of personal satisfaction, feelings of social and physical security, a sense of belonging to a new society and the level of activity in the new environment;
- **the Interactivity scale** reflects the degree of disposition to the expansion of social relations in the new society, focusing on the cooperation with the others and following the social norms;
- **the Conformity scale** reflects the degree of the orientation on social approval, depending on the group, the need for affection and emotional relationships with people;
- **the Depression scale** reflects the level of helplessness in the face of life difficulties, feelings of hopelessness, doubt, anxiety, depression, emptiness, isolation;
- **the Nostalgia scale** reflects the degree of internal disorder caused by the separateness of traditional values and norms, and a sense of dreamy, anguish, melancholy;
- **the Alienation scale** reflects the level of rejection of the new society, claims of inconsistency and real opportunities, feelings of loneliness, impatience, helplessness.

The first three scales (**contentment, interactivity, conformity**) correspond to rather "positive" intercultural adaptation indicators, and the last three scales (**depression, nostalgia, alienation**) indicate certain adaptation problems. But research showed that **nostalgia** is highly manifested in most international students and its level is positively related to the positive adaptation parameters (Chebotareva, 2011; Maslova, 2011; Novikova, 2011 etc).

The Kruskal–Wallis non-parametrical criteria and Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to define differences between the indicators of communicative tolerance in the subgroups of students from different regions. The relations between the parameters of the communicative tolerance and intercultural adaptation were revealed with the help of the Spearman Rank correlations.

A total of 337 respondents took part in the research, including 182 young men and 155 young women from five parts of the world: Latin America, Asia (China), Arab countries, Africa, the countries of the Central Asian region (former Soviet Republics). All the respondents were the first, second and third year students of the various PFUR departments.

Results

The results of technique "General communicative tolerance" are presented in the Table 1.

It was founded eight significant differences between the studied groups of students on the communicative intolerance parameters, including The General index.

Significant differences between students from different regions were discovered on the first scale "*Misunderstanding of the another person individuality*". Chinese students got relatively higher results on that scale, which means that they will show more intolerant attitude to individual manifestations of their partners (slowness or restlessness, originality or irregularity, etc.).

Significant differences between students from different regions were also discovered on the second scale "*Using himself as a standard for the assessing other persons' behavior and mentality*". Students from Central Asian Region got the lowest results, which means they will less likely react negatively in case if their partner is different from them (different intellectual level, being more or less initiative in communication, etc.)

Great differences between students from different regions were discovered on the fourth scale "*Being unable to hide himself unpleasant feelings when confronting non-sociable partners*". Chinese and Central Asian students got the lowest results, which means that they will likely hide their negative emotions; Latin American and Arabian students got higher results (they do not find hiding their true negative feelings toward their partners necessary).

Significant differences between students from different regions were also discovered on the fifth scale "*The intention to correct some of the partners' traits*". Central Asian students got the lowest results; they do not tend to make offending comments on someone's behavior in order to make said behavior better.

Significant differences between students from different regions were also discovered on the seventh scale "*Being unable to forgive other persons' mistakes, their awkwardness or accidental troubles they cause*". Central Asian students got the lowest results, they do not tend to feel offended and maintain that feeling for a long time, if the original offence has been accidental.

Significant differences between students from different regions were also discovered on the eighth and ninth scales "*Being intolerant to the physical or mental discomfort caused by other persons*" and "*Being unable to accommodate to the other persons' nature, habits and desires*" respectively. The differences are similar: Central Asian students got the lowest results (the lowest comparing to the other scales) which significantly differ, pairwise, from the results of the students from other regions. That means that Central Asian students are more attentive to their partners and adaptation to "difficult" partners is easier for them.

Significant differences between students from different regions were also discovered on **The General index** of communicative tolerance. The differences are similar to the aforementioned: Central Asian students have the lowest index (42,9) which differs, pairwise, from the total indexes of the other students (52,3 – 55,6).

Such a way, students from Central Asia, in most cases are characterized by higher rates of the communicative tolerance toward partner in the communication.

Table 2 represents the result of the correlation analysis between the Communicative Tolerance and Intercultural Adaptation indicators.

19 significant correlations between indicators of the communicative tolerance and intercultural adaptation are received in a subgroup of the African students. The majority of them are between tolerance (intolerance) indicators and **depression** and

alienation. The general sense of the given correlations consists that the African students who are less tolerant in the communications (more categorical, intolerant, not accepting the individuality of the partner, not able to forgive others, etc.) have more problems in the course of the adaptation, connected with negative emotional experiences, sensations of disconnection, forlornness, etc.

13 significant correlations between scales of used techniques are revealed in a subgroup of the Arabian students. Substantially given communications mean that, as well as in the previous group, the Arabian students who are less tolerant in the course of communications, have more problems in the course of the adaptation, connected with emotional experiences, sensations of disconnection, inability to come into contact to associates, etc. In whole, correlations between communicative problems (first of all, connected with "an extension from above" in the course of dialogue) and the difficulties in intercultural adaptation proves to be true in the given subgroup.

22 significant correlations between communicative tolerance and intercultural adaptation indicators are established in a subgroup of the Chinese students. Character of correlations between the first and third scales of the Communicative intolerance and the parameters of Intercultural adaptation corresponds to the trends obtained in other subgroups of students. It is possible to say that the Chinese students who are more categorical in estimations of others have more problems in the course of adaptation. However, on the fourth, sixth, ninth scale negative correlations are received both with **interactivity** and **conformity**, and with **depression** and **alienation**. The General indicator of the communicative tolerance negatively correlates as with **contentment**, **interactivity**, **conformity** and with **depression**.

14 significant correlations between scales of the given techniques are revealed in a subgroup of the Latin American students. The substantial sense of the given correlations consists that (as well as in a subgroup of the African and Arabian students) the Latin American students who are less tolerant in the course of communications, have more problems in the course of adaptation.

It is revealed only 1 significant correlation between scales of used techniques in a subgroup of students from Central Asia. It testifies to relative independence of indicators of communicative tolerance and adaptation in group of students of Central Asia.

Discussion

Most of the examined PFUR international students have average indicators of the communicative tolerance. Students from Central Asia, in most cases are characterized by higher rates of tolerance toward partner in the communication. This data are correspond to results obtained by another method (Novikova, 2011). Chinese students have more intolerant attitude to individual manifestations of their partners (slowness or restlessness, originality or irregularity, etc.), but they (like Central Asia students) will likely hide their negative emotions. Latin American and Arabian students are much more often do not hiding their true negative feelings toward their partners necessary.

The comparative analysis of correlations between indicators of the Communicative Tolerance and Intercultural Adaptation has shown that there is no communication which would repeat in all five subgroups of students, but positive relations between the intolerant communicative attitudes and **depression** and **alienation** are the most stable. It is possible to say that in most cases the international students with more tolerant communicative attitudes (aspiration to understand and accept individuality of another, tolerance to features of the partner, absence of desire it to re-educate, adjust to himself, etc.) have less problems in the course of intercultural adaptation.

There is more strongly pronounced specificity of communications in general and intercultural communications, in particular, in the Chinese student subgroup. That is the Chinese students who are less intolerant in the course of communications, as a whole, better adapt for a new environment, but more strongly endure depression, disconnection, more strongly miss the motherland. Thus, it is possible to tell that the communicative tolerance in Chinese students group, certainly, is connected with features of their intercultural adaptation. However, as process of communications in the Chinese culture has certain

features, character of the given correlations not always corresponds to the tendencies revealed in other subgroups of international students. It is possible to assume also that the part of the Chinese students prefers to adapt together with own ethnic group, and some of them choose "individual style of adaptation". Hence, in the course of working out of various communicative trainings for the Chinese students it is necessary to develop for them additional exercises, taking into account ethnopsychological specificity.

And it is necessary to disclose the factors more closely connected to intercultural adaptation parameters than communicative tolerance in the Central Asia student subgroup.

Conclusions

Summing up the results of the study, it can be concluded that:

- Most of the examined PFUR international students have average indicators of the communicative tolerance; students from Central Asia in most cases are characterized by higher rates of tolerance toward partner in the communication;
- The level of communicative tolerance, as a whole, is one of the positive factors of intercultural adaptation (especially for the students from Africa, the Arabian countries and Latin America);
- It is necessary to develop the programs of individual and group psychological and pedagogical work with the PFUR international students from the different regions, aimed at developing in them the tolerant attitudes to different cultures in general, to the Russian culture, in particular, towards accepting the variety of the world around, forming tolerant communicative attitudes on the basis of the received data.

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Footnotes

The publication of this paper is devoted to the 55th anniversary of People's Friendship University of Russia.

Tables

Table 1

Statistical evaluation of differences on indicators of the technique "General communicative tolerance" between the international students from the different regions

Regions	Count	Mean	Median	St.dev.	Min.	Max.	Range	Kruskal-Wallis Test	Analysis of Variance Df=4
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Misunderstanding of the another person individuality									
Africa	58	5,39	5,0	3,43	0,0	15,0	15,0	H = 20,06 P-Value =	F = 4,37 P-Value =
Arab.countries	77	5,89	6,0	3,05	0,0	12,0	12,0		
China	80	7,08	7,5	2,77	0,0	12,0	12,0		

Latin America	69	5,42	5,0	3,35	0,0	15,0	15,0	0,00048	0,0019
Central Asia	53	5,05	5,0	3,06	0,0	10,0	10,0		
Totals	337	5,86	6,0	3,19	0,0	15,0	15,0		
2. Using himself as a standard when assessing other persons' behavior and mentality									
Africa	58	5,93	6,0	3,36	0,0	15,0	15,0	H = 11,611 P-Value = 0,02049	F = 3,04 P-Value = 0,0175
Arab.countries	77	5,94	7,0	3,15	0,0	13,0	13,0		
China	80	6,18	6,0	2,39	0,0	11,0	11,0		
Latin America	69	6,07	6,0	3,44	0,0	15,0	15,0		
Central Asia	53	4,50	4,0	2,95	0,0	11,0	11,0		
Totals	337	5,80	6,0	3,09	0,0	15,0	15,0		
3. Being conservative when evaluating other persons									
Africa	58	6,22	6,0	3,45	0,0	15,0	15,0	H = 6,924 P-Value = 0,13995	F = 1,48 P-Value = 0,2082
Arab.countries	77	6,49	7,0	3,22	0,0	15,0	15,0		
China	80	6,90	7,0	2,45	0,0	10,0	10,0		
Latin America	69	6,72	7,0	3,06	0,0	15,0	15,0		
Central Asia	53	5,64	6,0	3,29	0,0	13,0	13,0		
Totals	337	6,45	7,0	3,08	0,0	15,0	15,0		
4. Being unable to hide one's unpleasant feelings when confronting non-social partners									
Africa	58	6,39	7,0	3,67	0,0	15,0	15,0	H = 20,903 P-Value = 0,00033	F = 3,86 P-Value = 0,0045
Arab.countries	77	7,05	7,0	4,88	0,0	14,0	14,0		
China	80	5,11	5,0	2,86	0,0	11,0	11,0		
Latin America	69	6,84	7,0	3,25	0,0	13,0	13,0		
Central Asia	53	5,13	5,0	2,82	0,0	12,0	12,0		
Totals	337	6,13	6,0	3,70	0,0	15,0	14,0		
5. The intention to correct some of the partners' traits									
Africa	58	5,94	7,0	3,50	0,0	14,0	14,0	H = 9,69939 P-Value = 0,04580	F = 2,53 P-Value = 0,0406
Arab.countries	77	5,85	6,0	3,03	0,0	12,0	12,0		
China	80	6,40	6,0	2,54	0,0	12,0	12,0		
Latin America	69	6,47	7,0	3,57	0,0	13,0	13,0		
Central Asia	53	4,83	5,0	3,42	0,0	15,0	15,0		
Totals	337	5,96	6,0	3,22	0,0	15,0	15,0		
6. The intention to fit partner for themselves, make it "convenient"									
Africa	58	5,98	7,0	3,56	0,0	15,0	15,0	H = 7,953	F = 1,31

Arab.countries	77	6,33	7,0	3,05	0,0	13,0	13,0	P-Value = 0,09330	P-Value = 0,2672
China	80	5,88	6,0	2,40	0,0	11,0	11,0		
Latin America	69	5,81	6,0	3,37	0,0	14,0	14,0		
Central Asia	53	5,03	5,0	2,89	0,0	12,0	12,0		
Totals	337	5,85	6,0	3,06	0,0	15,0	15,0		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. Being unable to forgive other persons' mistakes, their awkwardness or accidental troubles they cause									
Africa	58	5,37	5,0	3,02	0,0	12,0	12,0	H = 14,689 P-Value = 0,00539	F = 2,67 P-Value = 0,0321
Arab.countries	77	6,10	6,0	2,99	0,0	14,0	14,0		
China	80	6,17	7,0	2,48	0,0	11,0	11,0		
Latin America	69	6,24	7,0	3,10	0,0	12,0	12,0		
Central Asia	53	4,83	5,0	2,95	0,0	14,0	14,0		
Totals	337	5,82	6,0	2,93	0,0	14,0	14,0		
8. Being intolerant to physical or mental discomfort caused by other persons									
Africa	58	5,81	6,0	3,61	0,0	15,0	15,0	H = 20,649 P-Value = 0,00037	F = 4,79 P-Value = 0,0009
Arab.countries	77	5,49	6,0	3,29	0,0	11,0	11,0		
China	80	5,96	6,5	2,78	0,0	11,0	11,0		
Latin America	69	6,08	7,0	3,64	0,0	15,0	15,0		
Central Asia	53	3,83	4,0	2,50	0,0	12,0	12,0		
Totals	337	5,51	6,0	3,27	0,0	15,0	15,0		
9. Being unable to accommodate to the other persons' nature, habits and desires									
Africa	58	5,24	5,5	3,17	0,0	12,0	12,0	H = 11,007 P-Value = 0,02648	F = 2,86 P-Value = 0,0235
Arab.countries	77	5,50	5,0	3,22	0,0	13,0	13,0		
China	80	5,48	6,0	3,08	0,0	11,0	11,0		
Latin America	69	5,92	6,0	3,78	0,0	13,0	13,0		
Central Asia	53	4,03	4,0	2,59	0,0	9,0	9,0		
Totals	337	5,31	5,0	3,25	0,0	13,0	13,0		
General index of communicative tolerance (intolerance)									
Africa	58	52,31	58,0	24,93	0,0	105,0	105,0	H = 18,162 P-Value = 0,00114	F = 3,63 P-Value = 0,0065
Arab.countries	77	54,68	59,0	22,33	0,0	101,0	101,0		
China	80	55,20	58,5	17,01	0,0	79,0	79,0		
Latin America	69	55,60	61,0	22,58	0,0	102,0	102,0		
Central Asia	53	42,90	43,0	20,02	0,0	81,0	81,0		

Totals	337	52,73	58,0	21,69	0,0	105,0	105,0		
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Table 2

Correlation coefficients between the indicators of the Communicative Tolerance and Intercultural Adaptation for the international students from the different regions

Scale Com. Tolerance	Intercultural adaptation					
	Contentment	Interactivity	Conformity	Depression	Nostalgia	Alienation
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Students from Africa (n=58)						
1	-0,32**	-0,26*	-0,23	0,28*	-0,07	0,29*
2	-0,16	-0,24	-0,32**	0,33**	-0,28*	0,23*
3	-0,17	-0,15	-0,30*	0,31*	-0,24	0,25*
4	-0,08	-0,13	-0,20	0,38**	-0,12	0,27*
5	0,10	0,06	-0,11	0,20	-0,10	0,06
6	-0,00	-0,07	-0,11	0,30*	-0,16	0,17
7	-0,00	0,03	-0,02	0,20	0,05	0,13
8	-0,27*	-0,11	-0,18	0,33**	-0,25*	0,08
9	0,11	-0,05	-0,11	0,04	-0,07	0,07
Gen.Index	-0,08	-0,14	-0,25*	0,41***	-0,24	0,25
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Students from the Arabian countries (n=77)						
1	0,06	-0,07	-0,07	0,28**	0,13	0,37***
2	0,08	-0,03	-0,00	-0,01	0,07	0,03
3	0,12	0,04	0,00	0,28**	0,24*	0,19
4	0,01	0,01	-0,03	0,26*	0,10	0,33**
5	-0,00	-0,03	0,03	0,13	0,04	0,13
6	0,06	0,10	0,04	0,31**	0,08	0,18
7	-0,00	0,02	0,02	0,15	0,02	0,32**
8	-0,03	-0,07	-0,12	0,32**	0,10	0,36***
9	0,00	0,00	0,07	0,37***	0,16	0,12

Gen.Index	0,08	-0,00	-0,01	0,23*	0,11	0,25*
Students from Latin America (n=69)						
1	0,07	0,01	0,24*	0,19	-0,04	0,06
2	0,03	-0,00	0,05	0,27*	-0,09	0,09
3	-0,08	-0,00	0,18	0,20	0,11	0,16
4	0,05	0,09	0,11	0,10	-0,03	0,07
5	0,05	0,14	-0,00	0,47***	-0,11	0,24*
6	-0,05	-0,01	-0,08	0,38**	-0,10	0,27*
7	0,02	0,22	-0,11	0,27*	-0,05	0,31**
8	-0,03	0,21	-0,20	0,27*	-0,18	0,36**
9	0,10	0,11	-0,02	0,27*	-0,11	0,25*
Gen.Index	-0,02	0,05	-0,05	0,35**	-0,16	0,29*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Students from Asia (China) (n=80)						
1	-0,35***	0,03	-0,14	0,26*	-0,05	0,43***
2	-0,03	-0,05	0,05	-0,20	-0,11	-0,21
3	0,019	0,21	0,13	0,26*	0,01	0,29**
4	-0,09	-0,30**	-0,23*	-0,42***	0,00	-0,33**
5	-0,24*	-0,13	-0,09	-0,20	0,14	-0,10
6	-0,11	-0,34**	-0,25*	-0,45***	-0,08	-0,44***
7	-0,09	0,01	0,09	-0,00	-0,00	0,07
8	-0,23*	-0,16	-0,12	0,02	0,07	0,14
9	-0,18	-0,42***	-0,29**	-0,38***	0,03	-0,21
Gen.Index	-0,31**	-0,32**	-0,26*	-0,27*	0,04	-0,06
Students from the Central Asian region (n=53)						
1	0,03	0,09	0,17	0,17	0,28*	0,10
2	0,06	0,05	0,05	0,10	0,18	0,06
3	0,14	0,04	0,12	0,07	0,11	0,04
4	0,08	0,09	0,05	-0,02	0,03	0,01
5	0,07	0,01	0,05	0,14	0,16	-0,10
6	0,07	-0,05	-0,00	0,20	0,09	0,14
7	-0,13	-0,14	-0,03	0,14	0,25	0,01
8	0,11	0,05	-0,05	0,08	-0,21	0,09

9	0,06	-0,14	0,01	0,14	0,09	0,09
Gen.Index	0,05	-0,01	0,06	0,13	0,16	0,04

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Business Ethics Perceptions in the Czech Republic during Global Economic Crisis

Martina Šípková, Ing., MBA, Ph.D.

KDI School of Public Policy, Sejong, South Korea

Metropolitan University Prague, Czech Republic

University of Economics, Prague, Czech Republic

martina.Sipkova@mup.cz

Tae-Hee, Choi, Ph.D.

KDI School of Public Policy and Management, Sejong, South Korea

tchoi@kdis.ac.kr

Abstract

Based on a questionnaire survey, this study investigates business ethics (BE) in the Czech Republic as perceived by employees of Czech private and public organizations. Four main aspects of Czech BE are covered: 1) the management of BE in Czech organizations, 2) Czech managers' opinion of BE practices in their industries, 3) managers' previous experience of ethical conflicts, and 4) the factors influencing (un)ethical decisions. According to the results, while most organizations are making effort to enhance BE, large companies are more active in promoting BE when compared with small and medium size enterprises. The most common BE tools are corporate philosophy, code of ethics, and contribution to social/cultural activity. Personal code of ethics is the strongest driver of ethical decisions, and financial needs and lack of company policy are the strongest factors in making unethical decisions. Slightly over a half of respondents have some experience with ethical conflicts, majority of which are related to honesty in internal communication, offering bribes, and honesty in executing contracts and agreements. Unethical practices seem widespread, with bribing, unfair competitive and pricing practices, and contract violation perceived as the most serious issues. Our study also tentatively suggests that BE is increasingly beginning to be seen as an issue internal to the organization.

Keywords: business ethics, Czech Republic, transitional economies, managers' perceptions

JEL Classification: F2, M5, Z1

1 Introduction

This paper focuses on the investigation of business ethics (BE) practices in the Czech Republic (CR)¹, which is a middle-size Central European country that belongs among new members of the European Union (EU)². CR is an open economy highly dependent on export, and, due to its geographical position in the center of Europe along with its well-educated workforce, it is a popular site for foreign companies to locate their regional representations in. Thus, despite its relatively small economic size, the country has now become an important business crossroads for many European and global companies.

Since the reinstatement of the market economy in 1989, Czech companies as well as government officials have gradually realized that BE is an important factor influencing the overall quality and international attractiveness of local business environment. The entry in the EU brought the need to harmonize Czech standards and legislature with those of the EU and also highlighted the importance of anti-corruption measures, corporate social responsibility (CSR) and BE. Unfortunately, post-communist countries do not enjoy favourable reputation in relation to local ethical standards, and

corruption and BE have become important consideration for foreign companies envisaging to bring their business to Central Europe or the CR. As Čanik and Čaniková (2006) document, among the EU economies, the Czech Republic is generally perceived as less ethical than old-member states (e.g. France, Germany, etc.), but more ethical than other newly accessed countries (e. g. Poland or Hungary).

Combined with increasing international competition, the fact that foreign companies often express their fear of the existence of unethical practices only serves to emphasize that the Czech Republic should be careful not to lose any potential investors or business partners because of their fear of low level of ethical standards. Although some Czech managers still tend to think that, especially in short-term, unethical conduct gives competitors an advantage over other companies (Trnková, 2004), they are becoming increasingly aware that in the long run, ethical attitudes bring companies more benefits than costs. This attitude is becoming more common and the number of initiatives and organization dedicated to BE enhancement has recently been growing.

Inspired by the growing significance of BE in the Czech Republic and lack of up-to-date studies on the subject, this paper investigates BE in the Czech Republic as perceived by managers from private and public organizations located in the CR. This study focuses on managers' perceptions of BE in four main areas: 1) the management of BE in Czech organizations, 2) Czech managers' opinion of BE practices in their industries, 3) managers' experience of ethical conflicts, and 4) the factors influencing (un)ethical decisions. The research is based on a questionnaire survey conducted on the sample of 60 Czech companies evenly distributed among various industry groups and company sizes.

We find that majority of organizations are aware of BE issues and are making effort to enhance BE, most commonly by the use of corporate philosophy, code of ethics, and contribution to social/cultural activity. Our results suggest prevailing discrepancy between small and medium companies (SMEs) and large companies, which are on average more active in promoting BE than SMEs. In making *ethical* decisions, Czech managers are most strongly influenced by their personal code of behaviour and company policy. Personal financial needs and lack of company policy are viewed as the strongest factors for making *unethical* decisions. Slightly over a half of survey participants have experienced an ethical conflict in their career, most often related to honesty in internal communication, offering bribes, and firings and layoffs. The results further suggest the existence of a gap between theory and practice, as the answers to situational questions reveal that in reality respondents' personal ethical standards are not as influential as they report. Unethical practices seem widespread, with bribing, unfair competitive practices, price discrimination and unfair pricing practices, and breaking or violating contracts seen as the most serious issues. Our study also tentatively suggests changing understanding of BE, which is beginning to be seen as organizations' internal issue.

Our study contributes to the BE field in several respects. Its findings can be used by any organizations, institutions or initiatives having the promotion and enhancement of BE as their goal³. More detailed knowledge of how BE is perceived by local managers is an important factor, which can help them target their effort and increase the effectiveness of their BE related activities. Second, reliable information regarding Czech BE significantly facilitates the entry of foreign companies and investors in local market, as they can get a more accurate perspective of local business environment⁴. This can, in turn, help improve international competitiveness of the Czech Republic through increased trust and improved international reputation. Furthermore, this study also brings valuable information to Czech business managers, because it gives them a chance to verify their own views of Czech BE. In this respect, our study is especially important as Czech managers often report lack of information regarding BE in the CR. Finally, our study can also serve as teaching material for educators, who often rely on materials from other countries, as BE is still a very new subject at Czech universities.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows. The following section (Section II) briefly discusses the development of the CR since the Velvet Revolution in 1989 until present, and shortly summarizes existing studies related to Czech BE. Section III provides overview of the methodology and sample descriptive statistics. The analysis and the results are provided in Section IV. The paper is concluded in Section V.

II Evolution of BE in CR since in Post-communist Era and Prior Studies

BE in the Czech Republic is a relatively new topic for scholars as well as researchers. Until the Velvet Revolution in 1989, Czechoslovakia⁵ was a communist country with a command economy system, which meant that BE virtually did not exist (for broader discussion on the challenges that Czech modern history and transitional process brought in the field of BE see Bohata, 1997; Cordeiro, 2003; Barclay and Smith, 2003; or Brown et al. , 2003). During the transition period following 1989, market system and market principles were gradually re-introduced. The whole process was accompanied by necessary systemic changes, which happened relatively quickly over a short period of time.

Since 1989, the Czech Republic has gone through several stages of BE development. With some delay, the evolution of BE roughly copied the phases of Czech economic transition, and was also strongly influenced by the accession process in the EU. Major attributes of the **first phase** (1989 - mid-1990s) were fast pace of changes, underdeveloped legal system and turbulent business environment. As most business organizations were mainly concerned with economic survival, they displayed very low or no interest in BE.

In mid-1990s, CR entered so-called **know-why** stage (Trnkova, 2004) and BE started receiving more attention. Czech business environment gradually stabilized and reached sufficient level of maturity to create room for businesses to focus on issues not directly related to short-term economic goals. Also alerted by corruption scandals involving important persons of public life, companies began to realize the importance of ethical standards and trustworthy behaviour in business relationships. However, due to the lack of deeper and systematic understanding of BE (as well as CSR), local firms still needed to learn to understand the benefits of ethical conduct and find motivation for its systematic development. It is at this stage that the first studies trying to map corruption and BE situation in the CR appeared. Among the most important authors, we can mention Bohata (1997), Putnova (1999, 2000, 2001, 2007), and Nemcova (2001). The effort of scholars was also accompanied by the attempts of international organizations such as Transparency International (TI) to map local situation concerning CSR and BE (e. g. Průzkum aplikace etických kodexů, TI, 2006). As BE was reintroduced as a subject to schools, more theoretically oriented literature as well as specialized studies appeared (Friedel, 2003; Cooper and Dofman, 2003).

At the beginning of the new millennium, the country reached current, **know-how** stage. By now, most Czech organization have accepted the need to institutionalize BE and incorporate BE and CSR activities in their strategy, however, as Travnickova (2005) suggests, there is still serious lack of knowledge of specific tools and procedures. According to Čaník and Čaniková (2006), Czech managers believe that there is still not enough information or literature on BE and BE issues are seriously neglected by media and the press. Managers would especially welcome more specific information concerning the implementation of various BE instruments, more positive examples, or databases containing the experience and best practices of other companies. BE and CRS studies conducted in the CR (Trnkova, 2004) also suggest that companies with foreign participation or local branches of multi-national companies display higher awareness and more sophisticated approach in relation to BE⁶, a trend, which has also been observed among large companies. Previous studies also suggest existing BE gap between Czech SMEs and large companies. While majority of large companies started developing and implementing specific BE instruments (know-how stage), most SMEs are still in the phase of know-why. Nevertheless, despite reported lower awareness and knowledge of BE or CSR concepts among small companies (Trnkova, 2004; Čaník and Čaniková, 2006; Travnickova, 2005), many SMEs actually successfully practice BE or CSR principles intuitively.

Previous studies have also provided some information regarding some BE perceptions prevailing in Czech business sector. It is alarming that a large number of managers does not see ethical behaviour as beneficial for the company (e. g. Travnickova, 2005) and that a certain level of unethical (rather than ethical!) conduct is considered to be the standard. Furthermore, especially in the short-run, unethical conduct is often seen as a competitive advantage. Another largely held opinion is that companies can start paying more attention to BE issues only after they have reached economic stability, or that more sophisticated approach to BE and CSR topics is only needed in large companies (Čaník and Čaniková, 2006)⁷. Travnickova (2005) also reports the existence of a large discrepancy between private and public sector, the latter being

regarded as more unethical. Despite that, CSR or BE studies cited here also suggest that BE is growing in importance, BE practices are growing in sophistication and overall business environment seems to be becoming more ethical.

Existing studies also suggest another important feature of Czech business environment is the application of so-called double standards (Travnickova, 2005; Čaník and Čaníková, 2006). Czech managers tend to distinguish two types of unethical behaviour – unethical practices which directly harm their own organization and should be severely punished (“bad ones”), and unethical practices benefiting their own organization (“good ones”). The latter are regarded as overall less harmful, not necessarily requiring punishment. Furthermore, if unethical behaviour in an organization is discovered, it is usually seen as a problem of character or individuals, rather than a problem of the whole organization. Consequently, in many cases Czech managers refuse their organization’s responsibility for unethical conduct displayed by their employees (Čaník and Čaníková, 2006).

Finally, generally high level of scepticism regarding government intervention or any institutions promoting BE should also be mentioned. Implied by the experience from the previous regime, Czech managers regard these activities as inherently ineffective (Travnickova, 2005). This attitude is also related to the widely held opinion that if exemplary ethical behaviour and CSR activities of companies are publicly announced or discussed, in the eyes of the public such activities are reduced to PR instruments through which the organization is trying to boost its economic performance.

III Methodology, Data and Sample Description

This study is based on a fully anonymous questionnaire survey using a modified version of a questionnaire employed by Choi, Nakano (2008)⁸. The modifications include the change of monetary unit for CZK (Czech Crown) and adjustment of the financial amounts to better reflect purchase power in the CR. Companies participating in the survey were identified by snowballing and the questionnaire was self-administered and submitted to the researchers via e-mail. Data was collected in August 2010.

Descriptive statistics of the sample are provided in Table 1. Respondents’ organizations cover various industries, levels of management, and company sizes. Company size classification is based on the classification used in the EU⁹. As the table documents, 38% of the sample are large size enterprises¹⁰. Where company size may bear significant influence on the interpretation of the results, a separate analysis is provided for SMEs and large companies. As the sample mainly consists of non-manufacturing industry organizations (86%), the conclusions from this survey should be interpreted with caution and extended to manufacturing companies only with great care.

In relation to the sample description, it is also interesting to mention a high proportion of respondents without religion. It has been previously noted as a sociological phenomenon that the Czech Republic is the most secular country in Europe, even when compared with other culturally close Central European¹¹ or ex-communist countries. This fact bears importance on the survey, as the values of non-religious respondents are unlikely to be strongly influenced by any belief or religion¹².

IV Results

This section reports major findings of the study. Based on different aspects of BE investigated in our survey, we divide the results into six groups: those concerning unethical industry practices, management of ethical values in respondents’ organizations, responsibility to various social groups and respondents’ experience of ethical conflicts, factors influencing (un)ethical decision making, comparison of current ethical standards with the situation ten years before, and the results related to hypothetical situations. More detailed information follows.

IV. 1 Unethical Practices in Respondent's Industry

We first focus on respondents' opinions of general BE practices in their industry. Table 2 documents unethical practices are still widespread, as 78% of respondents report the existence of unethical practices in their industries and only 15% think there are none. On checking for company size, we found that SMEs report the existence of unethical practices more often (84% of SMEs respondents answer "Yes, a few" or "Yes, many") than large companies (68% for both answers combined). The explanation may be that SMEs are more open to the external environment, making all of their employees more likely to be exposed to the situations where they can encounter or observe the existence of unethical practices. More detailed analysis also reveals that the tendency to report the existence of unethical practices does not appear to be related to the management position, as the results are very consistent for all managerial groups.

Table 3 reports that among existing unethical practices, respondents would most wish to eliminate "Giving of gifts, gratuities, and bribes", "Price discrimination and unfair pricing", "Dishonesty in making or keeping a contract", and "Miscellaneous unfair competitive practices". The list is topped by unethical practices directly related to business relationships with business partners and business contracts while practices related to respondents' organizations' internal issues (e. g. unfairness to employees or dishonest advertising) are considered as less important. This complies with the notion reported in prior studies that Czech managers mostly see BE issues as those arising from direct contact and everyday dealings with their business partners, neglecting other dimensions of BE. In situations where large companies can exercise stronger power implied by their economic size, SMEs and large companies' responses differ. For example, "Miscellaneous unfair competitive practices" are viewed as a more serious problem by the respondents from SMEs (47%), rather than large companies (33%). Similarly, "Price discrimination and unfair pricing" is also reported more often by SMEs respondents (50% vs. 40% for large companies).

IV. 2 Management of Ethical Values in Respondents' Organizations

With regards to the effort respondent's organization is making to enhance ethical values (Table 4), it is alarming to see that one fourth of respondents said their company is not making any effort at all and another 14% answered "Yes, but very little" (when combined, 38% of the answers). In contrast, only 14% think their organization is making effort to promote ethical values "eagerly".

As for the differences between SMEs and large companies, as expected, big companies' approach appears more active. According to the results, 77% of respondents from large companies answered 'Yes, eagerly' or "Yes, to some extent", while in SMEs the combined percentage is only 51%. The explanation behind this results seems to be the generally held opinion that SMEs have "other things to worry about" than BE or CSR issues (Travnickova, 2005; Čanik and Čaniková, 2006). Furthermore, large companies are often linked to foreign (Western) companies or investors who bring more sophisticated attitudes to BE from their own country. However, it is also important to point out that in many cases, small companies practice BE attitudes intuitively without institutionalizing them, and the effort on the part of such companies may not be recognized as the effort towards BE enhancement (Čanik and Čaniková, 2006).

The analysis also focused whether the way the respondents assess organization's BE effort is related to managerial position. When the answers "Yes, eagerly" and "Yes, to some extent" were added up, no significant differences were found for the groups of middle management (upper or lower) and non-management personnel. However, it was interesting to see that the responses of the group of top managers differ. Contrastingly to the rest of the sample, top managers tend to view their organizations effort as insufficient. Only 46% of them have answered "Yes, eagerly" or "Yes, to some extent", while 31% of top-management think the effort made is 'very little'. This may be caused by the fact that top managers are likely to be better informed of BE or CSR instruments and are in better position to see their organization's activities in larger context. Being aware of all possible ways to enhance BE, top managers may qualify the organization's effort as insufficient although from the viewpoint of lower managerial level the effort may seem enough. The answer may also reflect the fact that top managers are the main decision makers, who, fully aware of BE and CSR importance, may feel frustrated by insufficient

resources they have at the disposal for BE and CSR enhancement¹³. This would be supported by the results of previous studies documenting that a number of managers show active interest in BE and CSR, but state they currently lack the resources for the development of BE and CSR in their organization (Čanik and Čaniková, 2006).

As far as the instruments used to enhance BE are concerned (Table 5 Panel A), overwhelming majority of companies rely on *corporate philosophy including ethics* (86% of respondents who answered the question), followed by the use of the *code of ethics* as distant second (46%), *contribution to social/cultural activity* (43%), *punishment for unethical conduct* (34%), and *employee training in ethics* (27%). According Table 5 Panel B, on average, companies use three different business ethics enhancement instruments. Differences between SMEs and large companies are also confirmed again. While the average number of different ethical instruments used by large companies is 3.9, for small companies it is only 2.4. It is also noteworthy that only 6% of big companies reported the use of *social auditing*, which is in contrast with the finding of Čanik and Čaniková (2006), who report that social auditing along with the use of code of ethics are BE tools receiving most attention.

On sorting the answers according to the management position for SMEs and large companies separately, interesting results were obtained (Table 5 Panel B). While for large companies the average number of ethical enhancement tools reported by the respondents decreases with the managerial level (with the exception of "other"), for SMEs the same number increases with management level (with the exception of "other"). This discrepancy points at the fact that lower level employees may be less accurately informed of BE tools in use by their company or the possibility of insufficient BE trainings. However, a large sample size and deeper analysis is needed to shed more light on this issue.

IV. 3 Responsibility to Various Social Groups and Respondents' Experience of Ethical Conflicts

Among various social groups, respondents think company is most responsible to *customers*, followed by *employees* as distant second, and *stockholders, suppliers* and *society in general* (Table 6). It is not surprising to see that respondents do not feel strongly responsible to government, which can be explained by a high level of scepticism of population towards institutions or public sector as reported in the CR (Travnickova, 2005). We contend that the lower level of responsibility to local community may be implied by communist history.

Slightly more than a half of respondents have experienced ethical conflicts in their career (Table 7), with some difference between SMEs and large companies – while 43% of respondents from large companies have experienced ethical conflict, in SMEs it was over 55%. Respondents have most commonly experienced conflicts related to "*honestly in internal communication*", "*gifts, entertainment, and kickbacks*", and "*firings and layoffs*" along with "*honestly in executing contracts and agreements*", closely followed by "*fairness and discrimination*" and "*honesty in external communication*" (Table 8). Ethical conflicts respondents have experienced usually involve suppliers, employees, customers, colleagues, and competitors (Table 9). The finding that the most common type of ethical conflict is honesty in internal communication and the finding that employees and colleagues belong among the four most common social groups involved in the ethical conflicts respondents have experienced suggest that the perceptions of BE in the CR are changing and BE is beginning to be understood as an internal issue.

Respondents were further asked whether they reported the unethical practices they have experienced and if not, why. According to Table 10, in 74% of cases unethical practices went unreported. While 24% of managers gave as a reason that "*even if reported, it would be difficult to correct the unethical practice*", 21% stated "*it was difficult to decide whether the practices were ethical or not*" (Table 11). As for the large amount of answers in the category of "*other*" (reasons), majority of them fell in two groups. The first can be summarized as saying they have never experienced an ethical conflict, so there was no reason to report it. The second one is related to managerial positions – top-management respondents said they had no superior to report to or had sufficient authority to solve the situation without superior's intervention.

IV. 4 Factors Influencing (Un)ethical Decision Making

The survey also examined the factors influencing (un)ethical decision making. In making **ethical** decisions (Table 12), "One's personal code of behaviour" was reported as the strongest factor, followed by "company policy", "the behaviour of one's superiors", and "the behaviour of one's equals in the company". "Ethical climate of the industry" was considered as the least influential factor. These findings are in contradiction to previous studies repeatedly suggesting important role (or even key role) of leadership by example in Czech organizations (e. g. Travnickova, 2005). To understand this discrepancy better, we tried to see whether the company size or managerial position had any influence on the distribution of the answers. When the responses were arranged according to the management position, mixed results were obtained. Despite that, it was possible to observe increasing importance of ethical climate of the industry with increasing position in the company hierarchy. One possible explanation might be that the more responsibility managers have, the more external factors they need to consider in making their decisions, including overall ethical climate of the industry.

As for the issue raised earlier (weak influence of the behaviour of superiors or colleagues), we can only note that the importance of superiors for respondents in making ethical choices rose with decreasing management level (unpublished)¹⁴. This may be explained by the fact that with lower position, an employee has less power and authority and thus may tend to turn to superiors as opinion leaders more often.

In addition, two interesting findings should be mentioned. First, the results suggest that ethical climate of the industry plays more important role in ethical decision-making of SMEs (median rank 4.0) than in big companies (4.5)¹⁵. The reason may be that small companies are more open and more exposed to the outside environment and thus need to consider its current state more carefully than big companies. The second interesting finding is that in big companies, respondents reported stronger reliance on one's personal code of behaviour than in SMEs. It is left to future research to provide more insight into this finding.

As for making **unethical** decisions, personal financial needs were reported as the most significant factor, followed by company policy or lack thereof, and the behaviour of one's superiors (Table 13). Financial needs reported as the main reason for unethical conduct are well in line with previous literature documenting the tendency of the Czech to see unethical conduct more as a problem of individuals, rather than companies (e. g. Putnova, 2000; Čaník and Čaníková, 2006). The lack of company policy as an important unethical conduct factor may be related to the legislature and general policy vacuum (in public as well as private sector) that existed in Czech economy during the transformation process and the fact that BE and CSR concepts are still new for Czech businessmen. Although social demand for more clear guidelines existed, they were not provided or systematically executed, so this answer may also show lingering frustration of the inexistence of clear ethical rules to follow. Similarly to the previous question, the behaviour of colleagues or superiors does not belong among the most influential factors, although its importance increases with decreasing management level.

IV. 5 Hypothetical Situations

Finally, the respondents were presented with four types of hypothetical situations. In each case, they were asked what they would do in a given situational context and what they think an average businessman/executive (AE) would do. The responses are summarized in Table 14.

Situation 1

In Situation 1 **respondents** were asked what **they** thought about an executive padding his expense account. As the table documents, 68% of respondents think this behaviour is "*unacceptable regardless of circumstances*". In contrast, 27% of respondents think it is "*acceptable, if the executive's superior knows about it and says nothing*". These answers indicate the respondents are willing to follow the attitude displayed by the superior's behaviour. This corresponds to the findings concerning the factors influencing (un)ethical behaviour, where superiors were not considered the major factor, and at the

same time were reported to be more influential factor that the behaviour of one's colleagues (the option "acceptable, if other executives in the company do the same thing" was only chosen by 5% of respondents).

The answers regarding what an **average manager** would think differed. Most respondents said that an average manager would think the behaviour is "acceptable, if the executive's superior knows about it and says nothing" (40%), followed by "acceptable, if other executives in the company do the same thing" (32%) and then "unacceptable, regardless of circumstances" (28%). This shows that Czech managers tend to regard themselves more ethical than the average. The findings related to Situation 1 also finally shed some light on the discrepancy identified in Table 12. Corroborating the findings from Table 12, the answers to Situation 1 suggest that the notion that "leadership by example" works and that it is a very significant factor influencing the conduct of Czech managers, is the respondents' opinion of the common situation in the industry (average manager). However, when managers are asked to provide answers concerning their own behaviour and motivation, their responses reveal that this factor is significantly weakened and that their own behaviour is more strongly influenced by personal code of ethics or company policy (Table 14). Alternative explanation is that the answers may also be influenced by social desirability.

Situation 2

Situation 2 concerns managers' willingness to hire an employee to obtain technological secret which would improve the position of their organization vis-a-vis major competitors in the same industry. As Table 14 shows, while 80% of respondents would probably hire the employee, 20% probably would not. As for the opinions of an average manager, the ratio is as high as 97% of opinions stating that average manager would do so and mere 3% stating he probably would not hire the employee. These findings confirm that respondents view themselves more ethical than the average, or, alternatively, they view the average less ethical than themselves. These findings may also partially reflect the "double standards" repeatedly reported by prior studies (Travnickova, 2005; Čanik and Čaniková, 2006) referring to the fact that Czech managers tend to make distinction between unethical behaviour that brings benefits to their organization ("good unethical conduct"; often belittled in importance and not requiring strong punishment) and unethical behaviour that directly harms it ("bad unethical behaviour"; should be punished and persecuted).

Situation 3

In Situation 3, respondents were asked what they would do if the minister of a foreign nation offered them help in obtaining a contract in exchange for a 'special consulting fee'. When answering for themselves, 38% of respondents said they would "refuse to pay, even if sale is lost", while more than a half said they would "pay the fee, feeling it was unethical but necessary to help insure the sale" and 9% would "pay the fee, feeling it was ethical in the moral climate of the foreign nation".

These answers reveal that this kind of situation would expose 54% of respondents to an ethical dilemma, which they would finally solve by suppressing their personal ethics in favour of the interests of their organization. This is contradictory to the answers in Tables 12 and Table 13 where ethical climate of the industry was regarded among the least influential factors in respondents making (un)ethical decisions.

When talking about an average executive (AE), strikingly few (5%) respondents stated that AE would "refuse to pay, even if sale is lost" (For comparison, when talking about themselves, 38% of respondents said they would do so). Another 61% think that AE would "pay the fee, feeling it was unethical but necessary to help insure the sale" and the remaining 33% said he would "pay the fee, feeling it was ethical in the moral climate of the foreign nation". These results again suggest respondents view themselves as more ethical than they view average managers.

Situation 4

Finally, in Situation 4 respondents were asked what they would do if they were a sales manager and found out that their salespeople are giving money to purchasing agents to obtain more sales. While 15% of respondents reported they would “issue an order stopping future payments and reduce salespeople’s pay in the amount equal to their commissions on the sales gained as a result of future payments”, 59% would “issue an order stopping future payments, but do not reduce sales people’s pay”, and 25% would “say and do nothing”. These responses suggest that unethical behaviour favouring the respondents’ organization would be largely tolerated, in the sense that even if managers tried to stop it, they would not punish it (59%), or no attempt to correct this unethical practice would be made (25%). Again, we can see the manifestation of “double standards” as mentioned above.

When asked about an average sales manager, 70% of respondents think average sales manager would “say and do nothing”, 23% that he would “issue an order stopping future payments, but do not reduce sales people’s pay”, and only 7% are of the opinion he would “issue an order stopping future payments and reduce salespeople’s pay in the amount equal to their commissions on the sales gained as a result of future payments”. These answers again confirm the general scepticism of average managers and better view respondents hold of themselves when compared with an average manager. The gap is especially obvious when respondents talk about saying and doing nothing – while 25% of respondents ticked this answer when talking about themselves, 70% of respondents think this is what an average manager would do.

To summarize, the situational questions reveal a difference between theoretically stated ethical principles and preferences as summarized in the previous parts of this section, and behaviour when faced with real situation. This points towards the need for more practically oriented trainings, rather than theoretical explanations or materials, which may be understood as moralizing. Furthermore, the answers to hypothetical situation demonstrate different perceptions of one’s own ethical standards and those of average managers, who are viewed as much less ethical.

V Conclusion

Through a questionnaire survey, this study investigated the views of BE held by Czech managers and non-managerial personnel of private and public organizations in the CR. Four BE areas, namely, the management of BE within the respondents organizations, respondents opinions of BE practices in their industries, their experience of ethical conflicts, and the factors influencing un(ethical) decisions were examined. In addition, survey participants were also presented with four different hypothetical situations, and they were asked what they would do and what an average manager/executive would do in such situations.

The results show that 61% of organizations are making more than “very little” effort to build ethical values in their organizations. The most common ethical enhancement instruments are corporate philosophy, code of ethics, contribution to social/cultural activity, and punishment for unethical conduct. When compared with SMEs, large companies make more active effort and on average use a larger variety of different BE instruments than SMEs. Managers feel most responsible to customers, employees and stockholders, while the responsibility towards government or society is rather weak.

Unethical practices are seen to be widespread - 78% of respondent report the existence of unethical practices in their industries. Bribing, unfair competitive practices, breaking or violating contracts and unfair pricing practices are perceived as the most serious issues. Slightly over a half of survey participants have experienced an ethical conflict in their career, most often related to honesty in internal communication, offering bribes, and firings and layoffs. The fact that honesty in internal communication is the most often cited cause of ethical conflicts may suggest changing understanding of BE, which is beginning to be seen as an internal issue. However, more studies are needed to verify this notion.

While one’s personal code of behaviour followed by company policy were reported as the most influential factors in making ethical decisions, personal financial needs and lack of company policy are viewed as the strongest factors for unethical decisions. In both cases, ethical climate of the industry was perceived as a relatively weak factor; however, the answers

to other questions reveal a discrepancy between theory and practice and indicate that respondents own ethical standards are not in reality as influential as respondents would wish. Our findings also indicate that respondents' answers are biased by social desirability.

Providing more detailed view, situational questions largely support the above findings. However, as mentioned above, they also reveal a difference between theoretical answers and respondents' behaviour when facing real situations.

The results of our study should be interpreted with caution. First, we acknowledge the limits of our study caused by the fact that the group of manufacturing industry and the group of large companies are slightly underrepresented, and the sample is relatively small. Despite that, we think that the findings point at some important trends and have enough validity to be taken into account. Furthermore, as repeatedly pointed out in the paper, respondents' answers may be influenced by various sorts of bias. In particular, social desirability seems to play a role, and it was also possible to observe that with increasing management position respondents were more reluctant to provide any answer which might make them appear as unethical. Moreover, when reading the results it is important bear in mind that generational difference plays a more important role in Czech as well as other ex-communist countries than the rest of Europe. It is so because the respondents from the age group of 40 and higher have spent most of their lifetime under a non-democratic regime suppressing their opinion, but at the same time simplifying many decisions due to the limited freedom of choice. As with any other surveys, we must not forget that self-selection also plays a role in our survey. It is likely that organization that do not consider BE issues important will be less willing to return a completed survey. The results will be thus more optimistically biased in the sense that they come from organizations (individuals) with at least certain amount of awareness of BE. Finally, it is also possible that answers to some questions are biased by the prevailing impact of the recent economic crisis, as sluggish or declining economy tends to worsen the view of business environment.

Our study contributes to our understanding of BE in the CR in several respects. To our knowledge, this is the first study of BE in the Czech Republic of this extent that has been conducted since the economic crisis that hit the world economy in 2008, and as such, it can provide interesting insights in BE perceptions in the post-crisis environment. Furthermore, majority of previous comprehensive BE studies in the CR are rather old, as the most recent one we have been able to find dates to 2006, which is a long time in the fast changing business environment of transitional economies. Another point is that unlike many previous studies, which either focus on in-depth investigation of one single BE instrument (Transparency International, 2006) or broadly cover CSR issues and consider BE just a part of them, our study is monothematic in the sense that it solely focuses on BE. Last but not least, our sample composition to large extent reflects opinions of SMEs, which are often neglected by other researches, as SMEs are likely to employ less sophisticated BE policies and instruments. We believe that our findings can be beneficial for any organizations focused on BE promotion or BE training. The findings of our study provide useful insights of how BE was perceived in 2010 and as such they can help these institutions better target their efforts. Our results can be also used for educational purposes. BE studies are still a new subject at Czech universities and teachers still largely use teaching materials originated in other countries. Last but not least, our study can also provide more accurate information on Czech business environment to businessmen, often relying on their own experience when assessing business practices in their field (country), or any other economic subjects interested in cooperation with Czech companies.

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Footnotes:

- ¹ Czech population in March, 2010 was about 10,500,000 inhabitants; 2009 GDP per capita 18,971 PPS (Purchase Power Standard). Czech Statistical Office, <http://www.czso.cz/>.
- ² Czech Republic has been EU member since May, 2004.
- ³ Transparency International CR, Business Leaders forum CR, AISIS, VIA Foundation, CG Partners, SCR Consults, Ethical Forum of the CR, etc. can serve as the examples of such organizations.
- ⁴ The uncertainty implied by insufficient knowledge of local business practices, and among them especially those related to ethical issues or legal aspects of doing business, is an important factor for companies in their decision about the location of their investment.
- ⁵ In 1993 former Czechoslovakia peacefully split up into two sovereign countries – the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic.
- ⁶ However, Czech economic agents realize it does not necessarily mean a higher level of BE on the side of foreign companies. In fact, certain amount of Czech managers are of the opinion that while foreign companies have devised more sophisticated ways to enhance BE or CSR, they have at the same time become very apt at finding ways how to avoid acting in accordance with them. BE or CRS instruments thus in many case become mere PR tools, rather than efficient ways of increasing overall level of BE and CRS (Travnickova, 2005).
- ⁷ Čaník and Čaníková (2006) also find that a significant portion of SMEs managers believes ethical practices can be developed through personal communication and shared company culture, with written rules or ethical code considered unnecessary.
- ⁸ This study is part of a series of studies conducted worldwide (e. g. Korea, Japan, China, Bhutan, USA) based on the same survey instrument.
- ⁹ Recommendation 2003/361/EC regarding the SMEs definition, <http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/>
- ¹⁰ Based on the portion of Czech GDP originated in SMEs and large companies, large companies (38% of the sample) are slightly underrepresented (about 40% of Czech GDP is originated in large companies), data for 2010, taken from the official website of the Czech Statistical Office (<http://www.czso.cz/>).

¹¹ The country culturally closest to CR is the Slovak Republic. Nevertheless, even in Slovakia the proportion of religious population (84% of population in 2001) is much higher than in the CR (31% in 2001). Both numbers are taken from the official website of the Czech Statistical Office (<http://www.czso.cz/>).

¹² This fact is relevant in relation to the answers provided in Tables 12 and 13 (survey participants' responses regarding the factors influencing their (un)ethical decisions).

¹³ As the proportion of respondents at the top-management level is lower for large companies than for SMEs (See Table 1 B), we also conducted the analysis of responses according to the management level for SMEs and large companies separately. The above findings have been confirmed. Not tabulated.

¹⁴ The answer to the question raised here is further discussed in relation to the results reported in Table 14 of this paper.

¹⁵ Untabulated.

Tables:

Table 1 (Panel A): Descriptive Statistics of respondents

Descriptive Statistics		
1. Age		N=60
	29 or under	10%
	30-39	42%
	40-49	20%
	50 or over	27%
2. Education		
	High school graduate or less	12%
	Bachelor degree or vocational school	13%
	Graduate school	75%
3. Management position		
	Top management (president, chairman of board, executive director and board member)	22%
	Upper middle management (functional department head, assistant director of department and deputy director of department)	32%
	Lower middle management (functional unit head)	32%
	Other (non-management personnel, assistant manager, supervisor and government officer)	15%
4. Industry		
	Manufacturing	14%
	Non-manufacturing (mining, construction, transportation, and other service industries)	86%
5. Company size: number of employees*		
	1-49 (Small enterprises)	38%
	50-249 (Medium size enterprises)	25%
	250 or more (Large enterprises)	37%

*Company size classification is based on Recommendation 2003/361/EC regarding the SMEs definition commonly used within the EU (<http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/>).

Panel B: Number of respondents by management position (SMEs vs. Large Companies)

Company Size	Top (%)	Upper – middle (%)	Lower – middle (%)	Other (%)
SMEs	76.9	73.7	52.6	44.4
Large	23.1	26.3	47.4	55.6

N=60.

Table 2: Existence of unethical practices

	All (%)	Company Size		Management Position			
		SMEs (%)	Large (%)	Top (%)	Upper – middle (%)	Lower – middle (%)	Other (%)
None	15.0	15.8	13.6	23.1	10.5	10.5	22.2
Yes, a few	61.7	63.2	59.1	61.5	63.2	63.2	55.6
Yes, many	16.7	21.1	9.1	15.4	21.1	10.5	22.2
Don't know	6.7	0.0	18.2	0.0	5.3	15.8	0.0

N=60.

Table 3: Unethical practices most wanted to eliminate

	All (%)	SMEs	Large
Giving of gifts, gratuities, and briberies	53.2	50.0	60.0
Price discrimination and unfair pricing	46.8	50.0	40.0
Dishonesty in making or keeping a contract	42.6	40.6	46.7
Miscellaneous unfair competitive practices	42.6	46.9	33.3
Price collusion by competitors	27.7	28.1	26.7
Cheating customers	27.7	31.3	20.0
Dishonest advertising	23.4	25.0	20.0
Unfairness to employees	21.3	18.8	26.7
Overselling	12.8	18.8	0.0
Unfair credit practices	10.6	12.5	6.7
Other and unspecified	4.3	3.1	6.7

N=47. The question was designed as multiple-choices type, the respondents were asked to check as many answers as applicable. Percentage among those who answered this question.

Table 4: Company efforts to build ethical values into organization

	2All (%)	Company Size		Management Position			
		SMEs (%)	Large (%)	Top (%)	Upper – middle (%)	Lower – middle (%)	Other (%)
Yes, very eagerly	13.6	10.8	18.2	46.2	66.7	63.2	66.7
Yes, to some extent	47.5	40.5	59.1				
Yes, but very little	13.6	18.9	4.5	30.8	5.6	10.5	11.1
Not at all	25.4	29.7	18.2	23.1	27.8	26.3	22.2

N=59.

Table 5 Panel A: Methods of building ethical values into the organization

	All (%)	Company Size	
		SMEs (%)	Big (%)
Corporate philosophy including ethics	86,4	80,8	94,4
Code of ethics	45,5	34,6	61,1
Contribution to social/cultural activity	43,2	34,6	55,6
Punishment for unethical conduct	34,1	23,1	50,0
Employee training in ethics	27,3	15,4	44,4
CEO's frequent statements on ethics	18,2	23,1	11,1
Following parent company's philosophy	18,2	15,4	22,2
Anonymous Reporting Hotline for unethical conduct	11,4	3,8	22,2
Suggestion system on ethics	6,8	0,0	16,7
Ombudsman	6,8	3,8	11,1
Social auditing	6,8	7,7	5,6
Ethics committee	0,0	0,0	0,0
Other and unspecified	0,0	0,0	0,0

N=44.

Table 5 Panel B: Average number of ethical enhancement tools for SMEs and large companies by management position

	ALL	SMEs	Large	All	SMEs	Large
Top management	3.0	2.4	3.9	2.6	1.6	5.0
Upper middle management				2.9	2.4	4.3
Lower middle management				3.2	3.3	3.1
Other				3.7	2.5	4.3

N=44.

Table 6: Company responsible to social groups (mean ranks)

	All	SMEs	Large
Customers	1.7	1.4	2.1
Employees	2.8	2.6	3.1
Stockholders	3.0	3.3	2.6
Suppliers	4.3	4.1	4.7
Society in general	4.4	4.6	4.1
Government	6.1	6.8	5.1
Dealer	6.3	6.1	6.7
Local community	6.4	6.3	6.6

N =58. Number 1: social group to which respondents feel most responsible, n. 8: social group to which respondents feel least responsible.

Table 7: Experience of conflicts between company interests and personal ethics

	2All (%)	Company Size		Management Position			
		SMEs (%)	Large (%)	Top (%)	Upper – middle (%)	Lower – middle (%)	Other (%)
Yes	50.8	55.3	42.9	38.5	52.6	50.0	66.7
No	49.2	44.7	57.1	61.5	47.4	50.0	33.3

N=59.

Table 8: Issues with regard to which conflicts between company interests and personal ethics were experienced

		All (%)
With regard to		
	Honestly in internal communication	50.0
	Gifts, entertainment, and kickbacks	36.7
	Firings and layoffs	36.7
	Honesty in executing contracts and agreements	30.0
	Fairness and discrimination	26.7
	Honesty in external communication	26.7
	Price collusion and pricing practices	16.7
	Other and unspecified	3.3

N=30.

Table 9: Social groups with regard which ethical conflicts were experienced

		All (%)
With regard to		
	Suppliers	48.4
	Employees	41.9
	Customers	32.3
	Colleagues	29.0
	Competitors	25.8
	The law and government	22.6
	Superiors	16.1
	Society in general	3.2
	Other and unspecified	3.2
	Stockholders	0.0

N=31.

Table 10: Have respondents reported unethical practices?

	All (%)
Yes	26.3
No	73.7

N=57.

Table 11: Why were not unethical practices reported?

	All (%)
It was difficult to decide whether the practices were ethical or not	20.6
Even if reported, it would be difficult to correct the unethical practice	23.5
It was questionable whether my identity as the person who reported the unethical practice would be kept secret	17.6
I would receive negative judgment from my superior or colleagues	0.0
Other	11.8

N=34.

Table 12: Factors influencing *ethical* decisions (mean ranks)

	All	SMEs	Large
One's personal code of behaviour	1.9	2.1	1.6
Company policy	2.3	2.1	2.4
The behaviour of one's superiors	2.7	2.8	2.6
The behaviour of one's equals in the company	3.7	3.4	3.9
Ethical climate of the industry	4.3	4.1	4.5

N=58. Number 1 the most influential factor, n. 5 the least influential factor.

Table 13: Factors influencing *unethical* decisions (mean ranks)

	All	SMEs	Large
One's personal financial needs	2.4	2.3	2.5
Company policy or lack thereof	2.7	2.8	2.5
The behaviour of one's superiors	2.8	2.9	2.5
The behaviour of one's equals in the company	3.3	3.4	3.2
Ethical climate of the industry	3.7	3.4	4.1

N=58. Number 1 the most influential factor, n. 5 the least influential factor.

Table 14: Hypothetical situations

	Oneself (%)	Average manager (%)
Situation 1 (N = 49)		
Acceptable if other executives in the company do the same thing	5.1	31.6
Acceptable if the executive's superior knows about it and says nothing	27.1	40.4
Unacceptable regardless of the circumstances	67.8	28.1
Situation 2 (N = 49)		
Probably would	79.7	96.6
Probably would not	20.3	3.4
Situation 3 (N = 48)		
Refuse to pay, even if sale is lost	37.9	5.3
Pay the fee, feeling it was ethical in the moral climate of the foreign nation	8.6	33.3
Pay the fee, feeling it was unethical but necessary to help insure the sale	53.4	61.4
Situation 4 (N = 49)		
Issue an order stopping future payments and reduce salespeople's pay in the amount equal to their commissions on the sales gained as a result of future payments	15.3	7.0
Issue an order stopping future payments, but do not reduce sales people's pay	59.3	22.8
Say and do nothing	25.4	70.2

In relation to hypothetical situations, respondents were asked the following questions:

Situation 1: An executive earning EUR 100,000 a year has been padding his expense account by about EUR 5,000 a year. What do you think?

Situation 2: Imagine that you are the president of a company in a highly competitive industry. You learn that a competitor has made an important scientific discovery which will give him an advantage that will substantially reduce the profits of your company for about a year. If there were some hope of hiring one of the competitor's employees who knew the details of the discovery, what would you do?

Situation 3: The minister of a foreign nation, where extraordinary payments to lubricate the decision-making machinery are common, asks you, as a company executive, for an EUR 250,000 (about 6,250,000 CZK) consulting fee. In return, he promises special assistance in obtaining a 100 million EUR (2. bil CZK) contract which should produce, at least, a 5 million EUR (125 mil CZK) profit for your company.

Situation 4: Imagine that you are a regional sales manager for a large industrial supply company and your salespeople are giving money to purchasing agents to obtain sales. This is beyond the generally acceptable meal or promotional item. Assuming that no laws are being violated, what would you do?

The Constitutional Identity of the Public Budgeting on the Scale of the European Union and Optimum Constitutional Budgeting

Mehmet Alpertunga Avci, Assist. Prof.

Atatürk University, Faculty of Law Department of Fiscal Law

maavci@atauni.edu.tr

Abstract

The public budgeting, that allows collecting revenues and performing expenditures for a certain period and provides effective legislative audit and supervision, has established itself within the constitutions. In this way, the power of the purse is guaranteed constitutionally. However beyond the power of the purse, new and modern guarantees should be planned into the constitutions due to the profound effects of the public budgets on the economic life. There is needed a constitutional budgeting, considers citizen choices, in behalf of minimizing negative effects of public budgeting on the economic life. In this article which is a study on the scale of the European Union (EU), regulations on the public budget in the member country constitutions are examined in the light of the modern budgeting principles and the fiscal constitution approach. In this context this article initially identifies theoretical framework and approaches relating to the budgeting principles and in parallel with the constitutionalism. In the sequel it explores the provisions for public budgeting into the constitutional arrangements of 26 EU countries. Finally it compares country practices, gives suggestions how optimum constitutional budgeting should be done based on the budgeting principles and constitutional order. This article aims to suggest the basic theoretical structure of optimum constitutional budgeting on the scale of EU from the perspective of budgeting principles and constitutional budgeting. The ultimate goal of the article is making suggestion relating to budgeting in the EU constitution making process, to provide instructive and interpretive a discussion base for both scientists and bureaucrats in the light of the EU macro analysis

Keywords: Public Budgeting, The Power of the Purse, Economic Constitution, Constitutional Budgeting, Public Choice.

Introduction

Public budgeting is one of the basic tools both constitutional order and democratic regimes, in the modern era. Particularly public budgeting draws the fiscal and financial limitations of the mutual duties and responsibilities of the executive and legislative branch within the framework of the relationship between political power and sovereignty. From this aspect it is impossible to isolate the budgets from constitutions and constitutional orders. If it is expected to talk about a modern democratic constitutional order, there is needed a public budget as well. In that case what is understood from the public budgeting? In public budgeting there are basically three main questions. First question is "who pay the tax?", the second one is "who make the decisions?" and final question is "how the money will be spent?". Within the framework of these questions, there are two groups emerge as part of public budgeting: taxpayers and decision makers. Due to the fact that public budgeting tell citizens how well their money is being spent by the decision makers (Rubin, 1997, p. 191).

Today little has been written on the relation of public budgeting to the formulation of public policy in a democracy. This determination has been due to the relatively short history of responsible budgeting in today's public finances (Steiss, 1972, p. 292). However modern democracies expect public budgeting to do a number of different tasks about public policy, particularly in this era. These expected tasks are setting of goals and priorities, linking goals to actions, managing the economy, promoting accountability, controlling the use of public resources, promoting efficiency and effectiveness, promoting social planning and reform, and keeping the process manageable in government therefore in public sector. Through these tasks public budgeting can be used to help a government making progress toward social goals. An understanding in keeping with this goal is found in public choice theories and in welfare economic approaches. Public budgets are not only a central function but also a political process that should influence the whole administrative structure. As a political process public budgeting allows for decision makers give shape the budget to fit their preferences (Nice, 2002, p. 3-4-5-6-8; Willoughby, 2014, p. 21). In this respect, if the public budgeting will be considered as a political

process the executive branch has normally and directly been responsible for this process (Nice, 2002, p. 36). The legislative branch has the power to conduct the follow-up of this responsibility in the democratic process. Constitutions, as the basic legal regulations, will achieve public budgets from these tasks and goals and ensure the political process between the legislative and executive branches. However each government has its own constitution, depending on the legal system and many state constitutions contain budgetary provisions according to their requirements (Nice, 2002, p. 97). This situation makes it difficult to reach a universal consent optimum constitutional budgeting. In the light of these information firstly it is necessary to explain constitution and constitutional terms; to present modern budgeting principles in order to reach an optimum constitutional budgeting. Secondly it should be browsed to the EU country constitutions in the light of the modern budgeting principles.

1. Constitutionalism as a Guarantee for Responsible Budgeting

In the modern world, constitutionalism is regarded as one of the guarantor factor of the modern public budget systems and budgeting principles. In spite of the fact that constitutionalism does not have a stationary character. As a dynamic system, constitutionalism requires the presence of many organizational structures and several technical concepts in order to sustain its existence. In this respect it is necessary to present the general principles of the state, political power and sovereignty, democratic regime, and rule of law in order to comprehend the institutional and conceptual importance of the constitutional order and the constitutional budgeting. In spite of the fact that the state means rule of law and the rule of law is also provided by the constitution. The constitution makes sense within the framework of the rule of law (Özer, 2010, p. 8; Kaboğlu, 2014, p. 2).

A) State, Political Power and Rule of Law

With a simple definition, the state is an artifact legal and political organization. It is furnished with authority and has rights and duties apart from the administrators and individuals (Kaboğlu, 2014, p. 1-59-74; Teziç, 2014, p. 159). With the development of the welfare state approach, it has become necessary to go beyond the protection of the institutional order. The welfare state, reflected in constitutions as the concept of the social state, requires the state to take the economic and social development and protection as well (Kaboğlu, 2014, p. 102-103). From this aspect in order to ensure social peace and justice the social welfare state finds the intervention of the state necessary in economic and social life. However, this interventions should be in a systematic, coherent, rational, and scientific manner (Özbudun, 2014, 140-152). In our era, state concept has not limited to the social welfare state approach. Indeed, in the 1970s functional state approach and in the 1980s neoliberal approach have reshaped the modern state (Kaboğlu, 2014, p. 103-104).

According to the classical democratic theory the state is based on power and the nation is a direct source of this power and the sovereignty. In this respect state needs the political power, which delivers the state on its objectives, in order to use sovereignty. The political power can be described as the legislative power and right which aims to protect and regulate the ownership for the public benefit (Esen, 1957, p. 63-64; Gözübüyük, 2013, p. 16-72). Political power should be accepted by the society and suitable to the law, and gives direction to society in order to mention the presence of political power in the state (Gözübüyük, 2013, p. 16-17). Democracy is the dominant political doctrine of the modern world. In this context government system should be democratic regime in a state where sovereignty and political power is dominant (Özbudun, 2014, p. 89-90).

Particularly in democratic regimes, political power should be regulated in accordance with the law. Likewise the state is available by means of the law (Teziç, 2014, p. 162-163). With this aspect the principle of the rule of law -one of the main elements of the all civilized democratic regimes- come into prominence. The rule of law is a system where the citizens have the legal security and the state comply with the legal rules in a body (Özbudun, 2014, p. 125). Therefore bodies that exercises state authority can use lawful instruments and act as prescribed by law. In a rule of law, legal rules should be known and legalism should be secured with the legal sanctions. In spite of the fact that it aims to prevent the arbitrary behavior of the managers and any official institution and authority, and authorized person cannot go beyond the rule of law (Teziç, 2014, p. 162; Kaboğlu, 2014, p. 17-18).

B) Constitutional Order

As a result of the principle of the rule of law, legislator should use the power granted by legal regulations within the constitutional limits and in consideration of the justice, equity and public welfare criteria (Özbudun, 2014, p. 126). In a pluralistic democracy the plurality should be limited to the constitution as well. So that the plurality is also provided to act in accordance with the law (Gözübüyük, 2013, p. 26-27). Constitutions which is the requirements of the principle of the rule of law have the identity of being a document that limits the political power within the state (Teziç, 2014, p. 4-160). In this respect, constitution can be defined;

“... as sites of negotiation and contest, in order to emphasize the inherent dynamics of norms, intentions, and effects that accompany attempts to anchor and secure visions of social order and justice through a rule-establishing textual form (Gortke, Prutsch, 2014, p.18)”.

This textual forms have a social contract identity between the state and the citizens. In other words the constitution belongs to the whole people of a country and it can draw its legitimacy only from a social and broad participation agreement of the whole citizens (McLeay, 2011, p. 4). From this aspect constitutions -accepted as a legal and political texts- indicate the rules governing the basic structure, organization, and functioning of the state. They are the fundamental principles guiding the political power in the social and economic fields (Gözübüyük, 2013, p. 3; Grotke, Prutsch, 2014, p.18).

As a rule, every state has a constitution today and any constitution will be completely the same as another one (Teziç, 2014, p. 159; Parpworth, 2014, p. 8). Today, constitutions are classified as written or unwritten, flexible or inflexible, monarchical or republican, parliamentary or presidential, federal or unitary, quantitative or qualitative constitutions (Parpworth, 2014, p.7-8).

State and constitution is necessary condition of each other. Likewise each state has an order and it is called as “constitutional order”. From this aspect constitution sets the framework of the state life (Gözübüyük, 2013, p. 12). Constitutions should be superior to all other legal rules as a ground norm and the highest legal rule in order to give life to society's main institutions (Özer, 2010, p. 10; Kaboğlu, 2014, p. 42, Gözübüyük, 2013, p. 10). In other words;

“where a constitutional document does exist, it represents a form of law superior to all other laws in the state (Parpworth, 2014, p. 4)”.

It is called as "The Supremacy of the Constitution". The supremacy of the constitution is one of the basic principles of the liberal world-view (Teziç, 2014, p. 166). Constitutional provisions binds legislative, executive and judicial organs and administrative authorities and individuals as a result of the supremacy of the constitution (Özbudun, 2014, p. 39).

C) Fiscal Constitution and Economic Constitution

The state organically is in a continuous growth and as a natural consequence of this growth, constitutions should be more sophisticated and capable (Gözübüyük, 2013, p. 18). At the same time, in the process of the historical development, neoliberalism and socialism have a direct effect of the spirit of the constitution. The contemporary constitutionalism which is affected by the neoliberal doctrine gave wide and direct publicity to the economy policy into the constitutions. As a requirement of the rule of law constitutions should be relatively neutral in the face of the economic policies that are affected by the political preferences of political power (Kaboğlu, 2014, pp. 2-8 & p. 140; Özbudun, 2014, p. 143).

Today's modern constitutions have an original identity with political, social and fiscal aspects. In a political and social sense state establishes the main organs, regulates the functioning of the power and social rights and liberties within the society. It is necessary to browse the concept of the fiscal constitution in order to reveal the financial aspects of the constitutions. Fiscal constitutionalism -emerged in Germany after the Second World War- describes the mechanisms envisaged by the constitution and related to the public finance. Therefore it adds a constitutional value in order to ensure the economic and fiscal stability, and reveals the behavior of the economic actors (Kaboğlu, 2014, p. 14).

In the framework of the public finance there is a number of key areas of economic management consisting of public budgeting, taxation and borrowing, fiscal and monetary policy, public enterprises, and public procurement and expenditures. These instruments regulates the public fiscal management as a whole and they are used by government to achieve fiscal and economic goals. As a technical matter the use of public resources and expenditures are closely

connected with the policy goals of the executive in an economic management. These matters gain legitimacy through a combination of electoral succession and political responsibility. Likewise a public authority gains its legitimacy from the political process. As a result of this, a public authority should ensure fiscal transparency, transparent political process, and budget process and principles constitutionally (Prosser, 2014, pp. 2-7). In this respect there is needed to browse to the constitution which is the source of the legitimacy and the political power in the light of the economic constitution concept.

Tonny Prosser has characterizes economic constitution as follow:

“Economic constitutions are at one level mapping documents; they set out the key state institutions, their interrelations, and their relationship with civil society. They also permit effective governance and the coordinated development and implementation of public policy (Prosser, 2014, p. 7).”

In the light of this characterization Prosser tackles this issue in different ways. Firstly economic constitution relevant for the economic management. Likewise in many countries constitutions in relation to public revenues, expenditures, and property rights. Secondly economic constitution is associated with 'ordoliberalism'. According to the ordoliberalism economic constitution highlights the primacy of politics over economics (Somma, p.8-109). For the Prosser quoted from David Gerber:

“the ordoliberals added a 'constitutional dimension' to their analysis of economic problems. A community's political constitution and its choices in using law to implement that constitution, they said, must ultimately establish the characteristics of its economic system. Economic systems did not just 'happen'; they were 'formed' through political and legal decision-making. These fundamental choices determined a nation's economic constitution.... (Prosser, 2014, p. 8-9).”

Form this aspect economic constitution can be regarded as a prior and key consideration of the new economic management philosophy and it is directly affect the political choices. Accordingly it is predicted that this type pf philosophy brings us to the public choices. Thirdly according to the Prosser, economic constitution can be evaluated as a set of social values in the economic management process. Finally economic constitution is one of the product of 'new constitutionalism' (Prosser, 2014, p. 10).

2. Modern Public Budgeting Principles

In order to mention about a modern constitution, as a supreme and basic legal regulation, should be designed in accordance with the fiscal and economic constitution philosophy. This philosophy gives the character to constitutions being the main directory of public finances. In this regard public budgeting, one of the most important instruments of public finances, unthinkable outside the constitution. Modern budgeting principles which are the constituent elements of the public budget should take place within the constitutions in order to provide constitutional assurance for the public budgeting. A matter of fact, public budgeting which is a requirement of the rule of law is the constituent and fundamental element of power and dominance relations.

Modern public fiscal managements should take a variety of budgeting principles into consideration in order to implement the conventional and modern functions of the public budgeting. These principles have a great importance for the usage of the power of the purse. In this context these principles are observed starting with the process of preparation of the public budgeting and the discharge of the budget execution. These principles which have been developed in parallel with the development of parliamentary democracy are allow to obtain reliable and complete information about the estimation of the public revenues and expenditures. In this respect budgeting principles can be defined as a set of rules that must be followed in the budget process. However it should be emphasized that the presence of these principles are not indisputable. In this respect these principles can be differ from both in different periods within the same country and in different countries in the same period (Altuğ, 1999, p. 12-13-14; Tüğen, 2005, p. 31; Aksoy, 1993, pp. 111-138). In the light of these preliminary information budgeting principles can be listed in ten titles.

a) Principle of Publicity (PP): This principle is called by different names such as publicity, transparency, openness, publicity, accuracy etc. It is basically enable to public scrutiny (O'Regan, 2004, p. 259). According to PP public budgeting

should be conducted in the open (Willoughby, 2014, p. 20). In this respect PP can be defined as a disclosure and publication activity about all information and documentation related to the budget process. According to the budget process it informs decision-makers about the real financial situation of the public fiscal administration. All related financial statements and documents should be published regularly in order to protect PP. In spite of the fact that citizens, tax payers and other third parties such as international credit rating agencies, international financial institutions, and lender countries want to be informed about budget process. In addition to all these information PP serves the purpose of ensuring accountability in public fiscal management. From this aspect PP gives an opportunity to criticize and analyze the executive through the public budgeting. So that the power of the purse would be used effectively by the citizens (Tüğen, 2005, p. 43; Mutluer- Öner-Kesik, 2006, p. 97-98; Feyzioğlu, 1981, p. 49; Altuğ, 1999, p. 25).

b) Principle of Clarity (PC): As a technical document public budgets are distinctive in that it is subject to a large number of rules, regulations, and procedural guidelines that make the process quite complex (Nice, 2002, p. 3). Governments spending's share in GDP has increased steadily as well. Depending on these factors public budgets has become confusing, because it has a language of its own that many people do not understand. However it cannot be expected from each citizen and deputy to understand and evaluate these kind of technical documents as a budget expert. In this respect public budgets should be brought in clear. This also brings us to the principle of clarity (Mutluer- Öner-Kesik, 2006, p. 97-98; Nice, 2002, p. 2). According to PC, also accepted as one of the seven principles of public life, the information in a public budget should be understandable (O'Regan, 2004, p. 198; Willoughby, 2014, p. 20). In order to achieve this principle definitions related to income and expense should be very clear and precise, classification of income and expenses should be in accordance with scientific principles and rule of logic (Edizdoğan et al., 2011, p. 425).

c) Principle of Accuracy (PA): This principle, aims the revenues and expenditures estimates should be correct (Willoughby, 2014, p. 20), consists of subjective and objective accuracy principles. In this context Subjective Accuracy Principle (SAP) is also known as the principle of sincerity. The administration which is responsible for preparing the public budget should show the actual shape of the estimated revenue and expenses as a requirement of SAP. In this respect revenue and expense estimations must be in accordance with the actual needs and circumstances. Accordingly budget administration must not deviate from the real needs and expectations for the sake of ensuring seemingly equivalence in the budget. According to the Objective Accuracy Principle (OAP), revenue and expenditure estimations should be appropriate to the real economic conditions. OAP cannot be mentioned in case of the extremely optimistic or pessimistic estimations (Feyzioğlu, 1981, p. 48; Altuğ, 1999, p. 26).

d) Principle of Annualization (PAN): This principle can be defined as the restatement of an item to reflect a one year period. PAN is common in fiscal planning, which often require external evaluation of revenues and expenses to cover a full fiscal year. (O'Regan, 2004, p.18). In other words the budget is applied for a specific period of time and this time period is usually one year (Tüğen, 2005, p. 42). With this principle both revenue and expenses estimates can be made in true manner and the power of the purse can be used effectively by the legislature. Therefore PAN is one of the adopted and accepted budgeting principle by many countries (Aksoy, 1993, p. 220-221).

e) Principle of Allocation of the Expenses (AE): This principle is relating to the identification of revenues or expenses with specific activities, assets, services, limits, or time periods. AE can be used to refer to the division of revenues and expenses between various items as well (O'Regan, 2004, p. 15). In this respect AE is divided into three forms: Principle of Allocation in Terms of Quality (PATQ), Principle of Allocation in Terms of Quantity (PATQU) and Principle of Allocation in Terms of Time (PATT). According to;

- PATQ, the appropriations allocated to certain public services are used only for these services.
- PATQU, spending over appropriations cannot be done.
- PATT, budget authorization is given for a fiscal year (Edizdoğan et al., 2011, p. 424; Altuğ, 1999, p. 27).

f) Principle of Prior Authorization (PPA): This principle basically contains authorization and authorization right. In this context it should be described these terms to grasp the importance of the PPA. Firstly authorization means that the giving of approval or permission. It is central to many of the fiscal transactions and decisions in modern public fiscal administrations, from the using of the power of the purse (O'Regan, 2004, p. 39). It can be provided for one year, multiple-year, and no-year by the period of availability, currently or permanently by the timing of legislative action or definite or indefinite by the manner of determining the amount available. Authorization incorporates appropriations, borrowing authority and contract authority (Lyden and Lindenberg, 1983, p. 5). Secondly authorization right is one of the most important prerequisites of the power of the purse. Accordingly authorization derive from the status of the legislature, and is restrained by accountability for the exercise of the power of the purse (O'Regan, 2004, p. 39). PPA provides to executive spending directly as well (Lee, et al., 2004, p. 272). On the light of these information PPA can be defined as the direction of the executive authority to make spending and collect revenue granted by the legislature. As a requirement of the democratic governance and pluralistic approach the executive cannot collect any revenue and make any spending without this authority (Aksoy, 1993, s. 220).

g) Principle of Equivalence (PE): According to the principle of equivalence, expenditures may not exceed revenues, but not all available revenues and expenses must be appropriated and spent. PE is not uniform across all governments due to the requirements and achieving to PE in a public budget is a political process (Lee, et al., 2004, p. 155-156). There are differences between classical and modern budget approach about this principle. According to the classical budget approach -is the product of liberal economic approach- expenses and revenues must be equal in absolute terms and this equivalence must be maintained in any event. However depending on the developments in the economic life, the possibility of providing classical budget equivalence is quite difficult today. In contrast, according to the modern budget approach which is a product of the contemporary public finance it is essential to ensure the economic stability (Tüğen, 2005, s. 42-43; Edizdoğan vd., 2011, s. 428-429; Mutluer-Öner-Kesik, 2006, s. 91; Altuğ, 1999, s. 27). Contemporary public finance has put forward to the compensatory budget and cyclical budget theories in order to ensure economic stability. Cyclical Budget Theory propose to ensure the budget equivalence in the economic expansion and contraction terms and it considers the budget equivalence more flexible way. According to this theory taxes should be reduced in order to stimulate the market and public expenditures should be increased at the risk of the budgetary deficit in the period of recession. In the period of inflation the opposite budget policy should be followed to restabilize the economy. In other words in the period of recession governments should follow expansionary fiscal policy and in the period of inflation they should pursue contractionary fiscal policy. Compensatory Budget Theory looks for the elimination of the structural flaws in the economic life. According to this theory the budget equivalence can be achieved when the total demands equals to total supply and this equality is also exceptional. Apart from this exception to eliminate the stress from the depression budget balances should be set aside and governments pursue unbalanced budgetary policy (Edizdoğan et al., 2011, p. 430-431; Mutluer-Öner-Kesik, 2006, p. 92-93-94).

h) Principle of Economy (PEC): In a public sector, PEC can be described as the ratio between planned inputs and actual inputs from the point of unit costs. The aim of this principle is to manage public resources, and to improve of the production and distribution of a public wealth (O'Regan, 2004, p. 100). In this context as a requirement of performance management PEC is intended to provide the highest potential social benefit with an amount of money and efficiency in the public sector, to prevent unnecessary expense, to reduce unit costs and to improve the quality of services (Sönmez, 1994, p. 22; Edizdoğan et al., 2011, p. 426; Altuğ, 1999, p. 27).

i) Principle of Comprehensiveness (PCO): Principle of universality necessitates that all public revenues, expenditures, and debts completely and fully should be included in the state budget. In order to mention the PCO every sort of public revenues and expenses should be shown in the same budget and the public finance should be considered as a whole (Edizdoğan et al., 2011, p. 394-395; Willoughby, 2014, p. 20; Mutluer-Öner-Kesik, 2006, p. 83-84; Altuğ, 1999, p. 28).

j) Principle of Unity (PU): It is necessary to define the concept of unified budget in order to understand the importance of the PU. In this context a unified budget covering all revenues and expenditures in the public fiscal management. A unified budget strengthening control over the public purse and enforcing accountability and transparency. It provides a complete picture of cash flow in the government, the size of the surplus or deficit and borrowing needs, and provides an opportunity to make long-range planning and programming. PU pursue to combine all revenues and expenditures in one budget related

to public economy (Axelrod, 1995, p. 292; Mutluer-Öner-Kesik, 2006, p. 88). In other words in order to talk about PU “all government funds should flow through one general fund, with earmarked and special funds kept to a minimum (Willoughby, 2014, p. 20)”.

3. Constitutional Identity of the Power of the Purse in EU Countries

In modern democracies public budgeting technically comes to life with the power of the purse. Likewise taxpayers delegate the budget making power to the legislative branch via elections. This power which is the product of public choices is defined by the concept of the power of the purse.

“The ‘power of the purse’ is a constitutionally established responsibility of parliaments and legislatures in governments around the world and the most important feature of a governmental system. The power of the purse is the ability to generate revenues, decide on taxes, and determine how and where public funds will be spent (Willoughby, 2014, p. 198)”.

According to this definition the power of the purse is the essential constituent element of the constitutional order and the pluralism. In fact as a result of the power of the purse “public budgeting is being carried out in a capitalist, democratic, federal society, or in a socialist authoritarian, national state. In matters whether the form of government is parliamentary or presidential (Rubin, 1997, p. 186)”. In order to mention in a democratic governance the power of the purse which is the main source of the political power and sovereignty should be protected by the constitution. In our era there is a close relationship between the constitutional order with the power of purse in the congressional and parliamentary systems. Moreover it is seen that this power is internationalized in a variety of international integration movement. In the modern age The European Union constitutes the most important example of this international movements. It is seen that there is no a harmony between the member states -particularly at the point of constitutional arrangements for the public budgeting- although the EU seen as an example of good practice in the direction of internationalization. Nowadays, when the EU Constitution is being discussed, this disharmony is strongly threatening the existence of this integration movement. In fact, at the point of reaching an optimum constitutional budgeting, it is primarily important that the EU should be resolved in a fiscal structure drawing strength from the concept of sovereignty, political power, and pluralism in terms of both member states and the EU. In this respect entire modern budgeting principles should be guaranteed in the constitution of each member state. This guarantee is vital for the EU constitution which is anticipated to entry into force.

In the light of the information above it will be useful to look at the 26 member state constitution in the context of the modern budgeting principles*. The EU member state constitutions that are subject to this article can be evaluated as having a written, formal, and parliamentary constitutional structure as a whole. Apart from this generalized evaluation, Belgium, Denmark, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Spain and Sweden constitutions have a monarchial and all other constitutions have a republican character. In the meanwhile it can be done a distinction between these constitutions in terms of the federal or unitary state as well. According to these distinction Austria, Belgium, and Germany constitutions are in a federal and all other constitutions are in a unitary manner.

In addition to this classification within the scope of constitutionalism, it would be useful to assess of these constitutions in a fiscal constitutional manner. Different from the other member state constitutions, Finish, German, Austrian, and Hungarian constitutions incorporate detailed provisions on economic and fiscal issues. In this respect, mentioned constitutions can be accepted as the modern examples of the fiscal constitutionalism. Particularly these constitutions have given a detailed place to the legal processes relating to the transfer appropriations, supplementary and extraordinary appropriations, and provisional budgets throughout the public budgeting. As a unique practice Hungarian constitution has brought a significant provision in terms of the constitutional assurance of the public budgeting. According to this provision, stated in Article 37, as long as the state debt exceeds half of the GDP, the Constitutional Court may, within its powers, review the Acts on the central budget, the implementation of the central budget, central taxes, duties and contributions, customs duties and the central conditions for local taxes. According to the Italian, Latvian, Esthon, Portugal, and Slovak constitutions public budgeting should not be subject to referendum, in order to ensure the fiscal discipline and safety.

* United Kingdom and Cyprus has been excluded from the scope of this article due to the fact that an absence of a formal constitution in United Kingdom and lack of a component political union in Cyprus.

When the EU member states constitutions discussed in terms of the modern budgeting principles the following conclusions emerges (Table 1):

- In the Czech Republic constitution, there is no provisions that imply the budgeting principles.
- It is often given place to the principle of prior authorization, annualization, and comprehensiveness in the member states constitutions.
- Principle of;
 - publicity is located in Austria, Belgium and Hungary constitutions;
 - clarity is located in Hungary constitution;
 - accuracy and economy is located in Austria and Hungary constitutions;
 - allocation of the expenses is located in Germany and Hungary constitutions;
 - equivalence is located in Austria, Germany and Hungary constitutions;
 - unity is located in Germany and Romania constitutions.

Discussion and Conclusion

Public budgets are accepted as the basic fiscal tools of the public choices in democratic regimes. Citizens are informed that where their taxes are being used and decision makers are also realized their policies, by means of the public budgeting. There are several administrative, legal, political and social functions of the public budgeting, in modern era. Therefore when public budgets are being prepared, some basic criteria should be taken into consideration by the executive branch. Through these criteria, defined as the budgeting principles, citizen choices and expectations are secured, public resources are used effectively by policy makers, fiscal discipline is ensured, and third parties become aware of the related fiscal system. However these criteria will be binding and meaningful as long as guaranteed by a superior legal regulation. This superior legal regulation is undoubtedly the constitution. Constitution, as a requirement of the principle of the rule of law and a document that limits the political power within the state, stripped its shell and took a fiscal and economic social contract view. These supreme documents are associated with fiscal constitution, constitutional economics, and economic constitution. They have become an impact on the fate of multinational integrations in our era. European integration movements, also known as European Union, is an important example about these integrations. Nowadays, when the EU constitution on the agenda, fiscal aspects of the member states constitutions are not widely opened to discussion. This article was prepared with the aim to lead the discussion from the perspective of the modern budgeting principles and political power, sovereignty, the rule of law, and constitutional order.

In a pluralistic and sovereignty-based constitutional order, public budgeting which is the embodiment of the citizen choices strengthen due to the modern budgeting principles. From this aspect when the EU member state constitutions and budgeting principles discussed as a whole it is mostly observed that the budget processes and legal aspects of the public budgets are passed over before the budgeting principles within the constitutions. Particularly, principle of prior authorization and annualization have been largely able to find a place within the constitutions. However it is quite difficult to say the same thing for the other principles. This situation should not imply that the principle of publicity, clarity, accuracy, allocation of the expenses, equivalence, economy, comprehensiveness, and unity are less important than the principle of prior authorization and annualization. In fact German, Austrian and Hungarian constitutions that described as fiscal constitutions hinders the formation of this bias.

If the EU wants to maintain its presence with a global fiscal modernization approach and the member states aim to harmonize their fiscal systems constitutionally, it is very clear what to do. Modern budgeting principles should be taken a constitutional guarantee even if at the expense of the detailing the constitutions. Constitutional budgeting is a reality and necessity of the modern age. Simply because each country having the aim of democratization should give an importance for the budgeting principles within their constitutions as well as technical and legal aspects of the public budgeting.

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Tables

Table 1. The Constitutional Budgeting in European Union Countries in the light of the Modern Budgeting Principles

Country Name	The Name of the Principle									
	PP	PC	PA	PAN	AE	PPA	PE	PEC	PCO	PU
Austria	√		√	√		√	√	√		√
Belgium	√			√		√			√	
Bulgaria						√				
Croatia						√			√	
Czech Republic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark				√		√				
Estonia				√		√				
Finland				√		√			√	
France				√		√				
Germany				√	√	√	√		√	√
Greece				√		√			√	
Hungary	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		
Ireland				√		√				
Italy				√		√				
Latvia				√		√				
Lithuania				√		√				
Luxemburg				√		√			√	
Malta				√		√			√	
Netherlands				√		√				
Poland				√		√				
Portugal				√		√			√	
Romania				√		√				√
Slovakia						√				
Slovenia									√	
Spain				√		√			√	
Sweden				√		√				

This table prepared in the light of the budgetary provisions of EU member states constitutions.

Transformational Leadership and satisfaction of Egyptian Academics: The Influence of Gender

Dina Metwally

Helwan University,

Faculty of Commerce & Business Administration, Egypt.

Email: dinametwally2001@gmail.com

Abstract

Leadership is one of the topics that have been widely discussed in the literature. Researchers have been concerned with studying the influence of leaders on different organizational outcomes such as employees' satisfaction. This study explores the influence of gender differences on leadership styles of Egyptian academics and its impact on subordinates' satisfaction. The study aims to compare research results in an Arab country with previous research results in the West. Questionnaires and interviews are used for data collection. Data are collected from three Egyptian universities. Similar to Western countries, the leadership style is found to be significantly related to subordinates' satisfaction. Further, transformational leadership is significantly correlated to subordinates' satisfaction. Regarding the relationship between gender and leadership style, gender is found to be insignificant in determining the leadership style as differences exist across males as well as across females. An important finding of this study is that subordinates of the opposite gender of their leaders are more satisfied. The results of this study are significantly important to organizations that aim to achieve high levels of employees' satisfaction and exceed the required results. There is a significant need to develop transformational leaders both at the macro and micro levels.

Keywords: Leadership style, gender, subordinates' satisfaction, transformational leadership, transactional leadership.

1. Introduction

Leadership is one of the topics that have been widely discussed in the literature. Many researchers have been concerned with discussing the concept of leadership and many related issues. This concern with studying leadership has not been limited to management academics and professionals but extended to include historians, philosophers, and researchers in different fields (Ali et al, 2013; Bass, 1990).

Researchers argue that leadership styles contribute significantly to the failure and success of their organizations (Oshagbemi & Ocholi, 2006; Lok & Crawford, 2004). Also, many researchers have studied the impact of gender differences on leadership (e.g. Swanwick & McKimm, 2011; Parker, 2005; Kan & Parry, 2004; Appelbaum et al, 2003; Eagly et al, 2003). There is evidence that female leaders tend to be more transformational, interactive and committed whilst male leaders are more transactional as they don't excite, transform, empower or inspire people to focus on the interests of the group or organization (e.g. Bridges, 2009; Drucker, 2009; Fernandez & Rainey, 2006; Ahn & Dornbusch, 2004; Eagly et al, 2003; Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001).

There is a common agreement in the West that Western and Eastern cultures are different and can hardly meet (Zakouk, 2001). This view is based on the influence of Islamic principles in shaping the Eastern culture. Despite this, Khatemy (2001) argues that the West and the East are not separated as there has been always religious and cultural communication between them. Accordingly, this study aims to investigate differences and similarities between Western Leaders and their counterparts in the East. The study focuses on studying the influence of gender differences on leadership styles of Egyptian academics. Further, the study explores the impact of transformational leadership on subordinates' satisfaction in an academic setting.

2. Research Background

Leadership is one of the terms that can be hardly defined. Researchers have introduced different definitions of leadership using different perspectives (e.g. Ali et al, 2013; Long & Thean, 2011; Hersey et al, 2001; Schermerhorn, 1999).

According to Long & Thean (2011), the idea of leadership is all about introducing a future vision as well as the strategies needed to achieve this vision. Schermerhorn (1999) defined leadership from an organizational perspective as motivating and influencing others to work hard to achieve organizational goals. In supporting Schermerhorn (1999), Hersey et al (2001) believed that leadership is all about influencing others' behaviors based on individuals' and organizational goals. In general, leadership is about elements such as 'group', 'influence', 'support', 'individual & organizational goals' (Ali et al, 2013; Bryman, 1992).

Leadership style has been always related to the ability of leaders to achieve organizational goals (Oshagbemi & Ocholi, 2006). One of the most influential theories of leadership in the last few decades is transformational-transactional leadership discussed by many researchers (e.g. Oshagbemi & Ocholi, 2006; Pastor & Mayo, 2006; Miller et al, 2002). Transformational leadership is about creating an emotional attachment between leaders and employees. It is the ability to motivate and encourage intellectual stimulation through inspiration (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Dvir et al, 2002). As stated by Jin (2010) '*transformational leadership integrates the elements of empathy, compassion, sensitivity, relationship building, and innovation*' (p.174). Transformational leadership is based on the idea of changing followers' values so that they share the same goals and values of the organization. By doing so, employees achieve organizational goals not because they will be rewarded but because these goals are consistent with their personal goals (Ali et al, 2013; MacKenzie et al, 2001).

Nevertheless, transactional leadership is an exchange-based relationship. It is based on using rewards to motivate employees and accomplish specified goals, i.e. complete tasks on hand (Huberts et al, 2007; Pearce & Sims, 2002). In this type of leadership, followers are expected to perform their tasks according to given instructions (Huberts et al, 2007).

Generally, Transactional-transformational leadership theory is concerned with explaining how leaders influence their followers. The heart of these two types of leadership is the leader-follower relationship. In transactional leadership, leaders and followers consider each other as a tool for achieving their goals. Specifically, leaders use followers to achieve specific work goals. In return, followers consider achieving the specified goals as the main source for receiving rewards. On the other hand, Transformational leader motivates and inspires followers. The relationship between the transformational leader and followers is characterized by motivation, devotion, self-sacrificial, and exceeding self-interests for the sake of the organizational benefits (Bass, 1997). The transformational leader is visionary, charismatic, sensitive to followers' needs, and inspirational (Pastor & Mayo, 2006).

Research on gender differences argues that female leaders tend to be more concerned with the welfare of other people rather than their male counterparts e.g. Swanwick & McKimm, 2011, Parker, 2005; Kan & Parry, 2004; Appelbaum et al, 2003; Eagly et al, 2003). It is argued that male leaders tend to focus more on goal achievement (Gibson, 1993; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly, 1987). Conversely, female leaders are regarded as visionaries, more collaborative and less authoritative (Vinnicombe, 1987). Rosener (1990) found that female leaders tend to encourage participation, share power, energise and enhance the self-worth of others. However, male leaders view their job in transactional terms and rely heavily on formal authority.

Thus, there is evidence from the literature that female leaders encourage involvement, participation and empowerment of individuals (e.g.; Williams, 2012; Bridges, 2009; Drucker, 2009; Fernandez & Rainey, 2006; Ahn & Dornbusch, 2004; Eagly et al, 2003; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2001; Eagly & Mary 2003;). Precisely, female leaders tend to be more transformational, interactive and committed. On the other hand, male leaders are more transactional as they don't excite, transform, empower or inspire people to focus on the interests of the group or organization.

Also, Leadership style has been related to job satisfaction. The importance of job satisfaction stems from the argument that it highly influences employees' commitment and loyalty (e.g. Pandey & Khare, 2012; Markovits, 2011; Donovan et al, 2004). Further, it is one of the important factors used to predict employees' turnover and productivity levels. In general, job satisfaction can be defined as employees' feelings and attitudes towards their jobs (Armstrong, 2003). Voon et al (2011) believe that job satisfaction does not reflect only employees' attitudes to their jobs, but also to the organizations that employ them. According to Armstrong (2003), satisfied employees have favorable and positive attitudes to their jobs, whilst dissatisfied employees have unfavorable and negative attitudes to their jobs.

Job satisfaction is influenced by many factors. Some factors are related to the organization such as working conditions and financial benefits. Others are related to management such as the type of support managers give to their employees. One of the factors that influence employees' job satisfaction is the type of leadership exercised by their managers (Voon et al, 2011).

The leadership style influences employees' satisfaction and accordingly their commitment, loyalty, and productivity. Researchers have been concerned with studying the ability of male and female leaders to satisfy their subordinates (e.g. Parry, 2000). Some researchers argue that gender does not influence leader's ability to satisfy subordinates (e.g. Powell, 1990). Others, believe that female leaders can better satisfy their followers than their male counterparts (e.g. Parry, 2000). This is based on the argument that female leaders are transformational whilst male leaders are transactional. This view believes that transformational leaders can satisfy their followers more than transactional ones. Based on this difference, this study needs to investigate differences in the leadership styles of Egyptian leaders and how these styles influence subordinates' satisfaction. The role of gender in determining leadership style as well as subordinate's satisfaction needs further exploration.

5. Research Objectives

This study aims to explore the relationship between leadership style, gender, and employees' satisfaction in an Egyptian academic setting. Achieving the research aim requires achieving the following objectives:

1. To investigate differences in leadership styles of Egyptian male and female academics.
2. To compare leadership styles of Egyptian leaders to their counterparts in the West.
3. To discuss the relationship between leadership styles and Egyptian employees' satisfaction.
4. To demonstrate the influence of cultural factors on shaping the relationship between leadership style, gender, and job satisfaction.
5. To explore the role of gender and experience in shaping the relationship between leadership style and employees' satisfaction.

6. Research Hypotheses

Research on leadership shows that transformational leadership builds an emotional attachment between leaders and employees while transactional leadership is an exchange-based relationship (Jin, 2010). In transactional leadership employees get work instructions and are rewarded for achieving specific objectives. Employees in transformational leadership may exceed expected outcomes because they feel attached to their organizations. Thus, it is possible to assume that employees are more satisfied with transformational than transactional leadership. This leads to the following research hypothesis:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates' satisfaction.

Transactional leaders reward their employees for achieving specific work objectives. Thus, one might expect young academics with limited experience in the academic field to be more satisfied with transactional leaders. Young employees are usually seeking financial satisfaction that can be easily achieved through transactional leadership. On the contrary, older academics with more experience tend to be more concerned with recognition and appreciation that can be achieved through transformational leadership. This leads to the second hypothesis.

H2: subordinates' experience is positively correlated to their level of satisfaction with transformational leadership.

It is unclear whether gender influences academics' satisfaction with their leaders or not. Some people prefer to be supervised by individuals of the same gender; others work better with supervisors of the opposite gender. Thus, it is important to investigate the role of gender in influencing subordinates' satisfaction in an academic setting. Accordingly:

H3: there is a significant negative relationship between gender similarity (of leaders and subordinates) and subordinates' satisfaction.

7. Research Methodology

The study explores the relationship between leadership style and subordinates' satisfaction considering the influence of gender and years of experience. Thus, two variables are studied: an independent variable (leadership style) and a

dependent variable (subordinates' satisfaction). In addition, two intermediate variables are studied (gender & experience) – Figure 1.

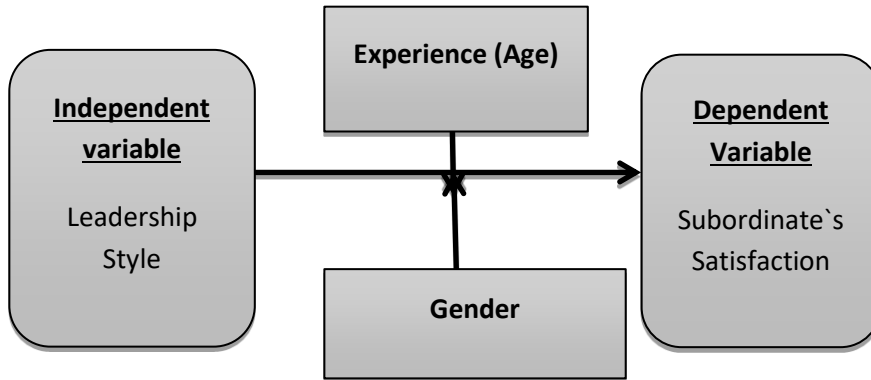


Figure 1: Research Variables

7.1 Research Setting & Sample

The study was conducted in three academic settings: Helwan University, Sadat Academy for Management Sciences, and Modern University for Information and Technology (MTI). Whilst Helwan University (a public university) and MTI (a private university) under the authorization of the Ministry of Higher Education, Sadat Academy is a public Academy under the authorization of the Ministry of State for Administrative Development.

The study was conducted at the faculty level as it was difficult to access university level (Chancellor and vice Chancellor). Data was collected from the Faculty Dean and Vice Dean(s) in each Faculty. This presented top management level. The middle management level included Head of Departments who were also considered as subordinates to top management. In addition, data was collected from staff members in each department. The study focused on academics only. Administrative staff was not included in this study. The total number of participants is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Classification of Research Sample

Number of Participants	
185	Males
135	Females
35	Less than 5
60	From 5 to less than 10
95	From 10 to less than 15
130	More than 15
187	PhD
85	Master
48	Bachelor
320	Total

7.2 Data Collection

Data was collected using two methods: questionnaires and interviews. Combining qualitative and quantitative sources of data collection was useful in increasing reliability of data collected (Yin, 1994.). Whilst quantitative methods allow the researcher to be familiar with the issues being studied (Golafshani, 2003), qualitative methods provide in-depth analysis and understanding of these issues (Yin, 1994). Data collection was conducted on two stages:

Stage 1: Questionnaires

The first stage of data collection used questionnaires. The study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) for measuring leadership and subordinates' satisfaction. The MLQ was developed by Bass & Avolio (2000) and has been used by more than 200 research studies over the past years. The questionnaire has a well-established reliability and validity as a leadership instrument for both industries and service settings (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008). The MLQ is provided in both Self and Rater forms (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Whilst the Self form measures the leadership style, the Rater form measures subordinates' satisfaction with this style.

MLQ is the most widely used instrument to assess transformational leadership (Kirkbride, 2006). Further, it is considered *'the most validated measure of transactional and transformational leadership'* (Ozaralli, 2003, p.338). The questionnaire uses five main scales for measuring transformational leadership: idealized influence attributed and behavior, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Also, it uses three scales for measuring transactional leadership: contingent reward, management-by-exception-active, and management-by-exception-passive.

A previous study on the impact of leadership style on management of change in Egypt concluded that using questionnaires for data collection was not useful in an Arab culture (Metwally, 2010). Metwally (2010) argued that being a young, single, female researcher in an Arab culture gave employees a negative impression that the researcher was unqualified. Accordingly, the researcher had to build rapport and gain employees' trust through spending time discussing issues and exchanging ideas. This was done through interviews and observations. This was not the case in this study as being an academic made it easy for the researcher to collect data using questionnaires in academic settings.

Stage 2: interviews

Interviews were used for data collection at this stage as they provided in-depth analysis of emerging themes. Interviews aimed to identify the influence of gender differences on leadership styles. Specifically, it aimed to explore answers to the following:

- **What is the leadership style of Egyptian male and female leaders?**
- **To what extent does the leadership style differ across male and female leaders?**
- **Is transformational leadership exercised by female leaders only?**
- **How does gender influence subordinates' satisfaction?**

Semi-structured interviews were conducted at the faculty level. Although interviews had a general guideline to follow, the interview allowed for an exchange of thoughts and ideas between the interviewer and interviewees. Further, it allowed interviewees to express themselves freely. This was useful in raising issues that were not covered by the interview guideline. The interview guideline focused on the same themes of questionnaires regarding the assessment of transactional and transformational leadership. 40 interviews were conducted including 20 interviews in each university. The researcher kept interviewing until it was believed that nothing new is added by new interviewees.

7.3 Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software was used for data analysis. The scores have been correlated to elements of transformational and transactional leadership styles as well as subordinates' satisfaction. The aim was to test research hypotheses aiming to examine of transformational leadership on subordinates satisfaction taking into consideration gender. Descriptive statistics were also used including mean, standard deviation. Pearson correlation has been used to examine the correlation between dependent variable (job satisfaction) and independent variable (leadership style). In addition, multiple regression analysis has been used to examine the effect of leadership style on subordinates' satisfaction using two mediating variables: gender and years of experience.

8. Results

Pearson's Correlation was used for data analysis to investigate the influence of transactional and transformational leadership styles on subordinates' satisfaction- Table 2.

Table 2: Correlation between Leadership Style and Subordinates' Satisfaction

Subordinates' Satisfaction	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership		
.574**	.278*	1	Pearson Correlation Sig.	Transformational Leadership
.000	.048	.000		
51	51	51	N	
.178	1	.278*	Pearson Correlation Sig.	Transactional Leadership
.211	.000	.048		
51	51	51	N	
1	.178	.574**	Pearson Correlation Sig.	Subordinates' Satisfaction
.000	.02	.000		
51	51	51	N	

** Significant correlation at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)

*Significant correlation at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)

As shown in Table 2, there is a significant relationship between leadership style and subordinates' satisfaction. However, this relationship is stronger and more significant in the case of transformational leadership ($r=0.178$, $p=0.02$) (transactional leadership, $r=0.574$, $p=0.000$). This implies that transformational leaders can better satisfy their subordinates compared to their transactional counterparts. In other words, subordinates are satisfied with transformational more than transactional leaders. These results support the first hypothesis. Thus:

there is a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates' satisfaction.

Also, leadership style is not related to gender. As, differences in leadership styles occur among male leaders as well as among female leaders. Thus, the relationship between gender and leadership style is insignificant ($p > 0.1$).

Comparing means and standard deviations of leadership styles on the one hand, and gender on the other, shows an interesting result as transactional leadership is practiced by female leaders more than their male counterparts.

Table 3: Gender and Leadership Styles

Leadership Style	Male Leaders		Female Leaders
	Mean	SD	Mean
Transactional	2.28	0.61	2.33
Transformational	2.32	0.75	2.17

Regarding the relationship between years of experience and satisfaction with transformational leadership, data analysis shows a very strong positive significant correlation ($r= 0.478$, $p=0.001$) between subordinates' experience and satisfaction with transformational leadership. Accordingly, the second hypothesis is supported as:

Subordinates' experience is positively correlated to their level of satisfaction with transformational leadership.

Also, data analysis show a significant negative relationship between gender of the leader and subordinate on the one hand, and subordinates' satisfaction, on the other ($r=-0.576$, $p= 0.045$). This implies that leaders and subordinates of the opposite gender work better together. Accordingly, the third hypothesis is supported:

There is a significant negative relationship between gender similarity (of leaders and subordinates) and subordinates' satisfaction.

8. Discussion

Although questionnaires were useful in investigating the relationship between leadership styles and subordinates' satisfaction, more understanding of different themes related to gender, transformational leadership, and subordinates' satisfaction was needed. Interviews were very useful in providing in-depth understanding and exploration of identified themes. This is discussed below:

8.1. Gender and Leadership Style

The literature presents different views regarding the influence of gender on leadership styles. While some researchers believe that females employ a different leadership style than males (e.g. Lyons & McArthur, 2007; Heilman et al, 2004; kim & Shim, 2003; Kabacoff, 2001), few researchers believe that gender is not the only factor that influences leadership style (e.g. Anderson et al, 2006; Morgan, 2004; Chemers et al, 2000). findings of this study show that leadership styles differ across male as well as across female leaders. Transactional and transformational leaders are found among female and male leaders.

An interesting research finding of this study is that Egyptian female leaders tend to be more transactional. This is in contrast with the large amount of research classifying females as transformational (e.g. Heilman et al, 2004; kim & Shim, 2003). As explained by interviewees, this is closely related to the idea of 'glass ceiling' which is regarded as a barrier that excludes women from higher level leadership positions. This barrier is usually related to prejudice and discrimination (Morrison et al, 1987). Interviewees (males and females) suggest that women have been prototyped as emotional and spend most of their time in socialization rather than work achievements.

Thus, females in their organizations try to employ behaviors that do not fit with the leadership prototype held by their followers as well as other members of the organization. As Halford & Leonard (2001) conclude, men and women are different within their organizations. Halford & Leonard argue that this difference is reflected in the preference of males rather than females.

Nevertheless, considering the classification of the Egyptian culture as masculine (Rehm et al, 2008; EL-Zahhar & Hocoovor, 1990), females found that the only way to grow in their organization and break the 'glass ceiling' was by acting like males.

8.2. Individuals of the opposite gender work better together

Another research finding is that individuals of the opposite gender work better together. Regardless of leadership style, female subordinates are found to be more satisfied with their male leaders. In contrast, male subordinates are more satisfied with female leaders. This supports a previous research finding (Ahmed, 2002). Three cultural perspectives have been raised during the interview phase and are useful in explaining this type of relationship: Suspicion, Prototyping, and reliability.

- *Suspicion*: 'suspicion' is a basic feature of the relationship between individuals of the same gender. This is also referred to as 'jealousy'. Suspicion results in misinterpretation of behavior. This may results in a poor communication between leaders and followers.
- *Prototyping*: female leaders have been prototyped as supportive, caring, and emotional encourage. This encourages followers to develop a flexible, stable, and relaxing relationship with their female leaders. On the other hand, female workers prefer to work with male leaders who are precise, rational, and goal oriented. Moreover, this is a good opportunity for females to change the usual prototyping of females as unreliable or un dependable.

- *Reliability: in an Arab culture, female leaders prefer to work with male followers as they believe they are reliable, dependable, and hard workers. On the other hand, male leaders prefer to work with female followers as they easily accept and follow work instructions with little arguments.*

8.3. Experience

Data analysis shows that subordinates' experience positively influences level of satisfaction with transformational leadership. As explained during the interview phase, older academics with a long working experience are more satisfied with transformational leadership compared to young academic with a limited experience. This difference can be explained using Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1962; 1954; 1943). First: individuals usually focus on financial satisfaction at the beginning of their career. As individuals are financially satisfied, they aim to achieve other goals. Some goals lead directly to financial satisfaction; others are related to nonfinancial satisfaction. Academics with a long experience tend to be more concerned with issues such as recognition and appreciation as well as loyalty to their organization.

Second, transactional leadership seems to be more effective with young academics as they will be rewarded against achieved work objectives that lead to financial satisfaction. However, Transformational leadership tends to be more accepted by academics with more experience aiming to a higher level of achievements, appreciation, and recognition. This can be easily done by relating individual interests to organizational interests which is the heart of transformational leadership.

9. Research Implications

Leadership style is not an end in itself. It is the output of different personality dimensions including values and beliefs. Subordinates' satisfaction is highly influenced by the extent to which their values and beliefs are in accordance with those of their leaders. Values and beliefs form individuals' attitudes that are expressed through different behaviors in different situations.

Considering the extraordinary impact of transformational leadership on the individual and organization level, there is a need to encourage the application of transformational leadership in today's organizations. Organizations should select leaders who have the necessary personality traits to exercise transformational leadership. In Egypt, like other Arab countries, practicing transformational leadership needs a crucial shift in individuals' values and beliefs which makes change a necessity. This change occurs at two dimensions: organization (micro) level and country (macro) level.

Change at the organization level should focus on changing values and beliefs of organizational members in general, and leaders in specific. The way to achieve this is through *'training'*. The traditional type of training that focuses on *'situational, single-loop learning'* is no longer useful in this case (Argyris, 1976). As it develops leaders' abilities to develop solutions suitable to the problem they face without changing their mental structure (Pastor & Mayo, 2006; Kim, 1993). Training used to build transformational leaders has to be a *'double-loop'* learning Argyris (1990, 1991). Double-loop learning occurs when people change their values, beliefs, and mental map. It results in a long term change in behaviors..

The difference between transformational and transactional leaders is in the mental structure (values, beliefs, thoughts) rather than managerial skills (Pastor & Mayo, 2006). Thus, training has to focus on making necessary changes in individuals' values and beliefs to ensure that dimensions of transformational leadership are deeply rooted in individual's personality.

However, creating transformational leaders through changing values and beliefs needs more effort than just training at the organization level. Egyptians tend to be individualistic as they believe in individual rather than group work. Also, Egyptians value the *'father leader'* in guiding and leading family/group members (Bochner, 1994). The *'father leader'* is similar to the *'transactional leader'* who guide followers by giving instructions and providing rewards for achieving goals. Thus, developing transformational leaders needs deep change in the Egyptian culture including Egyptians' values, beliefs, and way of thinking. This cannot be accomplished over a short period rather; it needs a deep change in the education system including teachers, teaching methods, curricula, and methods of evaluation.

10. Limitations & Further research

In this study age was used to reflect years of experience. Thus, older academics have more experience than younger ones. This is not always the case. Sometimes individuals decide to change their careers and begin an academic job after spending many years in another nonacademic job. Thus, further research that separates age from experience is needed.

The study was conducted over a short time period. The most effective way in studying change is to study change over a long period of time (Dawson, 2003). This allows observing change, implementation, identifying errors, and making necessary changes when needed. Using a longitudinal study to test research hypotheses can provide more interesting results.

Conducting the same study in other industries and comparing results to the results generated in the academic field is an interesting future research. This is expected to illustrate the influence of *organizational culture*.

Future research is also needed to demonstrate the influence of organizational culture in public universities in comparison to private universities. Whilst the current study focused on academics, future research is needed to study the influence of gender on leadership styles and subordinates' satisfaction among administrative staff.

Finally, it is very important to investigate reliability of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) in Egyptian organizations. One of the reasons for using the MLQ in this study is the high reliability proved by many researchers in different Western settings. However, retesting the reliability of the MLQ in an Arab culture may provide different results. Doing so was behind the ability of this study as it requires in-depth analysis of data collection using a large sample over a long time period.

11. Conclusion

This study explored the influence of gender differences on leadership styles of Egyptian academics and its impact on subordinates' satisfaction. The study aimed to compare research results in an Arab country with previous research results in the West. The study used questionnaires and interviews for data collection. Data was collected from three Egyptian universities. Similar to Western countries, the leadership style is found to be significantly related to subordinates' satisfaction. Further, transformational leadership is significantly correlated to subordinates' satisfaction as Egyptian leaders can satisfy subordinates more than their transactional counterparts.

Regarding the relationship between gender and leadership style, gender is found to be insignificant in determining the leadership style as differences exist across males as well as across females. The idea of 'glass ceiling' and the stereotyping of females in Arab cultures have highly influenced females' leadership styles. Females tend to behave as males to break the glass ceiling and be accepted in their organizations. An important finding of this study is that subordinates of the opposite gender of their leaders are more satisfied.

The results of this study are significantly important to organizations that aim to achieve high levels of employees' satisfaction and exceed the required results. Transformational leadership needs change in values and beliefs of individuals. This change can be achieved using training programs at the organizational level. However, a change in the educational system at the country level to support a change in the mental structure of Arab individuals is the way to build new generations of transformational leaders.

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Entrepreneur of the Regime Change - the Fusion of the Hungarian Economy with Organized Crime

Tamas Bezsenyi

busojaras@gmail.com

Abstract

In recent years the Hungarian administration of justice trialed some of the most famous murder cases of the 1990's which were contract killing between organized crime groups. These trials brought up many new information about the life of organized crime gangs and given a better opportunity to criminologist to understand the recent activity of the organized crime gangs. I wrote my thesis about how organized crime successfully survived the crisis of the regime change. The following research based on a tight cooperation with Pest County Police Headquarters where I analyzed criminal files about organized crime gangs after the regime change. The main question of the research was: what sociological and economical factors contributed to the strengthening of organized crime In Hungary? Where can we discover the responsibility of the state? How state regulation affected organized crime? The present days organized crime roots from illegal criminal groups existed in the socialist period. Thanks to the liberal economic reforms in 1981 the second economy had a great economic potential during the socialist period. Organized criminal groups often invested in private sector thus corporate crime became linked to organized crime. Due to their better economic conditions the criminal networks could establish different kind of private ventures, like restaurants, pubs or tobacco shops. After the declaration of democracy many organized crime networks took advantage of regulatory gaps. They preserved their status and informal capital from the second economy. Due to the economical change the new entrepreneurs informally forced to borrow capital from organized crime groups, or they used these group's money to recover their debts. They could not turn to court because of their illegal transactions. Other organized crime networks misused government subsidies and created semi-firms, which could operate successfully due to the problems of state control. My research seeks to show that during the third Hungarian Republic from the 1990's organized crime groups have worked with the help of entrepreneurs. Due to the economic crisis of 2008 and the emergence of political extremism the organized crime groups became number one public enemies, who are again using the same methods what were successful during early 1990's. A kind of semi-legal market and entrepreneurship has developed since 2008.

Keywords: Entrepreneur, Regime Change, Hungarian Economy, Organized Crime

Introduction

The political-economic system change of 1989/1990 effected Hungarian organized crime syndicates as well. With the change of legal frameworks, it became harder for authorities to keep track of organized criminal activities. Society at large started fearing the unknown, since during socialism the entire concept of organized crime was *terra incognita* for the majority. Through a notorious case, I wish to explore how organized criminal activity transformed as a result of the system change.

I wish to prove, that criminal successfully exploited the transformational crisis and the ensuing legal loopholes caused by the system change. János Kornai identified the collapse of former export markets as one of the symptoms of this transformational crisis. My research shows, that this was indeed one of aspects of the system change that organized crime syndicates successfully exploited. Other important causes of the transformational crisis included the low efficiency of bureaucracy, the underdevelopment of the financial markets and the persistence of strong grey and black economies.

"The chaotic transition of the Soviet Union to the market economy created the conditions for the widespread penetration business activities in Russia... by organized crime." According to sociologist Manuel Castells (2007: 200), this process helped intensify legal and illegal trading activities with the post-soviet area. In a 1994 report, the Center for Social and

Economic Analysis – a background institution of the Office of the President of Russia – estimated that around 10% of economic actors in Russia were involved in illegal economic activities, with illegal transactions equaling 20% of the capital worth of the regular economy (Izvestiya 1994).

Through a Hungarian example, I wish to highlight, that throughout Eastern Europe, informal ties and legal or illegal business models developed throughout socialism remained predominant in these newly emergent market economies. I believe it to be telling, that many of the people killed during the mafia vendettas of the 90s in Hungary were businessmen involved in either legal or semi-legal activities, through which they were making serious profits (Barnóczy – Prókai 2012). The Russian newspaper *Kommersant* practically ran an obituary on Hungarian businessmen murdered in mafia vendettas (Goldman 1997.).

In this paper, I wish to show how the *new capitalists* that emerged following the system change, fused together with the newly emerged organized criminals. I wish to prove, that Mr. József Stadler was and would have been a successful businessman without associating himself with criminal elements. I also wish to refute the popular perception – perpetrated by the media – that Mr. Stadler was nothing more than a tax evader: such an interpretation of his activities greatly oversimplifies the truth. The reason this perception emerged, was largely due to the fact that economic journalists of the day, did not have a profound understanding of the dynamics of the new, capitalist market. Indeed, the quality of such investigative journalism remains questionable even today. It should also be underlined, that the journalists that took issue with Mr. Stadler, almost exclusively focused on the uncertain political aspects of the case (Index 2001), although given the evidence that was at their disposal at the time, they could and should have been able to see the much more tangible interests motivations behind the dubious entrepreneurs actions.¹ József Balla points out, that court cases of rural districts, are primarily taken-up by freelance journalists, who feel pressured to produce entertaining articles, in order to sell them to newspapers. From such an *infotainment* perspective,² the twenty years old girlfriend and the oil painting of the entrepreneur proved to be the most important aspects of the case. In order to dig-up the juicy details, such journalists endeavored to build close relationships with accomplices of Mr. Stadler. For all practical purposes, this means that such “*cooperation (however we may judge it)*” determines “*the angle the readers of the story get the following day, that is to say, the aspects of the case that are thrust into the public eye*”(Ballai 2001a). We should however mention that even information derived from such information, may produce factual errors, even in extensively researched books, dedicated wholly to the subject (Ambrus 1995).³

Penetration of organized crime into the economy

I hypothesize that following 1990, organized crime syndicates underwent a qualitative change due to the transformations in the economy and the legal system in Hungary. This is why my research only extends only until September 15th 1997, when the legislator instituted the term of ‘organized crime syndicate’ into the penal code with the LXXIII. law. Examining the timeframe of 1980-1990 is especially important from an organized crime-criminology perspective, since the effects of today’s organized crime activities are hard to fathom. This is why taking a historical perspective is more justified. There is much to explore, highlighted for example by the fact that many of the vendettas of the 90s are still shrouded in uncertainties.

The case of József Stadler – an entrepreneur from Akasztó – became one of the most iconic cases of the 90s, calling the attention of the wider public to the deficiencies of the newly emerging market economy in Hungary. Due to the intensification of vendettas and other high profile economic crimes (Globex, Postabank-case) during the second half of the decade, **the public forgot the significance of the Stadler case**. Journalists and other experts tended to focus on later crimes in their books (Mong – Vajda 2009) or articles (Diós 2009).

¹ Refreshing exception József Ballai, who had done extensive investigative work in connection with the Stadler case.

² The information (information) and entertainment (entertainment) English nouns flattening of the resulting concept.

³ This kind of suspicion already appeared earlier works of Ambrus. See: Zelei Miklós: Még egy kis Ambrusológia. *Beszélő*, 1990/ 1., 3.

Through a series of interviews conducted with police detectives, it quickly became apparent that for the reasons mentioned above¹, the case of the entrepreneur from Akasztó – along with his motivations, and the criminal techniques applied – quickly faded from the agendas of criminal justice conferences and symposiums as well. In the meantime, the case file grew so thick, that involving new detectives in the investigation became increasingly difficult, and eventually impossible. Just bringing new officers up to speed through a detailed overview of the files would have taken several weeks at first and would have later taken several months at least. According to one of the detectives, one of the house-searches alone yielded several hundred kilogram bags of documents, occupying 40m² of storage space². Undoubtedly, one of the most ironic elements of the case is the fact, that the case documents – totaling several tons – are nowhere to be found. They are not in the police archives, and according to my inquiries, they are not in the Hungarian historic archives either. By all accounts, it seems that they have been scrapped.³

Throughout my research, I conducted interviews with retired and still active police officers – 4 all together, who were investigated the Stadler case. These proved immensely useful to fill in the gaps left by the case files, and in complementing the information found within them as well. Although I followed the chronological order of the case during the interviews, in order to be able to uncover new pieces of unexpected information, I employed a semi-structured interview structure (Kovács 2007). The success of the methodology used, is largely dependent on the interviewees level of trust towards the interviewer. Most of my subjects wished to stay anonymous. In order to avoid possible “*interview-traps*” I have used the Gabriele Rosenthal (2006) method, treating all interviews as a related narrative, and taking notes on the meta-communicational signals of the subjects, interpreting the entirety of the interviews.

Difficulties of investigating organized- and economic crimes

In the following, I will review the effects that the political system change of 1989 had on the police force's relation to investigating economic crimes. By doing so, I hope to shed light on the true nature and extent of the influence of Mr. Stadler in this process. The following analysis aims to showcase that the entrepreneur from Akasztó was – and would have remained – a profitable businessman without committing economic crimes. This assertion is also closely related with the rejection of the assertion that the main source of illegal revenues of Mr. Stadler came from VAT fraud. The fact that the media persistently identified him as a VAT fraudster is due to several things.

For one, journalists of the day were not particularly well versed in the different methods of economic crimes. Adding to this was the misguided perception of several police officials. At the time of the system change, the social ownership protection of the police departments (TT - as how the police informal language referred to the social protection of property) were on the verge of being closed down, and with the dawn of the market economy, several high ranking police officers advocated that these not be transformed into general property protection departments. In his testimony in front of the Parliament's Oil Committee in 2000, brigadier General Gerenal Ernő Kiss said the following: “*some police leaders voiced strong opinions, that in a market economy, there was no need for any economy-related police work.*”⁴ This quote allows us to deduce, that some prominent police officials of the day, had an overly optimistic, vulgarized understanding of Adam Smith's invisible hand theory. Their reductionist premise suggests, that following the creation of a capitalist market economy, committing economic crimes that were perpetrated during the time of majority state ownership and incumbent state companies would become senseless.

¹ Interview with “B. M.” police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

² Interview with “B.I.” retired police colonel, 2013.03.31.

³ Interview with “B. M.” police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

⁴ Minutes of the Parliamentary investigative committee created to investigate any possible links between the oil business and organized crime. 2000. 10 o'clock Monday, October the 30th, meeting held at meeting room number 61 of the Parliament, accessible online at: last download: 2013.05.15 <http://www.parlament.hu/biz36/olaj/v006-021.htm>

The lack of understanding surrounding the nefarious activities of Mr. Stadler was compounded by another issue. On the 5th of January, 1990 prominent politicians from SZDSZ and FIDESZ brought charges against the State Security Service of the Ministry of the Interior, for illegally spying on opposition parties and civil society initiatives. Although, according to the constitutional modification of October 23, 1989 such methods were banned. However, the official police charges included incriminating documents, like Report 219. prepared by József Végvári, group leader of the Ministry of Interior's Interior Security group BM III/III-7. on the 10th of November 1989. The opposition parties held a press conference in the Miner's Cinema after they pressed the charges. Here they presented other reports from the same group. Reports from December the 6th, the 20th, and the 22nd contained a significant amount of information attained by covert methods (phone taping, violation of private correspondence, informants). As an immediate consequence of the ensuing scandal, Minister of the Interior István Horváth resigned his office at the end of January of 1990 (Dunagate – report 2015).

As a result the of all the public attention the case was getting, high ranking police officials felt compelled to indiscriminately disband informant networks, including assets working in the field of criminal justice.¹ This decision proved to be detrimental. Without assets, carrying out operative investigations proved to be nearly impossible. Investigations regarding economic crimes took a particularly heavy blow. During the transition period many of these crimes were committed against the state its self.² In many cases, the damages caused were less apparent and thus went unnoticed. Counter to the pre-1989 mentality, the Criminal Code of the day did make it possible (in chapter XVII) for economic crimes to be committed against private entities, not just the state and its companies. Informally, however, the state remained at the center of the authorities' perception of economic crimes. On the one hand, the newly established private sector relied largely on the process of privatization to gain access to equipment that was once state property.³ On the other hand, through the criminalization of tax avoidance, the state retained its presence in the market economy.

At the time, the National Police Department⁴ (*ORFK*) did not have a separate property damage department. The Budapest Police Department's (*BRFK*)⁵ property damage department functioned as an operative entity only, with concrete investigations being conducted by a general *investigative* department. County police departments had property damage departments, which conducted both operative and investigative work. However, without informants, conducting meaningful operative work became impossible (Korinek 2015).

The decision not to transform the departmental structures of the police force to better suit the changing economic realities – i.e. by not converting the communal property damage departments into property damage departments, and the decision to disband the informant networks – lead to a drastic increase in economic crimes like fraud, embezzlement or malfeasance.

Both Brigadier General Ernő Kiss and Police Colonel László Tonhauser emphasized that the above mentioned decisions effected economic crimes related detective work the most. In the case of a homicide or larceny case, it is easier to find witnesses and the media can be used to aid the investigation to greater avail. In the case of economic crimes⁶ however, insider information or turned witnesses are many times the key of resolving a case, with the media playing no role in the investigative process. This is due to the fact, that intricate economic crimes are much harder to present in an intriguing way toward media consumers.⁷ It is common knowledge that many crime-investigation related movies and series portray

¹ Interview with "N.L." retired police colonel, 2013.04.17

² Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

³ In the current tax-law (Law C. of 2000) the basic accounting equation makes it possible to describe a company's accounts by looking at the changes in tools and financial instruments. (Losonczy Csaba – Magyar Gábor: *Pénzügyek a gazdaságban*. Juvent Kiadó, Budapest, 1996. pp. 415-417.)

⁴ Hierarchically the highest national body of law enforcement in Hungary

⁵ The main police department of Budapest.

⁶ For the sake of simplicity, I define economic crimes as those that according to the Hungarian penal code, may be committed against property, since fraud and embezzlement investigations are conducted by property protection departments regardless of their placement in the penal code.

⁷ One of the refreshing exceptions from the past years is the series produced by criminal investigative journalist David Simon, entitled: "The Wire", which chronicles crime fighting in Baltimore.

misrepresent the actual nature of detective work to make it more sellable, economic type investigation, however is never even portrayed.¹ Over the past twenty years, a considerable amount of investigative journalism has been focused on introducing these crimes into the perception of the wider society. Even so, the transgressions of politicians and other public office holders are those that are mostly present in the media. Economic crimes (domestic and transnational alike) committed by non public figures mostly fly under the radar – save very few exceptions.²

The realization and acknowledgement of these processes calls for the reinterpretation of the statistical data presented in Mihály Tóth's research paper: *Market Economy and Criminal Law*. Tóth's (1995: 4–5) data shows, that the number of crimes committed per year rose from approximately 100.000 in 1974 to over 400.000 in 1994. The most significant increase took place following the transition to the market economy. Between 1986 and 1988 the yearly number of crimes known to the authorities was 180.000 on average. This number steadily increased: to 225.393 in 1989, to 341.061 in 1990, to over 400.000 in 1991 and to 447.215 in 1992. According to Tóth's (1995: 4–5) data, the number of economic crimes stayed more or less stagnant at 8000/year all throughout this period. As seen from the article, the author had difficulties explaining this stagnation, saying that two-thirds of these crimes were tariff and foreign exchange related, who's: "*number was constant (or at least, the amount of money spent on uncovering these crimes was)*" (Tóth 1995: 5). However, this does not explain, why only the number of economic crimes stagnated, and it disregards the fact, that other departments or segments of the police force were working at full capacity as well. Tóth's argument is more useful in explaining why the number of economic crimes decreased by 1994: the opening of the borders and the transformation of the economy brought about new customs regulations as well. At the end of his explanation, Tóth suggests that the authorities are lagging behind criminals when he points to the fact, that several areas of criminal behavior were ignored by the police force. He brings the deficiencies of the 1994 criminal statistical handbook as an example. Although profiteering had been taken out from the criminal code, and the definition of unfair price increasing had changed significantly, the handbook still included the pre-system change categories (Tóth 1995: 7).

The lack of restructuring the police force following the 1989 transition, as outlined above seem like the most plausible explanation for this lack of increase in the statistics. The anachronistic language used by Tóth in his analysis and the outdated problem-understanding behind the statistics totally disregard the fact of the system change. This gives a further indication of the ill preparedness of the police force of the day.

According to Tóth, the radical decrease in economic crimes in 1994 does not indicate a "*spectacular improvement*" (Fekete Gy. 1995: 1) as seen by the frequency of stories of economic crimes being published in the press. Since many crimes remained hidden, Tóth only aimed at estimating the approximate share of economic crimes in relation to other crimes, to see if their importance increased or decreased. Partly based on the press material published by a investigative journalist, who interviewed the director of ORFK's criminal unit (Fekete Gy. 1995: 1), Tóth concluded that the weight of economic crimes had increased. In the frontpage article of Attila Gy. Fekete, the journalist interviewed the criminal director of the time, Antal Kacziba, who claimed that counterfeiting (Vegeta spice, Herendi Chinaware) was one of the major threats during his tenure. For the latter, unauthorized loans VAT refunds, fake collateral certificate recorded were the biggest issues. At the request of a political TV program ("*A Hétfő*") a Hungarian public opinion research firm, Sonda Ipsos made a poll, in which they found that according to two-thirds of the respondents the reason for growing phenomenon of economic crime was associated to regime change and the incomplete nature of economic rules (Fekete Gy. 1995: 6).

So while the detection of these crimes by police decreased during the first half of the 90s, according to the police officer cited by Tóth, and according to other public statements made by police leaders – that I will refer to later – the actual number of economic crimes experienced an unprecedented boom.

¹ Enough to emphasize the complaints of police officers who mentioned several times to the media that the citizens demand from them the techniques and methods what they saw in the TV. Fekete Gy. Attila: A magyar nyomkeresők bealszanak a CSI-on. *Népszabadság* 2009. 11. 28. (<http://nol.hu/lap/hetvege/20091128-nyomkeresok>)

² Most of the exemptions may be found in print or online media forums, like the Hungarian weekly HVG, or *Átlátszó*.hu.

In 1996, Antal Kacziba, then deputy state secretary of the interior was already talking of the “explosive increase” of fraud and bankruptcy crimes, owing to the introduction of new legislation in 1994-95 relating to public procurement, bankruptcy crimes and protection of intellectual property rights. The new laws lead to an increased role of property protection departments in unveiling economic crimes. “*step by step, previously only rarely used criminal categories »came to life«*” (Kacziba 1996: 61).

Enumerating all the reasons for the initial latency of many crimes seems an impossible endeavor. I do however wish to identify the most important reasons. I find it essential to highlight the problems surrounding the capitalist transformation of the economy at large. Capitalist statecraft did not appear instantaneously following the collapse of the Iron Curtain in the post-socialist region of the Soviet Union. The collapse was followed by a transitional phase. Based on empirical findings, the manager-capitalist theory of Iván Szelényi shows that it was the technocratic managers and leaders of ex-incumbent socialist companies whose power and influence increased exponentially in the 90s, and not that of the small and medium entrepreneurs. In a period of low market capitalization, these managers – who mostly went on to lead the privatized equivalents of the socialist incumbents – could not create a stable capitalist market overnight. Their main assets were their informal contact networks, which they used as investable and transformable assets. During the socialist period the ownerships could be seen as a vacuum based on Pavel Câmpeanu, therefore József Böröcz (1992) emphasized the informal practices of the regime change. The system of mutual favors also played a very important constituent role in this world. These aspects of the system are stressed by Endre Sik (2012) as well when he talks about the system-specific processes of the system change. The joke of the day – cited by Szelényi (1995) – illustrates this situation: it is known, how fish stew (socialist state) can be made from an aquarium of fish (capitalist state), however the method of making fish out of fish stew is as of yet, unknown to man.

The next reason that needs to be mentioned is the outdated justice system of the day. In 1994, Tóth pointed out that it is often the case with new crimes, that they are interpreted totally differently by the prosecution and the police authorities. At the time, it was often the case, that crucial facts of the case were only established well after the initial investigative processes, since only qualified experts, like accountants were able to certify these facts. In relation to this phenomenon, Tóth cites an article February the 7th 1995 from the daily *Népszabadság*. The title of the article is already telling: “*A lack of experts is complicating investigations into economic crimes*”. Since then, experts in this field are held in much higher regard and their pay has increased significantly. Indeed, the field has become so lucrative, that there are many fraudulent “experts”. The phenomenon is well chronicled by an article in the 70th edition of *Criminology Review* written by István Jávör and Dávid Janics (2012), entitled *Corruption in the courthouse and the economy*.

Another good example is István Jávör’s article (*Corruption in the judiciary and the economy*), which deals with the issue of abusing the system of “experts”. Mihály Tóth in 1994 supported the usage of experts, especially on the side of the defense. In contrast Jávör (2011) found that the misuse of the experts changed the aim of the whole trial, facilitating endless polemics. Therefore the financial background of the defendant decided the outcome of the trial.

In 1994, Mihály Tóth argued for the extensive use of experts, advocating the defense’s right to employ them as well. However, looking at the findings of Janics and Jávör, we may say, that the overuse of experts and their fundamentally different assessment of the same situations has, in many cases, lowered the overall quality of the debate in court cases.

Furthermore, it is important to highlight the question of morale and law. Here I am referring to the lack of a strong economic or tax morale. This meant that Mr. Stadler was portrayed by some parts of the media and perceived by many as a folk hero of sorts – this is clearly illustrated by the article in *National Sport* (2007). Péter Imrédy wrote five volumes on the life of the entrepreneur, entitled “*The Stadler Story*”. The language used by Mr. Stadler in the interviews in the books is simple, peasant like with an almost rustical quality – similarly to the language he used in spoken language, as illustrated by several video interviews (Index 2007). Mihály Tóth lamented the lack of a proper societal moral compass himself, blaming the paternalistic perception of Hungarian society. According to him the extensive amount of written regulations resulted in “*arbitrary reinterpretation*” of the “*everything is allowed that is not prohibited by law (written laws of course!)*” norm (Tóth 1995: 23). In other words, the lag of the speed and the unclear phrasing of new regulation in the wake of the political

economic system change – and the abundance of legal loopholes – facilitated the blurring between the lines of legality and illegality. Jávör and Rozgonyi (2005: 155–157) described on the basis of level of organizational operation calls this negative legitimacy. While a positive process of legitimation of state bodies accountable to guarantee accountability, while the state administration bodies are not similar to positive action, but in the opposite direction guarantee provided to members of the society, which is an informal, social acceptance level makes the norm violation.

Entrepreneur of the regime change

In order to be able to properly interpret the criminal behavior of József Stadler, it seems useful to consider Antal Kacziba's observations on organized crime. He believes that a prime indicator of the fact, that someone is partaking in organized criminal activity, is the speed of his wealth acquisition – something observable by the extensive usage of luxury items. He also mentions the possibility of laundering money by investing into legal business activities as a possible connection between organized crime syndicates and individuals involved in illicit economic activities. According to Kacziba, this new form of cooperation was brought on by the circumstances of the 90s. Valér Dános believes that these two groups already started cooperating in the 80s as an unwanted side effect of privatization and as an inner conflict of economic liberalization.

József Stadler started exporting various products to eastern markets from the 1990s, especially to the Soviet Union, and the newly emergent Ukraine and Russia. In police testimonies made in front of the Parliament's Oil Committee, the implications of the dissolution of the Soviet Union were discussed. According to Ernő Kiss: *„the penetration of people from various parts of the state institutions into the spheres of economy has started there as well. We have the appropriate connections. Right from the start, we should have done the same. We did not however have the appropriate staff to conduct information gathering operations in Ukraine or even in Russia based out of Hungary.”*¹ Besides the deficiencies caused by the disbanding of the informant networks, State Security's lack of adequate connections with the services of neighboring countries made uncovering trans-boarder criminal networks specializing in economic crimes practically impossible. It is likely that formerly high ranking state officials of the Soviet Union – and other eastern republics – moved to lucrative economic activities without greater difficulties, much like they did in Hungary.

Following the 1991 dissolution of the Soviet Union, many things stayed the same in Russia, many soviet traditions lived on. The Hungarian economist László Csaba makes mention of the ban on bartering, instituted by the Russian government, in order to spur the population to use the official currency (Csaba 1991). The endeavors of Mr. Stadler were also helped by the fact, that the Russian government levied a 40% tax on profits made off of exported goods. Csaba (1991) describes the economic policies of Yelcin as having a sort of folkloric quality based on *poetry* and *realities*. The reason being, that while the political declarations made in the media lead observers to believe that the government was perusing a sound monetary policy, in reality they continued to pursue Soviet style planning cycles (Csaba 1992). Public perception of the so-called “shock therapy” applied in the Russian Federation was, that it was forced on Yelcin by the United States and the IMF (Csaba 1992). According to *Claus Offe*, Eastern-European societies faced the dilemma of simultaneity, since they had to undergo political, economic and social transformations at the same time. However, the restrictive market economic reforms “*only come into effect under pre-democratic conditions*” (Offe 1991: 118).

So, the social support that translates into democratic legitimacy was only an illusion. The media at the time, most likely understood this very well, since as Csaba (1991) points out, that the Russian journals of the day were making jokes to the effect, that the Russian leadership didn't even translate the IMF accession requirements into Russian when they joined the Monetary Fund instead they immediately translated the Russian declaration of joining into English. Csaba (1991) believes this to be as much of a folkloric element as the possible adherence to the IMF conditionality, which would have meant a restrictive money supply policy, and the liberalization of trade. Yelcin however applied the exact opposites of these policies.

¹ Minutes of the Parliamentary investigative committee created to investigate any possible links between the oil business and organized crime. 2000. 10 o'clock Monday, October the 30th, meeting held at meeting room number 61 of the Parliament, accessible online at: last download: 2013.05.15 <http://www.parlament.hu/biz36/olaj/v006-021.htm>

Csaba (1992) however points out that stabilization is less a question of economic theory than one of technical control mechanisms (Csaba 1999). Perhaps this is the reason, that during the Yeltsin period economic stabilization did not happen. According to Csaba, such stabilizations should have consisted of three main elements. First, the fixing of the exchange rate, which in turn would lead to equilibrium between black market and actual market prices. The restriction of the monetary supply would have artificially increased the availability of products. Reforms should have targeted both the expenditure and both the income sides of the budget. However, the reforms that took place in Russia between 1992 and 1996 almost exclusively target only the income side of the budget. Since economic liberalization in Russian took place without the proper stabilization, companies started accounting in USD and Deutschmark. Thus, Mr. Stadler received his income from the Russian market in these currencies as well. Having profits denominated in stable currencies was a big advantage at the time, when economic circumstances were fast-changing. The Russian state did not adhere to the strict monetary controls that it set itself at the time (Ponton 1994).

Gerashchenko once perceived as a strong supporter of the 1991 monetary reform¹ officially abolished more than 1000 billion ruble's worth of inter-company debts during the summer of 1992. This act, in and of its self greatly helped Russian industry, and especially companies focusing on military production. Of course, this policy resulted in the lasting instability of the ruble, and it hindered the continuation of any reforms to the overall economy. As a result, experts were acutely aware of the fact that the liberal turn in the Russian export policies would have to wait. That, convertible national currencies would not appear, and that inflation would go untamed. History has proven them right (Csaba 1992).

Grigorij Aleksevich Javlinsky, the later leader of the Russian Democratic Party (Jabloko) was strongly influenced by the thoughts of János Kornai and Michael Ellman, thus envisioning a sort of system of national capitalism (Javlinskij 1994). He discarded the notion of decentralized privatization. According to Tamás Krausz (2003), he did not want to accept a sort of periphery variety of capitalism. This meant, that even though he tried to put a stop to the *escape* of company executives and managers from state control, he could not. State companies started instituting "double accounting", selling more and more of their products on the black markets. This helps us understand why these companies would have been interested in being officially overbilled by their partners, since they could use such bills in their double accounting schemes. Later on, mid-level economic actors took over the state's control function through their extensive informal networks (Szelényi – Eyal – Townsley 1998).

According to Krausz (2003), Javlinsky saw these processes as maffiacapitalism, when instead of the emergence of market mechanisms, a system based on a sort of gambling logic emerges, which proves to be unsustainable due to the penetration of the black market, and the permanent avoidance of paying taxes. Russian liberals did not anticipate the importance of informal connections and the strength of such a culture of resistance to reform (Krausz 2003). Effectively, partaking in this informal economy became the primary prerequisite for anyone wanting to actually do business in the Russian economy at the time.

This meant that making profit became increasingly difficult on these eastern markets. Insider information, well placed informants and the exploitation of the loopholes in the laws were absolutely vital elements of success (Jávör – Rozgonyi 2005). Among other things, the financial interventions of Gerashchenko hindered the emergence of a stable market economy. Similarly to the Hungarian situation, there remained several factors that allowed József Stadler to exploit his existing contacts – and to find new ones – to maintain the profitability of his enterprises.

In 1988, József Stadler founded *Stadler LLC* with an initial capital stock of one million forints. Mr. Stadler was the chief executive of the company from the very start. At first, Stadler LLC only conducted trade within the borders of Hungary, however following the transition, the company quickly expanded to international trade. In the *Stadler Story*, Mr. Stadler says

¹ By decision of Valentin Pavlov – then financial minister of Russia – a certain amount of ruble's were taken out of circulation, in order to decrease the problems caused by the lack of products. According to the official explanation, the reason for the move was founded in the fight against counterfeit money. (Raddaway, Peter - Gliniski, Dmitri: *The Tragedy of Russia's Reforms: Market Bolshevism against Democracy*. US Institute of Peace Press, Washington D. C. 2001. pp. 273–274.)

that he had started out in the 60s by buying cheap alcohol from various collectives in Bács-Kiskun County, and selling it to neighboring pubs and restaurants at a profit (Imrédy 2008).

In the 80s, Mr. Stadler bought copious quantities of wine from these collectives, which he stored in wine cellars in Pest county until an opportunity to resell them at a profit presented itself.¹ This kind of activity was illegal, but in the book Stadler frames it, as a perfectly legal business model. However, he contradicts himself later on in the book, when he says, that what he was doing could only have been conducted legally by the commercial departments of the collectives. Stadler admits that he made special arrangements with these departments, to have some trucks delivering wine directly to his cellars.

By 1988-89 he had established such good relations with the leaders of various collectives, that he already had a good grasp on the workings of the wholesale distribution networks in the country. He started buying alcohol from the factory, and he built a large distribution network, operating with his own trucks. At the time of the system change, the manufacturers and wholesalers that Mr. Stadler had been doing business with got into a tough spot (Paládi 1988). The COMECON formally ceased to exist on June the 28th of 1991. Several companies lost the markets that they took for granted overnight: the Nagykovács canned food factory the SZOBI fruit concentrate factory, the Kőbánya beer factory or the Budafok wine cellar. This meant that Mr. Stadler could buy up their products dirt cheap. In 1990, the coalition Antall government was formed between MDF, KDNP and FKgP. The eastern markets were not overly important for these parties. The infamous "Tavarisi konyec" (it's over comrades!) poster of MDF symbolized the mentality of the governing coalition (Sárközy 2012). In reality, the reason for this distancing had more to do with the fact, that the economic supporters of the new government did not enjoy the sort of access to information and knowledge of the functioning of the state administration – as highlighted by László Csaba – on the eastern markets – as did their predecessors. In this time the imports of agricultural products constantly grew (Petschnig 1995). In a coauthored article, Alexandr Buzgalin and Andrej Koganov (1992) highlight the immense difficulties in penetrating the Russian market of the day. Miklós Kun (2010) – a historian – corroborated this in an interview he gave about Russian markets. He suggested that western companies had been supporting local traders in the newly emerging post-Soviet nations, who had good contacts with influential people in order to be well informed about the relations and situations on the ground.

The Antall government's decision to deepen trade relationships with Germany made the situation of the struggling Hungarian companies even worse. They were unable to sell their products on the German market, because of their low quality. To use a metaphor: it is easier to turn small ships in a narrow straight or bay in the direction of the wind, than it is turning a three mast giant. If we identify the narrow straight as the changes caused by the system change, than it is easier to see why newly emerged small entrepreneurs like Mr. Stadler – the little ships – had an easier time navigating the waters than humongous post socialist mammoth companies – three mast ships. The Antall government provided export subsidies to companies that were willing and capable of exporting. They provided agricultural exporters with a 30% cash-back subsidy of the prices of their exports. Entrepreneurs received 15-20% back on clothes and other consumer products (Juhász – Mohácsi 1995).

Comparing police interviews and the article of journalist József Ballai, it seems that Ballai's account of Mr. Stadler's initial success is very accurate.² Stadler LLC started off with a small fleet of trucks, however by 1993-94 the company "owned 42 – mostly Mercedes-Benz – bobtail trucks" (Ballai 2001a). At the time, the company made an export profit of 125 million dollars. Owing to Mr. Stadler's good contacts, his partners paid him in USD. In comparison to his profits from abroad, his one billion forint profit from the domestic Hungarian market seemed only like peanuts. At the exchange rate of the day, the 125 million profit made from exports equaled several tens of billions of forints. On the books, however Stadler LLC only showed a modest profit of 600 million forints. This meant that the company only had to pay corporate and other taxes after this amount.

¹ Imrédy Péter: *A Stadler story 1. kötet A kisjuhásztól a nagy felvásárlóig*. Kastély-Bor Kft., Akasztó, 2008. pp. 115-117.

² Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

At first, APEH – the Hungarian tax authority – only asked him questions about his company's inventory register, since he could never give an exact answer when asked how large his inventories were. When asked about his fruit concentrates and beer inventories, he always said, that he had X number of pallets, however he could not say how many bottles that meant in total.¹ József Lovas, a detective of the Kecskemét Police Department's property protection department conducted several covert investigations against Mr. Stadler, however there was never enough evidence to start conducting an overt investigation against the entrepreneur. In the Imrédy autobiography of Mr. Stadler, the entrepreneur makes mention of Detective Lovas, remembering how he would always call him into his office, and ask how he was able to make such immense profits (Imrédy 2008). It should be noted, that there is no proof as to the truth of this claim by Mr. Stadler, based on the interviews conducted with police detectives.

As the above cited figures show, Mr. Stadler's profits would have easily allowed him to pay the larger tax burdens, however he wanted a larger empire and he wanted it fast.² In order to achieve his goal, he used a double invoicing system. The lot numbers, dates, company information were exactly the same. Only the unit and final prices differed. He provided the tax authority with the invoice with the larger prices, in order to receive larger export subsidies. In other words, he received the subsidies after much larger – fictive – sales. This, and not the VAT fraud he committed, was the real source of his immense profits.³ If we look at Stadler LLC's books, we can easily see, that the non-fraudulent export subsidies that would have been due to the company after the actual sales prices, would have covered Mr. Stadler's costs and left him with a significant profit – approximately a third of what he made by his cooking of the books.⁴

The macro economical effects of the methods used

The only issue Mr. Stadler had to deal with because of his double invoicing scheme was that of the fictional profits his company was generating on paper – and thus the surplus taxes that he would have had to pay after these. In order to avoid paying these taxes, the accountant of the company, Gyula Hrubí, recommended generating surplus overhead costs and fictional losses, in order to eat-up the "*balloon profits*".⁵

This is how other organized crime syndicates appeared around Mr. Stadler. Nándor Pergel, a well tailored criminal, who spoke good French, and was involved in a horde of economic crimes, specialized in creating phantom companies in order to commit massive VAT fraud operations.⁶ His air-conditioned car at the beginning of the 90s gives a strong indication as to his financial situation. László Zsíros was one of Pergel's affiliates, in charge of accounting and phony invoicing. László Domák – or "Cinóber" as he was known - came from the world of prostitution and drug trafficking. He was shot dead on Üllői road – in the heart of Budapest - in 1996.⁷

These men were "*hardened criminals*"⁸, compared to Stadler, however they were willing to take the entrepreneur from Akasztó onboard as an accomplice in the VAT fraud that they had already been conducting beforehand, since they saw potential in Mr. Stadler. They hoped to increase their profits and expand beyond mere VAT fraud through their newfound ally.

This ring of criminals mainly specialized in "*transiting*" products through Hungary. One company would import 155 288 pieces of cosmetic items for 971 thousand forints, which it sold on to a second company for 41 million forints. This company then resold the items for 20 million forints. The third company then sold the items for 147.5 million to the fourth, which sold

¹ Interview with "K.F." retired police major, 2013.03.12

² Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

³ Interview with "B. I." retired police colonel 2013. 03. 31.

⁴ Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

⁵ Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

⁶ Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

⁷ Interview with "N. L." retired police colonel, 2013. 04. 17.

⁸ Interview with "B. I." retired police colonel 2013. 03. 31.

the items to Mr. Stadler's company for a few million more. Of course, the VAT was refunded by the tax authority to Mr. Stadler's company in Akasztó. However, József Balla's – the journalist chronicling Mr. Stadler's activities – claim that the VAT refund was the centerpiece of the illicit activities, is largely false. The above mentioned cosmetic items consisted of cheap French perfumes, and artificial leather shoes from Syria, manufactured for the dead – thus they were not of very high quality.¹ The above described process of "transiting" happened through nonexistent companies – that were unknown to the business registry court. Physically the imported items went right to Mr. Stadler's warehouse in Akasztó, for less than one million forints. After the "transiting" had taken place, Stadler LLC resold the stock to Ukrainian and Romanian companies for a little more than the purchase price. This meant, that he had his initial investment returned, and he could show a huge loss towards the tax authorities, which meant that the company's yearly profits would fall accordingly, and thus Mr. Stadler would have to pay less taxes.²

In order to unravel the process of "transitioning" the authorities had to prove that the companies involved did not exist. They succeeded in doing so. They also managed to prove that all the invoices were written with Nándor Pergel's typewriter.³

Part of the aforementioned illegal mechanisms can be attributed to the 1994 IX. Act, which introduced "dereliction to provide economic data" as an offense into the Penal Code. Michael Toth's statement that "legislators were perhaps a little late" to respond to the challenges of the new world seems a bit mild, with the usage of hindsight. Nonetheless it was an important milestone in the criminal prosperity of "illegally wealthy and partially lost or forever changed peerless business enterprises" (Tóth 2000: 232). The purpose of the law was clear: increase the public legitimacy of companies in the eyes of criminal law.

The media and the political impact of the case-Stadler

Another activity conducted by Mr. Stadler in order to increase his company's overhead costs shows just how easy it was for those involved in exporting to bamboozle even the authorities, which were unaware of many of the loopholes. In the interim period – between Mr. Stadler's moved from domestic business to exporting – the entrepreneur used the political and economic commotion to his advantage. He framed himself, as if he intended to do business with another emerging market economy, with similar endowments as Hungary. Various different Russian marketing agencies conducted marketing and market research activities for Stadler LLC in segments of the economy to which Mr. Stadler had no formal ties, but which he informally was very well acquainted with. The prosecution makes mention of seven invoices. These amounted to 2.4 billion in costs, which meant that the entrepreneur from Akasztó could decrease his tax base by 989.5 million in the year in question alone.

The majority of the media focused on Stadler the collector, since this was more tangible than the above described processes. It was something that could be presented in an entertaining and shocking story – well sellable in the media. In 1993, on paper Mr. Stadler bought 22 paintings – among which was *The Last Supper*, by Leonardo Da Vinci. Of course, it goes without saying that the XVth century fresco is located on the wall of the Santa Maria delle Grazie church in Milan and that art historians know of no original copy in existence. However, some art historians do claim, that in the XVIIth century, many painters did make canvas copies of the original. This claim was brought up several times by the defense attorneys of Mr. Stadler, as a mitigating circumstance, as Stadler could not have known if he was buying an original or not. Another peculiar item on the list of paintings bought by Stadler, were nudes painted by Mihály Munkácsy. According to art historians, Munkácsy never painted any nudes... Mr. Stadler paid for the lot of paintings in two installments – in cash in both cases. The joint tally of the two invoices came to 820 483 600 forints – this meant a VAT rebate of 205 120 900 forints.⁴

Stadler conducted his purchases for his collection through a certain Sergei Antoljevics Vexler – a Russian businessman. The authorities never found out who this person really was. As Stadler's defense argued that the fact that they could not

¹ Interview with "B. I." retired police colonel 2013. 03. 31.

² Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

³ Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

⁴ Interview with "N. L." retired police colonel, 2013. 04. 17.

find the man in question, was most likely due to the fact that Vexler is an extremely common surname. According to the invoices, Stadler bought the paintings from the ArtLux Gallery. The difficulties in inter-country justice assistance are well portrayed through the Vexler question. At first, Russian authorities admitted that the gallery in question did exist, and they claimed that a number of the paintings in question were stolen. Later on, however, as the case started gaining momentum, the Russian authorities denied the existence of the gallery, and the paintings as well. In the end, a Hungarian detective has to go to Moscow, to ascertain the existence of the gallery, and the companies behind it. Despite all the initial difficulties, in the end the cooperation of the Hungarian and Russian authorities proved that that none of the companies that Mr. Stadler conducted business with in Russia, actually existed.¹

The founding of Stadler FC – football club – and the building of a stadium was another topic that the media took interest in. The case detectives mentioned their shock when they found Mr. Stadler sitting amidst lavish luxury in a gold plated room. His stadium and his other properties were often home to extravagant parties, where he invited people of power and influence as well as prostitutes, who he provided with copious amounts of extravagant free food and drink.²

One could only speculate at the actual extent of Mr. Stadler's political connections, until *Magyar Nemzet* – a Hungarian daily – published (on the 22nd of February, 2001) a handwritten letter from Stadler, in which he asks *Csaba Hámori* and *Erő Balogh* – two members of the Hungarian Socialist Party – to return at least twenty-thirty million forints to him of the amounts that he paid them earlier, so that he – Stadler – could finance his legal expenses (Molnár 2001). Géza Deésy, a member of the FKGP party, and a co-defendant of Stadler was accused of helping the entrepreneur deal in dubious perfumes. As Dessex LLC – Deésy's company – neglected paying VAT, Stadler, the customer, received a reimbursement from the State. The third degree co-defendant of the case first gave an explicit and in-depth confession, but later recanted, citing physiological pressure by interrogators – one of who is an interview subject of mine, cited in this article. However, from his initial confession, we can find out, that Géza "*moneymaker*" (Ballai 2001b) Deésy was approached by the criminal ring, because of his extensive informal contacts. Deésy in turn, was supporting himself, and his party's coffers from the illicit earnings. Although it should be mentioned that these charges were not proven in a court of law. Still, it is interesting to see how this dynamic contributes to the XXth century version of Lajos Leopold's (1988) fake capitalism theory: the usage of informal networks financially benefits the political elites. This may be one of the reasons that Claus Offe (1991) claims, that the transition to market economy in Central-Eastern Europe is primarily a political endeavor.

Stadler, as a brand name

The Stadler case was the first instance in post-socialist Hungary, when a defendant could use the media to his advantage, thus putting pressure on the authorities from the Parliament as well. This proves that the battle for the media has to be won as well. In 1998, the court instructed the investigative authorities to conduct a new investigation. The initial first degree court verdict sentenced Mr. Stadler to 9 years of incarceration and the confiscation of all his property. In 2003, the second verdict, resulting from the new investigation sentenced Mr. Stadler to 4 and six months, without substantially changing the findings of the first degree court. The justification of the court for commuting the sentence was Mr. Stadler's bad health, and the fact that he has already been undergoing criminal proceedings in excess of 10 years (Index 2003). The second degree co-defendant of Mr. Stadler, Gyula Hrubí was sentenced to three years in prison, three years of banning him from practicing public citizen's rights, and a fine of 200.000 forints. The fourth degree co-defendant, Géza Deésy received three years in jail, for continued fraud and forgery of private documents.

Stadler LLC was liquidated by the tax authority, since it did not pay several outstanding tax bills. When it was eliminated, it had a debt of approximately 9 billion forints (Balai 2005). Corvin Bank, one of the most important credit sources of the

¹ Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

² Interview with "B. M." police colonel 2013. 02. 24., Interview with "K.F." retired police major, 2013.03.12

company never recovered the money that it lent Stadler LLC – which amounted to several billion forints, after late fines, and interest.¹

After being released from prison, the ex-entrepreneur opened a shop in Solt, where he conducted commercial activities. Owing to his prior conviction, he was prohibited by law from taking up a leading role in any company, so his second and third degree accomplices were registered as the chief executives of the company (Origo 2011). During the investigative phase of his second case, Mr. Stadler admitted that he founded and held majority ownership in two companies. However, he also claimed that because of his prior conviction, he did not take an active role as an executive. He claimed that his second and third degree accomplices fulfilled their duties as executives. The two companies were registered at the homes of the two accomplices; however the actual offices of the companies were in Solt. During the 2008 economic crisis, Mr. Stadler was utilizing his vast network of acquaintances to buy up clothes and foodstuffs below market prices in eastern countries, and import them to Hungary. He also bought unpackaged detergents in massive amounts at wholesale prices, packaging and branding the detergent under his own name (Index 2007). He bought the secondhand clothes in massive quantities as well, and resold selected pieces to the residents of Bács-Kiskun County as new.

The tactics used by Mr. Stadler during the 90s became successful once again in the 2000s, in large part due to the economic crisis. Mr. Stadler had more customers, and more illicit business associates than ever. According to the prosecution, between 2007 and 2010, Mr. Stadler caused 420 million forints worth of damages to the Hungarian State by issuing and accepting fraudulent invoices through companies in which he had interests, in order to apply for VAT refunds, in order to make illegal profits or decrease the tax burdens of his companies. The Szeged Appellate Court sentenced Mr. Stadler to 4 years and 10 months incarceration, and confiscation of property worth 67 million forints in November of 2011. According to the investigation materials, he bought the massive amounts of clothes from Western-Europe without providing invoices, and then with the help of his previous accomplice, Gyula Hrubí, he proceeded to produce fraudulent invoices to non-existent companies, claiming to have bought the clothes from them. However, since these companies were non-existent, they did not pay VAT. However, Mr. Stadler was able to apply for VAT reimbursement himself. It was suspected, that the clothes made their way to Eastern Europe by way of charity organizations, which illegally sold the clothes to Stadler and other criminal organizations. Since clothes arriving to Hungary from charity organizations could not be resold through commercial activity, it was necessary for Mr. Stadler to produce a paper trail. On paper he bought the detergents and other accessories at such a high price that he could again, write off some of his corporate tax base (Origo 2011).

With his trademark shout of “*I am innocent*” (Blikk 2005) and with his attacks on politicians, Mr. Stadler became successful in the media. Law enforcement officials that were socialized during totalitarian socialism were most likely puzzled by the fact that Mr. Stadler became a favorite of the newly privatized media outlets. Various newspapers and magazines helped create the image of a folk hero (Index 2011). This was something that could not have happened in the time of state run media only a few years earlier. From shepherd to billionaire entrepreneur: a real self made man. Since Mr. Stadler, the authorities take it for granted that cases have to be won not only in the court, but also in the media.²

Mr. Stadler was already a successful businessman during socialism. At the time of the system-change in Hungary through his extensive network of contacts he was capable of selling products that seemed unsellable at the time. By organizing the shipping activities himself, Stadler was able to extend his range, and his profits – through illicit activities. Mr. Stadler took advantage of raking in cash from criminals, looking to invest money attained through illicit enterprises into legal activities – something that was done regularly, as pointed out by Dános and Kacziba. However, the case of the entrepreneur from Akasztó is special, insofar as his criminal career took off, as a result of the legal uncertainties surrounding the system change of 1989, through the various semi-legal and illegal activities described above. The man that had gotten away with his illegal activities during socialism thanks to his good informal connections, used this advantage to start exporting to eastern markets following the system change. By accident or owing to political pressure, the media often portrayed him as

¹ Interview with “B. M.” police colonel. 2013. 02. 24.

² Interview with “B. M.” police colonel 2013. 02. 24.

a folk hero, which facilitated a faulty perception of the wider public of Mr. Stadler.¹ Nevertheless, the fact remains, that József Stadler was one of the most successful entrepreneurs of the system change.

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Universities as Political Institutions

Adela Coman

-Associate professor-

The University of Bucharest

E-mail: adela_coman2003@yahoo.com

Cătălina Bonciu

-Professor-

The University of Bucharest

E-mail: catalina.bonciu@yahoo.com

Abstract

This paper explores universities as political institutions in the first place. Some principles related to interest groups, power, competition for scarce resources and negotiation in search of compromise are found to be common to businesses and the academic environment as well. We then reviewed the main characteristics of political systems which we also found to be present in universities. We argue that politics in universities is not necessarily a bad thing since using it in an appropriate, rational way is proven to have more advantages than disadvantages. Next, we analyzed universities as coalitions, looked into their sources of power and decision making processes and discussed the relationship between authorities and partisans. Finally, we discussed some leadership issues in political systems using examples from our own experience as employees in different Romanian universities. Our concluding remarks support the idea that political action in universities may be used as an instrument for reaching goals if it is backed by leadership skills as drivers for promoting collaborative and interdependent relationships between internal and external audiences.*

Keywords: politics, universities, power, conflict, leadership

Introduction

The traditional view sees universities as created and controlled by legitimate authorities who set goals, design structure, hire and manage employees and ensure pursuance of the right objectives. The political view describes a very different world. Authorities have position power, but they must vie with many other contenders for other forms of clout. Contenders bring their own beliefs, values and interests. They seek access to various forms of power and compete for their share of scarce resources in a limited "institutional pie".

The question is not whether universities are political but rather what kind of politics they will have. Political dynamics can be sordid and destructive. But politics can also be the vehicle for achieving noble purpose. Institutional change and effectiveness depend on leaders' political skills. Constructive politicians recognize and understand political realities. They know how to fashion an agenda, map the political terrain, create a network of support and negotiate with both allies and

* Both authors have worked for many years in Romanian universities, public and private. The issues we have decided to discuss in our paper are frequently met in most institutions of higher education. This is the reason why we decided to refer to "the University", as representative for both public and private universities.

adversaries. In the process, they encounter a practical and ethical dilemma: when to adopt an open, collaborative strategy or when to choose a tougher, more adversarial approach. They have to consider the potential for collaboration, the importance of long-term relationships and most important, their own values and ethical principles.

This paper explores universities as political arenas in the first place. As arenas, universities house contests. An arena helps determine the rules of the game, the players and what is up for grabs. From this perspective, every organizational process is political. Some principles related to interest groups, power, competition for scarce resources and negotiation in search of compromise are found to be common to businesses and the academic environment as well. We then reviewed the main characteristics of political systems through the lens of their advantages and disadvantages as a starting point in support of the idea that using politics in institutions of higher education is not necessarily bad and counterproductive. Next, we analyzed universities as coalitions, looked into their sources of power and decision making processes and discussed the relationship between authorities and partisans. Finally, we discussed some leadership issues in political systems using examples from our own experience as employees in different public and private Romanian universities. Our conclusions support the idea that universities are not “doomed” by politics. Politics may be good for an institution of higher education if leadership skills and tools are used properly to cultivate collaborative relationships with internal and external audiences.

Universities as political arenas: the uncertainty of political outcomes

The political perspective views organizations as living, screaming political arenas that host a complex web of individuals and group interests. Principles that apply to businesses also apply to universities. There are five such principles that summarize the political perspective for universities (Bolman and Deal, 2003):

1. Universities are coalitions of diverse individuals and interest groups;
2. There are enduring differences among coalition members in values, beliefs, information, interests and perceptions of reality;
3. Most important decisions involve allocating scarce resources – who gets what;
4. Scarce resources and enduring differences make conflict central to universities’ dynamics and underline power as the most important asset;
5. Goals and decisions emerge from bargaining, negotiation and jockeying for position among competing stakeholders.

The parties in political processes have different preferences. As they interact through negotiations, compromises and coalition formation, their original objectives change. Since the groups with which they interact are also modifying their positions, the social environment in which they are functioning changes more quickly than they can respond to it. It is impossible to predict in advance which of many alternative outcomes will in fact take place. The actual outcome is likely to be the resultant by-product of many forces and may be neither intended nor preferred by any of the participants (Steinbrunner, 1974).

Not only are the outcomes of political processes often not consistent with the preferences of any of the actors, but because they represent compromises and are embedded in ongoing organizational processes, they are usually not as radical as the rhetoric of debate might suggest. Most change at the University is incremental rather than comprehensive and while some of the battles may be revolutionary in intent, the changes they provoke are usually neither radical nor dramatic (Baldrige, 1971). In the political arena of the University, loose coupling between what is said and what is done is the rule rather than the exception. Since the participants in the process know that the final result is likely to be compromise, they usually ask for much more than they expect in order to increase the chances of their getting at least a minimum of what they want.

Political outcomes are difficult to predict also because they may depend greatly on the forums in which they are discussed and the timing with which alternatives are considered. What happened in a particular case at the University may be related to whether the issue is discussed first in the faculty senate or the administrative council and the conflict related to where an issue is properly to be discussed may be at times as contentious as the issue itself. In addition, when there is a large

number of alternatives, the sequence in which they are considered is critical; depending on these sequences, it is possible for an alternative desired by fewer participants to be selected over one desired by many more (Plott, 1982).

The University President has become aware of this possibility because of two versions of an initiative related to the distribution of meal tickets meant to be handed to all personnel before Christmas. There are two contending groups on campus: the unionized personnel and the non-unionized. If an initiative of the non-unionized personnel is accepted (distribution of tickets only to the non-unionized personnel because they have modest wages; the value of one ticket should be doubled as compared to the previous year), the President thinks the unionized faculty would reject bargaining and viceversa. In these circumstances, the President focused on interests (not positions) and insisted on objective criteria (standards for both substance and procedure). He chose the alternative proposed by the unionized personnel (a smaller group compared to the large group of non-union members) because they had asked to have these tickets distributed to both members and non-members of the union and opted for an objective criteria: a relative increase of ticket value pending on the rate of inflation. It is a good example of productive negotiation since *bargaining* is central to decision making for any effective leader.

Characteristics of political systems

Organizational politics involves acquiring, developing and using power to obtain preferred outcomes in situations in which groups disagree (Pfeffer, 1981). To consider the University as a political system is to focus attention not only on uncertainty, but also on dissension and conflict. The University is composed of a large number of individuals and groups that in some ways operate autonomously but in other ways remain interdependent. Without *interdependence*, there can be no politics and no power; it is only when individuals must rely on others for some of their necessary resources that they become concerned about or interested in the activities or behaviors of others.

Political systems depend on social exchange and, therefore, on mutual dependence. The power of any party depends to some extent on the value of that party's contribution to the political community and the extent to which such a contribution is available from other sources (Bacharach and Lawler, 1980). For example, academic departments at the University that bring in highly valued external resources as research grants or that have high prestige and increasing graduate and undergraduate enrollments have more power and influence over the allocation of internal budgets than do other departments.

Power at the University is diffused rather than concentrated and many individuals and *groups have power of different kinds* in different situations. The vice-rector for academic affairs is believed to have considerable influence on campus, but the Business School at the University is often more responsive to its professional accrediting body than to the vice-rector for academic affairs.

The University has an organizational culture that is supported by norms. But development of a pervasive or coherent culture is inhibited by the various and *competing interests* of different groups. To be sure, there is widespread public agreement that the teaching, service and research missions are all important. But agreement in the abstract conceals the fact that people have different ideas about which programs are the most important. When resources are plentiful, so that everyone gets what they want, these ambiguities and disagreements cause no problems. But when *resources are scarce*, their specific allocation becomes vigorously contested and *conflict is inevitable*.

For example, the University has recently faced a tough decision: deans of two different specializations asked for approval to start new programs – one in public relations and the other one in hospitality industry. Both choices had pros and cons. Each had supporters and enemies. After long discussions, the senate voted in favor of the hospitality industry program. In this situation, choices had to be made not between good and bad things, but rather between *competing goods*. People in the institution differ about which objective is most important and even those who agree on the objective, often disagree on how it can be achieved. There are no data that can prove that supporting a public relations program is better than supporting a hospitality industry program, and there are no rational calculations, laws or rules to help decide what to do. In a collegial

system, such decisions can be made by consensus. But these processes are either unavailable or unacceptable in the complex and decentralized social system of the University. The institution is too large and the interests of various groups are too diverse to achieve consensus and the socialization and expectations of the various participants make authoritarian decrees unacceptable and therefore unenforceable. If they are to be able to make a decision at all, they must rely on *politics*.

Subgroups wish to exert influence so that their preferences are reflected in the allocation of institutional resources such as *money, prestige or influence*. Since the board of trustees legally is the institution, and all legal authority resides in the board, some might say that the preferences of the trustees and the President as their executive officer should always dominate choice processes in an institution of higher education. But at the University, as at other institutions, legal delegation is not the sole source of authority and many *groups are able to exercise power in different ways*. Administrators have power through their access to budget and personnel procedures, to sources of information and to internal and external legal authority; faculty and other professionals have power related to their specialized expertise and to tradition (Clark, 1983). Blue-collar groups may invoke the power of their unions in order to influence policies; and, it is possible to obtain power also through informal contacts and through appeals based on ethical principles such as equity.

The problems caused by the dualism of controls are manifest at the University and there are constant *conflicts* between administrative and professional authority. Because of this, it is tempting to view the University as composed of monolithic groups and to refer to the battles as being between “the administration and others” or “the faculty and others”. This view may occasionally be valid, but it is more often misleading. The president and the deans can have conflicting interests, trustees can disagree on many issues, not all students share the same concerns and faculty in different disciplines and departments are as much divided by their professionalism as united by it (Clarck, 1960). Academics are highly ideological and the ideologies of different academic departments – and therefore the preferences they might have in institutional decision making – are quite disparate (Ladd and Lipset, 1975). The University “is not one community, but several – the community of the undergraduate; the community of the humanist, the community of the social scientist and the community of the scientist; the community of the non-academic personnel; the community of the administrators” (Kerr, 1963, p. 19). But, of course, the communities are far more complex even than that on a contemporary campus. On any issue, for example, subgroups of faculty transcending department or discipline bring young and old, male and female, tenured and non-tenured, local and cosmopolitan, into arenas in which their conflicting interests must be addressed. We commonly think of the president as the institutional leader and it is true that President X plays a part in decision making in many areas of governance. But in each, he is opposed by countervailing forces of different groups (Corson, 1960).

Some groups are stronger than others and have more power but no group is strong enough to dominate all the others *all the time*. Those who desire certain outcomes must spend time building positions that are supported by other groups as well. This requires the development of coalitions among various groups and trade-offs and compromises are often among the costs that must be paid.

For example, the University learned of the opportunity to obtain government funding (via the Ministry of Education) to develop experimental programs for talented and outstanding students. A small group of administrators met to develop a proposal for improving some aspects of the educational program. Few people were involved because there was so little time to meet the proposal deadline. When funding was approved, the administration announced with pride and enthusiasm their success in bringing substantial money to support this exciting new project. Faculty was stunned to learn the administration had committed to new teaching approaches without faculty input. Administrators were startled and perplexed when professors greeted the news with resistance, criticism and anger. Caught in the middle between the Ministry of Education and professors, administrators interpreted faculty resistance as a sign of defensiveness and unwillingness to change. The new program became a political game, producing more mistrust, disharmony and conflict than tangible improvement in education.

The idea that political processes in academic institutions are somehow “dirty” reflects the misunderstanding that *if people would act in the best interests of the institution*, they would agree on what to do. It assumes that the institution’s best

interests are either known or knowable, rather than that different people, especially committed to what they believe to be the institution's welfare, can, in good faith, have completely different ideas of what that means and how it should be accomplished. The allocation decision is primarily a political one of who gets what, when and how, and in a democratic and pluralistic organization, political processes are appropriate means for resolving such issues.

It might be expected that, because groups contend for power and there are differences in their preferred outcomes, the University would be typified by constant turmoil and instability. There are several reasons why this is usually not the case. First, organizations tend to develop continuing and quasi-stable dominant coalitions (Thomson, 1967) whose established power serves to inhibit overt conflict. At the University, the president, senior administrators and board have for a decade been the dominant coalition; they agree on policies most (but not all) of the time, and general campus recognition of their power inhibits those who would otherwise challenge it.

In addition, individuals belong to more than one group, and they participate in many political processes, each of which involves different people. The existence of a large number of small cross-cutting disagreements provides checks and balances against major disruptions so that the agitation of political processes can ironically lead to system stability. At the University, people who engage in total conflict are generally referred to as "crazies". Most people on campuses are not crazies: they participate in conflict segmentally – for example, supporting the administration on one issue and disagreeing with them on another. Even within the faculty senate itself, which has quasi-stable pro-administration and anti-administration voting blocs, the balance of power is held by a third, "unaffiliated" coalition whose members align themselves with one or another bloc on the basis of specific issues (Bowen, 1987). As a result, deep cleavages dividing major groups at the University on many issues are unlikely (Coser, 1956). By permitting groups to assess their relative power and by encouraging the development of associations and coalitions, political conflict may increase the cohesiveness of the University.

A central characteristic of most political communities is indifference. Most people at the University are not concerned about most issues most of the time. Even during the last great budget crisis which had the potential for faculty layoffs, only a small percentage of the faculty actively participated in governance activities while another small group looked on with interest; the majority were apathetic (Baldrige, 1971). Most of the time, most of what happens at the University is routine and guided by existing procedures and informal understandings. But at irregular intervals and for reasons that are not at all clear, a specific issue emerges and becomes contentious on campus. Sometimes the issue is one of great substance, and sometimes, it is primarily symbolic.

Finally, disruptive conflict is inhibited because power in higher education tends to be issue specific. Different groups develop spheres of influence around issues of concern to them (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker and Riley, 1978). Deans at the University leave course development to faculty most of the time and the president leave faculty recruiting to the deans most of the time. As long as these tacit agreements are maintained, contention is unlikely. All parties recognize that intrusion into tacitly approved spheres of influence is usually costly and they ordinarily go to unusual lengths to avoid it.

The political processes at the University have organizational *advantages* and *disadvantages*. If there were institutional consensus about preferences and agreement on how to achieve them, political processes would be wasteful and unnecessary. The costs and benefits of any proposed programs could be specified and calculations would give unequivocal direction to the participants. But since at the University such a consensus does not exist, decisions can be made only through the exercise of power (Pfeffer, 1981). A major advantage of political systems therefore is that they permit decisions to be made even in the absence of clear goals. Political systems also simplify the influence process since it need not involve the active participation of everyone in the organization but only their representatives (Weick, 1979).

They also simplify budgeting processes. If politics is a game in which power is used to influence resource allocation in support of one's preferences, then *the budget* is the document on which the yearly score at the University is kept. "Rational" approaches to budgeting would suggest that the funding of all programs be reassessed each year with the costs and benefits of each compared to each other and decisions based on the optimization of stated objectives. Political processes

in budget formulation, on the other hand, simplify calculations and usually lead to outcomes acceptable to a majority of stakeholders. Among other things, only those issues raised by specific groups need be addressed (most programs approved in the past are continued so that budgets next year are likely to be similar to budgets this year), only politically feasible alternatives need to be considered (so that time is not wasted on alternatives that could not be supported) and participants need consider only their own preferences without worrying about others (since other groups will have representation somewhere in the process) (Wildavsky, 1974).

Political systems have another great advantage: their inefficiency provides institutional stability. There is a lot of consistency at collegial forms of organization because people tend to think alike and because people follow the same rules. In this case, having similar data and sharing uniformity of opinion or action make it possible for small changes to be amplified as they move through the system. Everyone knows what is going on, an unexpected situation may become volatile and balance becomes precarious. But at the University, people have access to different data from different sources on which they place different interpretations. No one knows the totality of what is happening and their activities often resemble random movements that cancel each other out and provide stability.

There are, of course, disadvantages to political systems as well. Some groups at the University attempt to control information as a source of power to achieve their own ends and this may weaken other organizational functions. Competing for resources means that groups have to present the reasons why their claims are stronger than those of other groups. This ensures that the best arguments are given but at the same time it may lead to advocacy, the hardening of positions and difficulty in developing reasonable compromises. Since not all programs get reviewed all the time, programs that are no longer effective may be allowed to continue if no one challenges them. The system therefore has little accountability. In addition, coalitions can arise that are not concerned about protecting the weak. Also, political processes may sometimes be used in situations in which more rational approaches are feasible and could be more effective.

While the instrumental activities associated with obtaining benefits at the University are one side of politics, there is another side as well. Political processes and structures also have important symbolic elements and outcomes (Edelman, 1967). They permit interest groups at the University to display or confirm their status, provide individuals with rituals and enjoyable past times, protect organizations from disruptions by deviant members and confirm important institutional values and myths (Birnbaum, 1987). It is the constant involvement of various constituents in campus political activity that permits both change and stability. The existence of political instruments for change and the potential of influencing policy rather than merely getting one's way permit people at the University to work together even as they have disparate objectives.

Universities as coalitions: authorities, partisans, power and decision making

A coalition forms because members have interests in common and believe they can do more together than apart. To accomplish their aims, they need power. One among many forms of power is authority. It recognizes the importance of human needs but emphasizes that scarce resources and incompatible preferences cause needs to collide.

Viewing a higher education institution as a coalition rather than a pyramid questions many orthodox views. Academics and managers alike have assumed that universities have or should have, clear and consistent goals set at the apex of authority. In a business, the owners or top managers set goals such as growth and profitability. Goals in a university are presumably set by the board of trustees and the president. Since universities act like coalitions, individuals and groups have their insular objectives and resources, and they bargain with other players to influence goals and decisions. If political pressures on goals are visible in the private sector, they are blatant in the academic field. Universities operate amid a welter of constituencies, each making demands and trying to get its way.

Consider a case of policy conflict at the University. A group of graduate students in an academic department wants the university to become more democratic and responsive while faculty members insist on tightening control and standards. How can the two engage in a productive dialogue to learn from one another, explore differences and find a mutually satisfactory solution? Or, in other words, how does each group articulate preferences and mobilize power to get what it

wants? Power, in this view, is not necessarily bad: "We have to stop describing power always in negative terms: [as in] it excludes, it represses. In fact, power produces; it produces reality" (Foucault, 1975, p. 12).

Our example of conflict in an academic department illustrates the relationship between two political roles that are often central to the politics of both universities and society. Professors are authorities; their role entitles them to make decisions binding on the students. Students are partisans; they want to exert bottom-up influence. Gamson (1968) describes the relationship in this way: "Authorities are the recipients or targets of influence, and the agents or initiators of social control. Potential partisans have the opposite roles – as agents or initiators of influence and targets or recipients of social control" (p. 76).

Even though partisans lack authority, they may have other power sources. A number of social scientists (Baldrige, 1971; Kanter, 1977; Pfeffer, 1992; Russ, 1994) have tried to identify the various wellsprings of power. In universities, these alternatives include:

1. Position power (authority). Positions confer certain levels of formal authority: professors assign grades and choose their own assistants. Positions also place incumbents in more or less powerful locations in communications and power networks. It helps to be in the right unit as well as the right job.
2. Information and expertise. Power flows to those with the information and know-how to solve important problems. It flows to the faculty in elite universities and to superstars conductors of symphony orchestras.
3. Control of rewards. The ability to deliver jobs, money, political support or other rewards bring power.
4. Alliances and networks. Getting things done in a university involves working through a complex network of individuals and groups. Friends and allies make things a lot easier. Pfeffer (1992) found that a key difference between more and less successful university presidents was attentiveness to building and cultivating links with friends and allies.
5. Coercive power. Coercive powers rests on the ability to constrain, block, interfere or punish. For example, a union's ability to walk out or students' ability to sit in. In the early 1970s, Students for a Democratic Society (SDS) created havoc at Stanford University by stealing and publishing a listing of faculty salaries. Publicizing a list that had been a well-guarded secret revealed enormous disparities in how much faculty members, even in the same department, were making. This strategy bolstered the sit-ins and other coercive measures the SDS employed in its bid for power.
6. Access and control of agendas. A by-product of networks and alliances is access to decision arenas. At the University, some groups have more access than others. When decisions are made, the interests of those with "a seat at the table" are well represented while the concerns of absentees are often distorted or ignored" (Brown, 1986).

In a complex institution such as the University, member groups tend to be more specialized and heterogeneous, with divergent interests and preferences. Subgroups may have their own perceptions of community, but the institution as a whole seldom does. Sometimes these subgroups are work groups, such as academic departments or administrative offices, and sometimes they are based on social factors such as sex, age or ideology. Those who identify strongly with any of these groups think of each other as "we", and "they" can come to refer not just to groups outside the institution, but to other groups *inside* as well.

That is what has happened at the University. The institution grew, became more diverse, added new missions and increasingly received resources from the Ministry of Education. Resources are no longer under the sole control of a small group of administrators, decision making has become diffused and decentralized and the organization is too complex to control activities through bureaucratic systems. As centralized authority has weakened, consensus for preferred goals has diminished. The University has become fragmented into special interest groups, each competing for influence and resources. The influence of any group is limited by the interests and activities of other groups; in order to obtain desired outcomes, groups have to join with other groups, to compromise their positions and to bargain.

To consider a university as a political system is to consider it as a supercoalition of subcoalitions with diverse interests, preferences and goals (Cyert and March, 1963). Each of the subcoalitions is composed of interest groups that see at least some commonality in their goals and work together to attempt to achieve them (Bacharach and Lawler, 1980). If the collegium can be metaphorically described as a family, and the bureaucracy as a machine, then the political college or

university can be seen as a shifting kaleidoscope of interest groups and coalitions. The patterns in the kaleidoscope are not static and group membership, participation and interests constantly change with emerging issues.

Leadership in political systems

President of the University acts like a political leader much of the time. He gives high priority to informally learning about the concerns and attitudes of the many institutional constituents. He knows that leadership depends in good measure on presence and timing; influence is exerted by people who are present when compromises are being negotiated. "Being there" is critical and part of the president's influence as a political leader comes from knowing where to be. It has also been said that in politics, "timing is everything". Timing refers to the understanding that a political leader brings to the questions of the positions of other campus groups, the possible linkages between one issue and another and one's own power in a particular moment.

The heavy reliance of political leaders on intuition, experience and a sense of the particular situation at hand makes it difficult to generalize about what works in specific circumstances. Practitioners and scholars from the time of Machiavelli have offered their council on gaining political advantage. College presidents who see politics merely as the exercise of raw power might wish to heed the advice said to have been offered by a former master at Oxford: Never retract. Never explain. Get the thing done and let them howl!

But the President of the University sees the campus as a democratic community whose leaders depend on the consent of the governed (Walker, 1979). He believes that persuasion and diplomacy are his most reliable administrative tools. He sees conflict and disagreement as normal rather than an indication of organizational pathology and he recognizes that others may hold different views in good faith. He tries not to attack opposing opinions but use them creatively. The president believes that there are many ways that objectives can be achieved and he tries not to become irrevocably committed to any single proposal or program. He strives for "flexible rigidity"; he is willing to compromise on means but unwilling to compromise on ends. Most of all, he is a realist and tries to understand the dynamics of the institution not as he would like it to be but as it really is.

Political systems have many sources of power. The President of the University is certainly a leader but only the naïve on campus think of him as *the only* leader. Many groups attempt to exercise influence and leadership at the University must be referred to in the plural rather than the singular. Representatives of each of the various coalitions and subgroups must all be leaders in the sense of representing or altering the interests of their constituencies, entering into negotiations with other representatives and seeking outcomes acceptable both to their constituencies and to their coalition partners. Of course, not all groups and therefore not all representatives have equal power and the central power figure is the one who can manage the coalition (Thomson, 1967). At most colleges and universities, as at the University, that individual is the President.

The President's major leadership role is to help the community manage its own affairs, to assist in the process by which issues are deliberated and judgments reached and to take the actions necessary to implement decisions (Tucker, 1981). This emphasis on giving direction to a community suggests that the President of the University does not rule – he serves. Since a university consists of different groups with legitimate interests, he tries to find solutions to problems in a manner that constituencies find acceptable (Walker, 1979). Probably the most famous statement of this political role of the president was Clark Kerr's characterization of the president as "leader, educator, creator, initiator, wielder of power, pump; he is also office holder, caretaker, inheritor, consensus-seeker, persuader, bottleneck. But he is mostly a mediator. The first task of a mediator is peace...peace within the student body, the faculty, the trustees; and peace between and among them" (Kerr, 1963, p. 36).

The responsibilities of *mediation* as Kerr defined them transcend merely the institutional and personal survival that peace might bring – they include institutional progress as well. The political leader therefore is a person who practices *the art of the possible* while developing a sufficient power base. Moving up the ladder confers authority but also incurs increasing

dependence, because success depends on the cooperation of many others (Kotter, 1988). People rarely give their best efforts and fullest cooperation simply because they were ordered to do so. They accept directions when they perceive the people in authority as credible, competent and sensible. The President of the University has learned that he cannot always get what he wants. But he can usually get something. He has become an expert in analyzing differences in the stated preferences of different campus groups, designing alternatives that find a common ground between them and persuading the conflicting parties that their own interests are furthered by accepting these compromise alternatives (Lindblom, 1980). He tries to develop positions that can be endorsed by the dominant coalition(s) to minimize disruption and maximize satisfaction while at the same time moving the University - even if only in an incremental way – towards progress.

A consideration of leadership in political systems can conclude in no better fashion than by returning to the sage advice of Cornford, directed towards persons who, like the President of the University wish to be influential in academic institutions: "Remember this: the men who get things done are the men who walk up and down King's Parade, from 2 to 4, every day of their lives. You can either join them, and become a powerful person; or you can join the great throng of those who spend their time in preventing them from getting things done, and in the larger task of preventing one another from doing anything whatever" (Cornford, 1964, p. 31).

Conclusions

Our goal is to explain why universities may be seen as political institutions and why politics within universities is not always "dirty". Political processes are universal and they will never go away even in institutions of higher education.

A university is a coalition of individuals with different interests. A coalition forms because of interdependence among its members; they need one another even though their interests may only partly overlap. Goals are also rather diffused in a university. They are not set by fiat at the top but through an ongoing process of negotiation and interaction among players.

The assumption of enduring differences implies that politics is more visible and dominant under conditions of diversity (as found in universities) than of homogeneity.

The concept of scarce resources suggests that politics will be more salient and intense in difficult times. Universities, for example, have lived through alternating times of prosperity and decline in response to peaks and valleys in economic and demographic trends. When money and students are plentiful, administrators spend time determining which buildings to upgrade and which programs to initiate. Conversely, when resources dry up, conflict mushrooms and administrators may often succumb to forces they don't sometimes control or understand.

An important issue in universities is power – its distribution and exercise. In much of the academic life, individuals and groups are interdependent. They need things from one another and power relationships are multidirectional. Since combinations of divergent interests and scarce resources produce conflict, how to use power, as President, in order to resolve conflict has become an important function of authority. Individuals compete for jobs, titles and prestige while departments compete for resources. While inevitable, conflict has also a "bright side": it challenges the status-quo and stimulates interest. If conflicts will not go away by using business-like strategies and tactics, the question becomes how to make the best of it. As our examples have proven, leadership skills such as negotiating and bargaining are important tools in conflict resolution within universities.

At the University, "being there", managing a complex coalition of different group interests, using the art of mediation and being flexible are proved to be essential tools in building collaboration and alliances that cement deals that enable the University as a group, to move forward.

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Intercultural competence a new goal for English learners

Enkeleda Jata

PhD Candidate, Albania,

enki_jata@yahoo.it

Abstract

The use of language in the appropriate social and cultural context is a must. Whenever we travel abroad and meet people of different cultures we may encounter difficulties in understanding and adapting to their way of thinking, which may lead to misunderstanding and conflicts. Nowadays we must have the ability to understand people of different social profiles and accept individuals of different culture. Teaching a language by including the intercultural dimension keeps helping people to acquire linguistic competence to communicate as well as the intercultural competence. Nowadays, it is widely accepted that linguistic competence are not sufficient to have a successful communication with individuals of different culture. Intercultural competence is identified as a key point in learning a foreign language by the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education. Intercultural competence is not only related to Teaching of foreign languages, but is part of our life and it affects all the fields. The main aim of intercultural competence is not to learn some information about the culture of that country, but how to develop skills of interaction, skills to accept new ideas and being open-minded, being tolerant, prevent misunderstanding etc. In Albania reality, the teaching of a foreign language is mostly focused in developing linguistic rather than intercultural competence. These because the teachers are not trained on how to develop it, aren't motivated to integrate new theories in the curricula etc. In a survey resulted that most of the English teachers in secondary and high schools don't mention or avoid cultural topics. In my opinion, culture and language are interrelated and we cannot separate them. It is time to improve the goal of teaching a foreign language. To be proficient in a language doesn't mean you have intercultural competence for a successful communication. With the development of intercultural competence in teaching a foreign language will bring a new effective teaching method. The main aim is to enrich the process of teaching English language with intercultural competences.

Keywords: intercultural competence, communicative competence, culture, curricula

1. An innovation in Teaching English Language.

Nowadays, under the light of a wider international interaction, the use of language in the appropriate social and cultural context is a must. Learning a foreign language means you must learn also the culture. In our life we will have the opportunity to interact with people as a complex human being with numerous identities but with their particular features. In Albania, the teaching of foreign language is mostly focused in developing linguistic competence, which means they are more focused in aspects of grammar and vocabulary. Teachers' aims are that the students should reach a proficient level in English rather than acquiring intercultural competence. Of course, language competence still has a key role in learning a foreign language, but it does not stop here.

A dramatic change has occurred if we compare the actual process of teaching with the previous years. The advance of technology and methods has had a positive impact in teaching-learning methodology. The English books have changed, in every unit there is a section dedicated to culture, where the students can learn different cultural facts. Based on a survey done for High schools and Secondary school it resulted that most of the teachers avoid the Culture Corner, some of them just focused on reading the information and answering the question below without stopping to make a deep analysis. It is true that texts treat the culture aspect, but do not develop the learning of the culture. Most of teachers are not very familiar with the term intercultural competence, let alone to develop it during foreign language classes. Some of them have information about its definition, but never thought how to include it in their process of teaching. The traditional way of learning culture does not develop Intercultural Competence. By analyzing this, I have reached to the conclusion that it is important to change the aim of teaching a foreign language. We need an innovation in teaching-learning process. A very effective way to develop intercultural competence is through learning a foreign language.

I will try to explore the opportunities that offer a foreign language to develop intercultural competence. It is time to change the aim of teaching a language, and I will try to analyze, how we can develop this competence through the foreign language to create a more successful strategy of teaching. It is widely accepted that developing only linguistic competence is not enough to have a successful communication; it is also important to develop intercultural competence. Language and culture are interrelated, culture is important to understand better a language, to have a successful communication. Learning of culture is very important because it encourages understanding of another culture, you can interact with people of different cultures and be more open-minded and tolerant.

2. The Importance of Intercultural Competence

The term culture is a key point that develops intercultural competence. We never stop to think about culture because we take it for granted. We inherited it and follow certain rules, values without ever stopping to analyze it. Only at the moment that we encounter individuals of different cultures we continue to reflect on our own culture. In the North of Albania, we have a tradition that men eat in a different room while the women in another room, or parents who live with their children even when they are over 18. All of these are Albania traditions and it seems quite normal for us. Of course, we are used to it. In order to understand the culture of another country, first of all we need to analyze our own culture and then compare it with the other cultures.

Intercultural competences are very useful to understand that every individual belongs to different cultures. The term intercultural competence is used in different academic discussions without stopping to reflect how we can include it in the current curricula of teaching. Taking in consideration the actual changes occurring in the world, I might say that Intercultural Competence is a key point for the communication between individuals of different cultures. An effective communication means to have linguistic and intercultural competence. We have often experienced misunderstandings, when we have travelled to different countries and met people of different social identities from ours. Intercultural competence is related to every field of our life. Doctors, businessmen, politicians, students everyone who enters into contacts with individuals of a different culture need to acquire intercultural competence.

In this way the development of intercultural dimension in teaching a language makes it possible to provide students with intercultural and linguistic competence; make them able to understand and accept people of different cultures as individuals with other perspectives, behaviors' patterns and values and consider this as a rich experience.

Why do we need this competence? 1) to have success when we encounter individuals of different cultures 2) to avoid conflicts 3) to learn to be open-minded and accept different cultures 4) to show self-respect.

According to **Byram** (1997) Intercultural competence is composed of four elements:

1) **Knowledge** "*knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction*" (p. 51)

You should have knowledge about a country, to establish relationships between individuals of different cultures, to learn about their history.

2) **Attitudes** "*curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own*" (p. 50)

You should accept other individuals; you should feel equal, be open-minded and accept new beliefs, values, views etc.

3) **Skills** "*Ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own*" (p. 51)

You should be able to identify misunderstandings and try to avoid them.

4) **Critical awareness** "*An ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries.*"¹

You should be able to reflect on source and target cultures.

¹Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence.*

According to Byram (1997), the teachers should guide the students to acquire these four elements: knowledge, attitudes, skills and critical awareness. Through different activities and exercises teachers will be able to transform the students' point of view.

All of these are very important elements that help to develop intercultural competence. These skills should be the new goals of teaching a foreign language. In the English Curricula of High Schools is clearly mentioned the importance of cultural communication and cultural education of the students.¹

We must accept that the teachers of the foreign language are the mediator of two different cultures. The problem with the most of teachers is that they don't have the right qualification to develop intercultural competence. They are not trained; some of them have no idea about this competence, while the others think it is more important to develop linguistic competence.

In a survey conducted with students, it resulted that most of the teachers in High schools and Secondary schools avoid the Culture Corner, or they just read it in order to answer the questions without stopping to compare the source language culture to the target language culture. According to them this happens because their texts are more focused on factual information about history or geography of the countries and are not very interesting. Only a few teachers read the Culture Corner but without knowing how to encourage to the students the ability to interpret on their own the difference between cultures. 70% the students have received information about England or USA from films, music, documentaries, which they have seen on their own. The mental image they had for English people was from Internet or films, not from the school.

In fact, the English teachers are the one who should help the students to develop intercultural competence. They should increase the students' interest in the foreign language culture. Some teachers have the will to change the methodologies and try to develop intercultural competence.

3. How to develop Intercultural Competence.

*Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching involves recognizing that the aims are: to give learners intercultural competence as well as linguistic competence; to prepare them for interaction with people of other cultures; to enable them to understand and accept people from other cultures as individuals with other distinctive perspectives, values and behaviours; and to help them to see that such interaction is an enriching experience.*² (p.10)

As I mentioned in the previous paragraph the teacher, who is the mediator of the culture, should develop the four skills of Byram (1997) which are knowledge, skills, attitudes, and critical awareness. It is very important to know that the teacher is not the transmitter of the information, but the one who encourages the students to understand and reach conclusions on their own. The teacher should prepare students how to communicate with individuals of different cultures, to be open-minded and tolerant toward different cultures. It is a very effective method, if during the classes are organized cultural exchange experiences, as a result students can learn from others experiences and reflect from their experience. It is important to keep in mind that culture is not learned within a day, but it is a process that accompanies us through the entire life. Teachers can encourage intercultural competence by making them reflect on the topics they have got in their books. For example, **Christmas Topic**, they can find out how people in UK or USA celebrate Christmas in these countries and compare it to the way Albanian celebrates Christmas. They can learn how to compare and analyse different topics on their own. Other topics can be for example, **Post Cards** sent for holidays which are a tradition in many countries, while in Albania it is not very common. **Sport** is another theme, for example **Rugby** is a sport not played in Albania. They can learn whether this sport is played by men or women, how many people are needed to play it etc. *An intercultural dimension involves learners in sharing their knowledge with each other and discussing their opinions. There need to be agreed rules for such discussions based on an understanding of human rights and respect for others. Learners thus learn as much from*

¹Ministria e Arsimit (2010) *Programe mesimore per kulturen e pergjitheshme te arsimit profesional-teknik, drejtim i arsimit profesional-teknik; te gjitha drejtimet Lenda e Gjuhes angleze.*

²Byram, M. Gribkova, B. Starkey, H. Council of Europe 2002. *Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching a practical introduction for teachers.*

each other as from the teacher, comparing their own cultural context with the unfamiliar contexts to which language learning introduces them.¹(p.46)

They can develop this intercultural competence in a very simple way from the topic they have in their books by the help of the teacher. Of course, additional materials would be very effective. It is important to remember that the teachers don't have to know everything about the culture of the country, because they are not going to teach factual information. The teachers' job is to ask open-ended questions in order to let the students independently discover the world, to develop skills of interpreting and analysing. *What language teachers need for the intercultural dimension is not more knowledge of other countries and cultures, but skills in promoting an atmosphere in the classroom, which allows learners to take risks in their thinking and feeling. Such skills are best developed in practice and in reflection on experience.*²(p.34)

If language skills and intercultural competence are linked together, during the teaching of foreign language, they will help the students to learn how to communicate easily and avoid conflicts with individuals of different cultures. Nowadays, through the Internet it can be very easy to interact with students from USA or UK, or to communicate in different blogs.

One of the main problems is the assessment of students. How to evaluate students about the intercultural competence? According to *Developing Intercultural Dimension in Language Learning, a practical introduction for teachers* (2002). The most difficult part is to evaluate the learners change attitudes, whether they have become tolerant or not towards beliefs, values, attitude. *It can be argued that even if we can test it, we should not be trying to quantify tolerance.*³Evaluating the four skills of Byram is difficult. The teachers should make open-ended questions, multiple-choice question, discussions, and activities. *The role of assessment is therefore to encourage learners' awareness of their own abilities in intercultural competence, and to help them realise that these abilities are acquired in many different circumstances inside and outside the classroom.*⁴ (p.32)

Conclusions

If teachers want to prepare students to face the real world on their own, they need to develop intercultural competence. At the moment that the students have acquired intercultural competence they will be able to know how to create relationships with people of different cultures. They will be able to analyse different beliefs, values etc. and will know how to avoid conflicts or misunderstanding that may arise. In this paper where presented some of the activities that the teachers can use to develop Intercultural Competence. Let's keep in mind what Alvino H. Fantini said, *that intercultural competence is commonly a longitudinal and ongoing developmental process.* (p.49)

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¹Byram, M. Gribkova, B. Starkey, H. Council of Europe 2002. *Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching a practical introduction for teachers*

²The same

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The diversification of energy production and supply in Albania

Arber Qystri

Abstract

Energy is the main factor in terms of economic, environmental and developmental issues facing the world today. In particular, the developing countries need to expand access to reliable and modern energy services in order to reduce poverty and dependence on import. Sustainable energy has minimal negative impacts, and can be supplied continuously to future generation. Albania as a country with significant problems in this sector, is looking to find its dimension and space for development, although, not yet with a strategy and clear objectives. In this point of view, this article aims to explore the possibilities of application of nuclear energy for electricity production in Albania. This research will be based primarily on the current state of the energy system of Albania and in the future development of the electricity sector through the nuclear energy supply chain and will offer a comparative analysis with countries like Bulgaria, Romania and Croatia.

Keywords: nuclear energy, electricity, diversification of energy sources, long-term strategy.

Introduction

Today, energy production and related problems constitute a major challenge for any country. At the same time, as part of the consolidated political rhetoric, the discussions are concentrated on the negative effects on climate and environment, which are at the centre of studies and debates on the most important forums held at the global level. Data from various international organizations show that energy demand will be constantly growing, to reach 56 % in the year 2040. About 85 % of this growth is expected to come from developing countries (IEA, 2014). In this context, nor Albania is an exception ; its energy needs , as most developing countries are steadily increasing as a result of population growth , the desire for a higher welfare and sustainable economic development. The purpose of this article is to highlight, through various indicators, the critical situation in which Albania is today and to focus on the possibility of application of nuclear energy in Albania.

Albania is a country which produces electricity using only one source, the hydro, a situation that is in the opposite trend with the policies followed by other countries, where is prevailing the policy of diversification of energy sources, such as to meet internal needs energy, as well as to put a milestone in the approach to energy security (Morina, Fuga, 2013). These data are confirmed by ERI and INSTAT, according to which Albania imports about 40 % of the electricity needed, having also a negative trade balance (with the exception of 2010). This situation puts Albania in difficult financial conditions due to large fluctuations in the price of imported energy and its value increasing , influenced by a range of factors such as socio-political character , but also natural phenomena that are outside human control.

In these conditions it is important and vital to Albania creating a long-term strategy , based on concrete plans to solve the problem of the dependence of large production of electricity from a single source , by diversifying its production , reducing so high financial costs of electricity imports , with consequences on the Albanian economy .In this regard , Albania has several alternatives for diversifying energy production , through the use of wind potential , solar potential , and the use of fossil fuels (oil , coal , gas) (AEA , 2014) . Existing data suggest that the exploitation of the potential of wind and solar that can cover up to 20 % of the electricity demand in the year , totally insufficient to meet the current backlog in the energy sector , as well as meet the requirements for social development economic development. Meanwhile, oil and coal reserves in the country did not create the premises for building such power plants that use fossil fuels. Still unclear are the possibilities created by the implementation of the project Trans Adriatic Pipeline (TAP) (Oxford Economics , 2012) in the use of natural gas for electricity production , while a possible alternative , which would examine in more detail in this article presents nuclear energy (Arbri, Fuga, 2014) .

The nuclear energy

Currently, the nuclear energy is used primarily for the production of electricity through the use of chain reaction. The energy produced from the burning of uranium is many times greater than the energy produced by fossil fuels. Specifically, one

gram of uranium-235 delivers a power equal to that which is released by burning 1.6 tons of oil. In this context, nuclear energy has "fuel" in a global scale. Also, keeping in mind that the wasted nuclear fuel after reprocessing can be transformed in fuel and that the rate of consumption of this course is very small, about 6%. However, nuclear power for many reasons occupies a special place in the public debate. To better understand this debate, in the following we list some of the arguments of those who are for and against its use. Thus, pro-nuclear arguments ranked as the fact that it is relatively clean, as it does not produce CO₂, which is known as the main factor of air pollution, a major cause of greenhouse gases and artificial increase of the temperature of the planet; that this energy has higher efficiency and endless sources of fuel, where from a small amount of uranium can be produced power many times greater than what is inferred from fossil fuels; The life cycle of a nuclear power plant varies from 40 to 60 years, allowing the amortization of the initial high costs for its construction; as well as providing energy supply without interruption, since there depends on climatic conditions, while significantly reducing dependence on imports. While political and public debate is composed by many actors, especially environmental protection activists, used arguments against the use of nuclear energy, mainly because the waste produced during decomposition process are radioactive; they need to be reprocessed and move in high security deposits in escrow for several thousand years, a process that can cope with the respective costs; large investments required initial capital for the construction of nuclear power, particularly in terms of fuel supply; construction of power plants is a delicate process which needs to "know how" specialized, careful choice of the place where the plant will be built in protected areas safe from earthquakes and floods and other accidents caused by man, as well as the legal framework suitable site, monitoring and regulatory institutions; as well as during operation of the plant for production of electricity, inevitably produced the raw material for nuclear weapons, etc. A major influence on opposing views have been the risks of accidents in nuclear power plants of tragic proportions tragic. So far there are two consequences of such accidents in the global scale, the Chernobyl in Russia (1986) and the Fukushima in Japan (2011); and other smaller incidents with very limited consequences. These accidents are among the main reasons of "shrinkage" of the use of this energy on a global scale. However, this debate will result incomplete if we do not take into account the context in which it takes place, when energy security in the world today is raised as a major problem of this thousand-year-old, mainly for three reasons.

Firstly, as the ratio between non-renewable energy resources (carbon, oil and gas) and renewable energy (sun, wind, biomass etc.) In the coming decades will be entirely in favour of renewable sources. But the "intermittence" nature of renewable resources will cause troubles of technological nature. In this context, nuclear energy represents a priority, which has already reached a considerable development and application of technological standpoint. Second, climate change and environmental degradation problems, which are closely related to fossil energy production, constitute a valid reason to be peering from nuclear energy, which has the main advantage of being liberated from the production of CO₂. Restrictions on the amount of CO₂ emission into the atmosphere are higher, simultaneously forcing states to look to renewable energies, or in which energy production is not related to the release of this gas. Thirdly, given the trend of the energy market in the coming decades, final demand for energy will be mainly oriented towards electricity. Even in this regard, the advantages go to nuclear energy, which is expected which will increase its presence significantly, mainly to the fact that fossil resources for energy production are following a continuous curve discounts and nature resource intermittence renewable cannot satisfy the demand for energy, due to technological problems and economic profitability (Arbri, Fuga, 2014).

IEA forecasts (International Energy Agency) and IIASA (Vienna International Institute of Applied Systems Analysis).

Prospects of development and expansion of nuclear power globally wavered after the accident at Fukushima in March 2011. Some countries were forced to review their policies face raising concern by the public on the safety of nuclear reactors. In this regard, greater sensitivity showed European Union countries and the United States of America (D.Koranyi, 2011). But we cannot say the same for other countries. According to the forecasts of the International Energy Agency (IEA), the generating capacity of nuclear power plants globally will reach 580 GW in 2035. Production is expected to increase from 2,756 TWh was reported in 2010, up to 4.370 blade in 2035, an increase of almost 60%. This prediction coincides with a parallel increase in demand for electricity. According to the IEA, this demand will continue to grow at high rates. In this regard, it is provided an expansion of demand by 70% between 2010 and 2035, with a generating capacity that goes from 5,429 GW in 2011 to 9.340 in 2035. The nuclear energy, which during this period is expected to double its capacity generation, will constitute about 12% of electricity production on a global scale (IEA, 2014).

Meanwhile, another agency with international reputation as IIASA, goes even further; its predictions affect a period of a century. According to this agency there will be a tremendous growth in demand for electricity to occupy 50% of final consumption in 2100. Electricity is expected to replace virtually all fossil fuels and traditional biomass. Also, the electricity

the electricity that is produced from fossil sources will decrease from 62% to 10% and also raising electricity produced by nuclear power plants, which is expected to reach 60% in 2100. The decline of production from energy hydro reflects the maximum utilization of this resource (IIAA, 2014).

Nuclear power in the Balkans

The application of nuclear energy for electricity production in the Balkans has found so far use in countries such as Bulgaria, Romania and in a joint investment between Slovenia and Croatia, who own 50% stake each. First nuclear plant in the Balkans was built in Kozloduy, Bulgaria, in 1974. The plant consists of six reactors, but only two of them are currently active. Installed power in these two reactors is 2000 MW. This plant covers 32.6% of the electricity demand in the country. Currently, there are two important projects; IPARI has to do with the expansion of existing nuclear power plant with a new reactor. The second has to do with the construction of a new nuclear power plant in Belene. Another important nuclear power plant is the Krsko's, on the border between Croatia and Slovenia, which was built in 1975 and was put into use in 1985. The installed power in this plant is 600 MW. This plant meets 1/4 of the electricity demand in Slovenia and 1/5 of the electricity demand in Croatia. This plant initially foreseen to remain in operation until 2023, but currently thought to be restructured to add longevity to the year 2043. Finally, another nuclear power plant is in operation at Cernavoda, Romania. This plant came into force in 1996 and supplies 19% of electricity demand in the country. Installed power is 1,300 MW, divided into two reactors. Currently, it is thought that this nuclear plant be added 2 reactors with installed power of 720 MW each. These reactors should be operational in 2020.

Conclusions

Referring to the situation in Albania, limitations or difficulties can come for some reason. The first difficulty is that the territory of Albania is limited; simultaneously it represents a region with a high Two seismic and characterized by a relatively instable coastline, at least from the disposal of the Buna River to River spilling Seman. In these conditions, potential land for the construction of a nuclear power plant, which should be at a sufficient water source for cooling the reactor turbine, cannot easily be defined, but because of high seismicity, receipt requested additional measures Construction, associated with elevated costs for construction of the plant. Second difficulty relates to the legal framework, which currently besides a law on radiation and protect them, no adequate legal framework for the discipline of activity in the field of nuclear energy. A third difficulty is related to the institutions and the level of expertise in the country, that should be involved in such a project, which almost absent, or have not experienced any significant and lasting. Undoubtedly, the initial investment cost is a problem not easy to cope with a fragile economy like Albania; meanwhile, remains sharp as the time necessary for the realization of such a project, about 10-15 years from taking a political decision. Currently in Albania, leaving aside some statements in the time frame 2006 - 2011, there is no clear objective towards nuclear energy (Arbri, Fuga, 2014).

Global trends of energy production and consumption in favour of electricity, where a significant weight in its production will overtake nuclear power. Given the purpose of this article, we can draw a conclusion that today Albania, located in an unfavourable situation in terms of energy. Its dependence on the production of electricity from its hydro resources and imports pose a major challenge. If we consider the fact that large hydropower in Albania were built during the communist era and their cycle is closing phase, a strategic plan for the expansion of energy resources becomes even more necessary. Meanwhile, the fact that a large part of the electricity demand of cover through imports, thereby supplying it should be considered only as a solution of the moment. For this reason, it is necessary not only a long-term plan, but also wide, which should have a benchmark process of diversification of energy sources in the country, where the absolute priority should be renewable sources of energy. In this regard, nuclear energy, as one of the alternatives 'quasi' renewable deserves special attention by politicians, as well as by public opinion, since it is at a stage of high technological advancement and trade and ensures production of viable and independent of climatic conditions, compared to other renewable energies (Arbri, Fuga, 2014).

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Globalization and Regional Economic Integration: Case of Albania

Alma Marku

European University of Tirana, Faculty of Economy

E-mail: alma_marku@yahoo.com

Tirana, Albania

Tel: +355674096551

Abstract

Nowadays globalization is a term that we hear every day from scholars, governments, business, etc. Among different definitions some of them are more broad and some more precise. In the context of globalization new perspectives are opened for a region or a nation because it enhances the competitiveness and may eliminate the disparities between them. But on the other hand it may be harmful for those regions or nations that do not offer good opportunities for business development, etc. and consequently it may increase the gap between a developed region/country with developing ones. In this regard, regional integration is a necessary approach and the role of the local/central government is very important in equally developing and promoting the lagging regions to get closer to those more developed. Albania is a "Candidate status" country in the European integration process since June 2014. This means that such a status will bring the relation with European Union in a higher level. By having this status, Albania is expected to profit from all the components of the Instrument for Pre-Accession and one of them is the "regional development". The objective of such assistance is to support a country in its process of the preparation to be able to implement the cohesion policy of European Union. In this regard, Albania has to ensure the sustainable development of the regions by using different mechanisms like implementing coherent and integrated regional development strategies, financial competitive grants, and other forms of support in order to diminish the negative aspects of globalization.

Keywords: globalization, integration, regional development.

I. Globalization and regional integration

Globalization is a complex process of transferring goods, capital, investments, technologies, information, etc. by using information technology. There are major problems worldwide like natural resources which are not distributed equally in different countries that can be solved only if we act globally.

The concept of globalization implies, first and foremost, a stretching of social, political and economic activities across frontiers such that events, decisions and activities in one region of the world can come to have significance for individuals and communities in distant regions of the globe (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, & Perraton, 1999, p. 15). While regional economic integration happens in a different environment and in different levels such as a free trade area, custom union, common market, economic union and political union.

a. Integration into multilateral agreements

After the fall of communism in Albania at the beginning of the 90's its challenge was not only to change the economy from a centralized planned economy to the opening of the free market but also to cope with the rest of the Balkans and Europe countries. In November 1992, the Government of Albania requested accession to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT 1947).

During the process of negotiation which lasted 8 years the Albanian Government had approved laws with regards of private ownership, entrepreneurial activity, open competition, bankruptcy, foreign investment, protection of consumers, privatization of small, medium and large enterprises, and many other elements of a modern commercial legal regime¹.

After a series of negotiations Albania became member of World Trade Organization (WTO) on 8th of September 2000 which means it should be more efficient and competitive in the production and furthermore make sure it will integrate in the global economy.

b. Regional economic integration

One of the most notable trends in the global economy in recent years has been the accelerated movement toward regional economic integration which represents agreements between groups of countries in a geographic region to reduce, and ultimately remove, tariff and nontariff barriers to the free flow of goods, services, and factors of production between each other.

Countries that operate in a regional agreement are able to reduce the trade barriers more rapidly than those that operate under GRATT of WTO. These countries can choose the level of cooperation between them.

In a free trade area there are no barriers to the trade of goods and services, i.e. EFTA (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, and Switzerland) and NAFTA (United States, Canada, and Mexico) customs unions eliminate trade barriers between members. They have adopted a common external policy. In a common market except for the custom unions factors of production such as labour, workers and capital are free to move between country members i.e.: European Economic Community (EEC).

Another level of the economic integration is the economic union which requires a single common currency and monetary and fiscal policy i.e.: European Union.

Since 1996 Albania is a member of Central Europe Initiative (CEI) which goal is to step up cooperation among the countries in the region in the political and economic field, to ensure good neighbouring relations, based on regional groupings combined within the integration processes. In addition, this Initiative is intended to integrate the economies of these countries to the EU, with their full EU membership in view.

II. Albania and EU relations

Albania opened its diplomatic relationship with EEC in 1991 and a year after the Trade and Co-operation Agreement between the EU and Albania was signed. Albania becomes eligible for funding the Phare programme. In 1997 the EU Council of Ministers established a regional approach, with political and economic conditions for the development of bilateral relations. While in 1999 the EU proposed the new Stabilization and Association Process for five countries of South-Eastern Europe including Albania and benefited from the Autonomous Trade Preferences with EU and a year after extension of duty-free access to EU market for Albanian products.

The cooperation between Albania and EU were intensified in the Zagreb Summit in 2000 and during the Thessaloniki European Council 2003 (so-called Zagreb II) confirmed the EU policy for the Western Balkans and paves the way for eligibility for instruments used by Member States, or in other words Stabilization and Association Process. The agreements were adapted to the specific situation of each partner country and, while establishing a free trade area between the EU and

¹ World Trade Organization: Report of the working party on the accession of Albania to WTO (WT/ACC/ALB/51. 13 July 2000)

the country concerned, they also identify common political and economic objectives and encourage regional co-operation. In the context of accession to the European Union, the agreement serves as the basis for implementation of the accession process. The agreement between EU and Albania was signed in 2006 and entered into force in 2009 and in the same year the Council of Ministers of EU approved Albania request for membership.

After two years of negotiations and a hard homework done in 2010, Visa liberalization finally approved for Albanian citizens travelling to Schengen area, while in 2013 taking note of the progress achieved by Albania, the European Commission recommends to the Council to grant Albania candidate status, on the understanding that Albania keeps up its anti-corruption efforts. This recommendation was included in the Development Strategy and Main Challenges 2013 – 2014.

III. Milestones of Albanian economy

a. Fiscal policy reform

Albania became a member of International Monetary Fund in October 1991. The membership in the Fund would direct the country toward the objective of implementing economic development strategies for transitioning from a centrally planned to a market-based economy. The first arrangement signed with Albania aimed at its macroeconomic stabilization and structural transformations towards a market-based economy. Hence, membership in the Fund was regarded as an important step for Albania¹.

Another major goal of the Albanian government was to maintain a fiscal consolidation between budget deficit and public debt reduction. The public finance has been under continuous scrutiny of major reformation on expenditure and tax collection system. The philosophy of these fiscal reforms was based on the idea of reducing current expenditures (mainly personnel expenditure, subsidies and privatizing public-owned companies), expanding the tax base, simplifying and implementing new tax system, promoting tax incentive through reducing tax burden on business, and reducing informality and tax evasion². As a result, budget deficit in 2010 was gradually reduced to 3.2% of GDP from 9.6% in 1998, mainly through cuts in government subsidies, personnel expenditure and interest payments on debt servicing.

Albanian tax system has experienced major reformations too. We have to say that there were several initiatives regarding the tax legislation and system which changed as many times as a new government came into power. In 2007 a new fiscal package was approved by enduring a 10% flat income which substituted the progressive tax with the intention to stimulate business incentives as well as regenerate more tax revenues. In 2014 the tax system has changed putting again in place the progressive tax.

In the context of globalization a heavy burden might not stimulate the competitiveness in the country as well as it may lead to tax invasion.

b. Monetary policy reform

The Central Bank of Albania reports indicates that monetary stability is one of the major cornerstones of the recent success of Albanian economic development (Bolle and Meyer): Consumer price inflation dropped from more than 40 % to around 3 % in the aftermath of the 1997 burst of the pyramid scheme and the exchange rate is stable.

¹ Bulletin of the Bank of Albania, 2012

² Fiscal policy and economic growth: Case of Albania. Bank of Albania

After the macroeconomic stabilization of the country the Central Bank of Albania has been able to perform better and to effectively use its instruments. In 2000 the bank renounced use of direct instruments and switched to using indirect policy monetary instruments. The amendments of the legal framework of the bank have increased its independence but still the opening of the economy has faced a series of new challenges for the bank.

Some of the objectives of the monetary policy are stability of the prices or keeping the inflation rate low and economic growth. In the case of Albania independence, transparency and reliability of the Central Bank are very important for assuring a stable inflation rates.

The main challenges of monetary policy remain the economic growth, European integration and the structure of economy.

c. Privatization reform

Unlike other south-east countries of Europe, Albanian had the most centralized economy of the region. Following the democratic changes happening in the beginning of 90s, state-owned companies and enterprises were inefficient and had weak capacity. Privatization process in Albania started in the second half of 1991 by sanctioning and protecting private property, free initiative, independent private activities and privatization and creating a National Privatization Agency¹.

Since the privatization process was carried out in a very rapid way, there were a lot of things that didn't go well, as well as it happened to be complex because of many factors such as: the difficulty to define, identify and evaluate the property rights; old technology used in industries; weak infrastructure; lack of serious foreign investments; lack of banking system; corruption and corruptive affairs; Sale of properties in big units, etc.

At the beginning of the process the direct method of privatization meant to give assets of various units to the former workers. This method allowed a quick privatization of these objects and in cases where the former workers were not interested in buying the units, they could be sold through auction. There were 20.000 trade units privatized this way. Privatizations from the latest of 90s were focused more on the large state-owned enterprises giving priorities to the foreign investors.

According to Cano (2009), Albania's privatization seems to have been ill conceived from the very start. His analysis invites the reader to think that the Albanian government either lacked the political will to conduct a serious privatization policy, did not know how to do it, or all of the above (Jorge A. Sanguinety and Tania Mastrapa).

By the end of 2009, the vast majority of state enterprises had been privatized. Privatization proceeds for the period 1992-2009 were around US\$800 million².

d. Markets, trade and investments policy

WTO Trade Policy Review for Albania state that "since its accession in 2000, Albania has been an active participant in the WTO. Albania has an open trade regime underpinned by its extensive WTO commitments, and is not reliant on customs duties for government revenue. Albania's overall simple average applied tariff was 5.2% in 2009, with a highest

¹ Law no. 7512, dated 10 Aug 1991 "On sanctioning and protecting private property, free initiative, independent private activities and privatization"

² *BB 2010-05-06 WTO Trade Policy Review - Albania*

applied rate of 15%. Its average bound tariff is 6.6%, and the highest bound rate is 20%. All tariffs are ad valorem and no tariff-rate quotas are applied. The average applied tariff on agricultural products, at 8.8%, is higher than on non-agricultural products (4.2%). Albania has taken GATS commitments in 111 of the 160 services subsectors¹.

A lot of reforms have been undertaken such as the law on competition, a new procurement law, customs procedures have been rationalized by the use of a centralized electronic system which has reduced the customs clearance times, business registration and licensing procedures are simplified. Albania applies few non-tariff measures. There are no prohibited imports, except for products considered to be hazardous to public health¹. However, no export taxes are applied and licenses must be obtained for only a handful of mostly sensitive products.

Albania is open to foreign investment, furthermore foreign investments are not subject of prior authorization. In order to be more attractive to foreign investors, Albania introduced "Albania 1 euro" initiative. This initiative would be able to improve the business climate and the transformation of Albania into an attractive place for investors. The government offered a number of important government services ranging from assets that have been unused land, terrain, buildings, warehouses state that are not inserted in the economic versus a symbolic lease. They will be offered to interested investors to realize production activity and in particular it would help in attracting foreign direct investment, increase activity, the expansion of jobs and in particular to increasing exports.

Currently the government has put an emphasis on Small and Medium Enterprises development. The development of the SME sector is considered as the most efficient instrument for the economies in transition, which generates sustainable economic growth, employment and poverty alleviation (METE, 2008). The SME sector has a substantial contribution to economic growth and employment. Based on the INSTAT data (2011), the contribution of SMEs to GDP is more than 73 % and more than 71 % in the employment sector.

IV. What's there in the future?

Operating in a free and open market human resources are very important component. We are witnessing every day that people with high skills and very well educated are becoming more and more requested in the developed countries. Albania has suffered a lot from globalization at this point because since at the beginnings of the 90s qualified people have left the country for a better paid job.

Furthermore, economic growth during the second decade of transition in Albania has been largely consequently labour displacement from low productivity sectors to those with higher productivity and structural transformations. In this regards, the Albanian government has announced that in the government program for the period 2013-2017, it will implement a new model for the country's growth over 15 to next 20 years. This model² will be based on better structured and processed policies, to give a maximum boost economic growth to sustainability of its components in order to increase domestic product and level of exports, and to create the conditions for the opening of a large number of countries working on more strategic economic sectors of the country. According to the strategy "knowledge and skills are the foundation of such model of economic growth, and the drafting of appropriate public policies employment and vocational training education are crucial factor for achieving it".

Another aspect is the tremendous growth of inequalities between income distributions. The effects of globalization are inevitable even for our country. According to OECD the global level of income inequality in 2000 was at the level of 1820.

¹ The latest example is the law on integrated waste management

² National strategy for skills and employment 2014-2020

V. Conclusions

Globalization has a different impact on economic development in different countries and this is mostly because of their ability to compete and cooperate. Studies and examples have shown that countries that are able to manage to create a favorable environment for entrepreneurial activities are doing better in a globalized world. As the opposite is true that countries that do not offer good opportunities for business development, etc. consequently it may increase the gap between rich and poor.

During these two last decades Albania is adopting market economy principles and is following its perspective to European integration. Bearing in mind the effects of globalization, Albania should develop a regional integration approach. Cross border cooperation should continue to develop in this regards.

Also it should improve the business environment in order to be more attractive for foreign investors. The fiscal policy should be stable and long run because changing the tax system every budget year may disturb the investors, and maintain a fix tax (if possible lower that the average of the countries of the region).

The government should support further development of SMEs because it is the main driving force in the economic and social development of Europe.

At last but not the least, the government should fulfill EU requirements as soon as possible in order to open the negotiation process with EU, which means more benefits for Albania.

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Non-Verbal Communication in Daily Teaching Process

Aurora Spahija

University of Tirana

Faculty of History and Philology

Department of Linguistics

aurora.s@t-online.de

"A good teacher is a good listener, not only to words being spoken, but also to silent messages that signal agreement/disagreement, attention, inattention, interest/boredom, and the desire of the student to be heard" (Miller, 2005b, p. 67).

Abstract

In the past decades, many linguists, anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, language teachers and communication specialists have done a lot of researches concerning non-verbal communication. In fact non-verbal communication is still a young science which needs to be studied further. This paper gives a general introduction of significance of non-verbal communication, non-verbal behavior elements as well as possibilities of their application in foreign language teaching and stresses its influence in communication, specially pointing the important role in teaching and implication to teaching. Successful communication among people concerns verbal behavior as well as nonverbal one. It is quite usual to forget about many aspects of non-verbal communication. When we hear this notion comes in fact to mind immediately body gestures or facial expressions. However, there are many more aspects. There is an urgent need in order to improve the quality of our communication, to learn something new about this important form of human communication. This paper will first consider the common pedagogy-didactic aspects of non-verbal communication and behavior during the lessons. It will then explore functions of non-verbal communication, methodical-didactic degression, functions of non-verbal communication in a foreign language classroom, peculiarities of proxemics and its role in communication. Finally, this paper presents some practical advices for foreign language teacher, in avoiding inadequate body language interpretation.

Keywords: nonverbal behavior, degression of nonverbal communication, proxemics.

II. INTRODUCTION

Communication is the basis of all human contact and plays a key role in our daily lives. To communicate our feelings, ideas, thoughts, skills etc. we communicate verbally and non-verbally because communication is the combination of verbal and non-verbal transmission of knowledge. Main purpose of education is to teach the art of Communication since the child learns to become human through communication. Teachers, like daily life situation, can use consciously or unconsciously non-verbal communication to send a potent message, to enhance student's performance and motivation toward learning. The teaching is itself a difficult process in which the teachers transfer their knowledge and information to the student. Non-verbal communication plays a very major role, in the classroom, during teaching process. It includes gestures, body movements, eye contact, facial expressions, pitch or tone of a voice, apparent behavior, spatial distance, postures and dress of an individual. Foreign language teaching and learning are basically oriented to the development of grammatical accuracy rather than communicative skills. Most of the time students feel the teacher's lectures are boring because they focus only on grammar or vocabulary and non-verbal communication don't accompany the language. In the profession of teaching the non-verbal communication should not be ignored because the students motivate or engage more effectively through the numbers of technique in the body language.

II. FUNCTIONS OF THE NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM

Communication, as the process of sending and receiving messages, helps us humans to share knowledge, feelings, attitudes and skills. While verbal communication can be turned off, non-verbal communication cannot. We can send messages also even when we stay silent. During communication, important, is not only what is said but also how something is said. "Non-verbal behavior" includes the mode of presentation, posture, gestures, mimicry, eye contact, tone of voice, expression, stress, etc. Non-verbal signals, according to D. W. Allhoff have the following functions:

1. They promote the utterance of words, accompany and support what is said (e.g: with reinforcing gestures.)
2. They soften comments (e.g: friendly remarks)
3. They hone the statements (e.g: asking for a plea in a commanding tone)
4. They contradict the formulated text (e.g: by flippant lies)
5. They substitute the spoken language (e.g: when showing with your finger that someone is not 'mentally good').
6. They show the attitude towards listening (e.g: by nodding).
7. They adjust dialogue sequences (e.g: through changes in the rhythm of speech)
8. They make the interlocutors' mood clearer (e.g: through manifestation of tension or yawning)
9. They influence what other people think about us (e.g: through the outward appearance).
10. They indicate the type of relationship (e.g: when lovers stay close to each other).

Verbal and non-verbal communication are closely related. Learning a foreign language is strongly related to the vivid verbal and non-verbal interaction. An efficient integration of the non-verbal communication in the classroom means including elements that are integral parts of the natural communication. The less we consider integral parts of the natural communication, the more difficult it is to achieve the communicative effect of a language. As a teacher, you should be more conscious of the fact that any verbal or non-verbal behavior is interpreted. Non-verbal signs indicate a lot of how you emphasize the gestures, how you move, how you look at somebody, if you keep your head, shoulders, arms or legs straight and spread, crooked or closed. Gestures that don't have any functions, tell us more than what we want to believe. They are mechanical actions with an unintended expressive force and transmit unintentional signals to students. This is the reason why teachers should control well the so-called non-verbal means with no function.

- Nervous deviant behavior: playing with the necklace, the earring, or with a pen, thrumming with the fingers on the table, walking up and down or standing up and sitting down without any reason.
- Body care: biting of the fingernails, removing the hair from the face etc.
- Self-contacts: Pampering your face, hair, crossing your arms, rubbing your chin with your hand etc.
These non-verbal signals may indicate that for some reason, the teacher does not feel good in the classroom and this can negatively affect the atmosphere of the class. The nonverbal means of expression can have different didactic functions during the lesson, although it should be distinguished whether they come from the teacher or the students.
- The general interactive function. Non-verbal communication, visual contact, gestures, mimic and body movements, play an important role in the initiation, continuation and termination of interpersonal contacts. When a certain student has the impression that the teacher looks at him/her too often or never lays eyes on him/her, stays close to him/her too often or never approaches to him/her, then these general interactive functions can unintentionally be interpreted from the pedagogical aspect.
- The activating function. Gestures and movements have an activating function or in a general sense, they have a motoric function, that take into account the physiological need for movement. Through the use of non-verbal communication, gestures in speaking and movements in the classroom, each teacher can provide a vivid and

stimulating lesson. But the teacher must be careful because sometimes the moves can also help to create psychological stress in the class and he/she should not forget the fact that certain non-verbal signals have a negative interactive impact, for example:

1. Pointing to students with your index finger.
 2. Not looking at the student while talking with him/her.
 3. Frequently looking out of the window or at the ceiling, etc.
- Regulation of the didactic interaction. Nonverbal signals can provide a substantial contribution in regulating the specific didactic interaction in classes, e.g:

Fig.1

Nonverbal signals during teachers' didactic activity

Nonverbal signals	When calling a student	When signaling a mistake	When starting a phase
Gestures	Pointing to the student with your stretched arm	Moving your spread hand front to back	Indicating the medium
Mimic	Friendly, Smiling, encouraging	Puckering your forehead due to mistakes	Friendly, Smiling, encouraging
Eye contact	Looking at the student	Looking at the student, Squinting of the eyes	Looking at the student Rambling gaze
Posture	Slightly bent forward, nodding	Slightly lifting the shoulders	Upright, open, frontal
Movement	Take a step towards the student	Take a step back	Change the place frontal position

These examples show that the nonverbal signals accompany the teacher's language and sometimes they can even replace it altogether.

- Comprehensive and expressive aid. According to H. Sarter, H. S Rosenbusch, and O. Schober, the application of nonverbal means in class play an important didactic function in terms of comprehension and expression. Gestures are a tool which can be used in synchrony with the language and make the lesson easier to comprehend. The different hand movements, a raised index finger, or a closed fist, for example, could clarify the spoken language.
- Semantization. Nonverbal signals often substitute the spoken language completely. When we learn a foreign language, we notice that a verbal explanation, with unfamiliar words, does not help us a lot. In this case, non-verbal communication is the right choice. The teacher can express words such as: big, small, go, straight, cry, laugh, through mimicry or gestures and movements in the class. Therefore, the nonverbal signals support the speech production.

III. DEGRESSION OF THE METHODOLOGICAL AND DIDACTIC FUNCTION OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Nonverbal behavior can support or even replace the spoken language respectively the speech, e.g nodding of the head as a form of approval. In learning a foreign language, non-verbal communication plays a crucial role, especially in the first lessons. The younger the students are, the more important the non-verbal communication is, as an integral part of the language acquisition process. However, the situation changes in the course of progressive language acquisition and with the increasing age of the students. When students reach a better level of understanding through listening, then the importance of visual comprehension diminishes and subsequently the nonverbal behavior, too. Non-verbal communication helps the teacher because through reactions, gestures and facial expressions, he understands the perceptual skills. When a very advanced level of the new foreign language is reached, then the importance of non-verbal communication changes. As a result the methodological and didactic function of nonverbal behavior is subject to degression and we can distinguish three phrases:

1. Replacement function – when students hear unfamiliar statements, the nonverbal behavior must surely replace verbal statements. They interpret what they see with the help of their cognitive meta-linguistic abilities as well as their knowledge about the world and they get the meaning of what they hear.
2. Accompanying function – Due to the existing familiarity with the new language, the nonverbal communication takes more the function of accompaniment of the verbal function.
3. Distinctive function – with the increasing listening skills, nonverbal communication takes a distinctive function. The level of the new language is so good that understanding can be achieved through verbal communication but teacher should pay attention and keep under constant observation the nonverbal behavior of his students, because they indicate the understanding gaps and problems, different opinions and in this way they trigger starting points for discussion.

IV. PROXEMICS

Behavior and acts show that the body is "the mirror of the soul ". Each person has his unique way of standing, walking and moving. The attitude and the way of standing are important tools in conveying interpersonal settings. *"The attitude of a man is often an indication of its goals, especially in relation to the distance between the person and his interlocutors."* (Argyle 1996, p. 27)

The boundaries of a person's behavior towards others around him is called proxemics. With proxemics we understand the importance of space during communication and in particular the closeness and the distance between interlocutors. The distance between the interlocutors has to do with the familiarity and the safety that they feel. The more uncertain a teacher or a student feels, the greater will the spatial distance be. Teachers must be more consistent in the treatment of students in certain areas of distance. When the teacher addresses to the whole class, for example during lecture, they should be in a "general approach distance". So they should be somewhere near the basic line, approximately 3-4m. In this way all students will feel as interlocutors and the teachers avoid the chance of turning their back to the class or taking such positions from where they will not be able to see all the students. Teachers can create direct contact with a student making for example two or three steps forward and creating personal contact. But they should not stay that way for a long time so they will not lose contact with other students and should avoid intimate distance although it is sometimes necessary when, for example, they check the notebooks or a teamwork. When going to the blackboard, the teachers can walk backwards so they will not turn their back to the students. Different distances depend on the size of the classroom or the way in which pupils are sitting. Teachers must think of when is it appropriate for them stand or sit during lecturing hours.

Standing: While standing, the teachers can use the body language effectively e.g. at the beginning of the class, while they are lecturing, while they are using the blackboard, in individual or teamwork.

Sitting down: when the blackboard is not necessary while lecturing. Where the teachers are sitting, is very important: behind or in front of their desk, or in a chair. Teachers can sit when they do not have to take care of the students e.g. while they work in groups or in individual tasks. Their desk should not stand in the middle of class, because it can be easily perceived as a barrier between students and teachers.

VI. SOME TIPS FOR TEACHERS IN THE NONVERBAL AREA

The body language in daily teaching process takes a significant role. The teacher uses his or her body language to their substantive content to give emphasis, to define their relationship with the students and generally to control the entire teaching process. Like any language, also the body language must be learned. During this learning process, it can always lead to misinterpretations, distortions and misunderstandings on the part of the teacher and students, and this leads to communication difficulties. The following tips on body language have been proved in teaching practice as particularly necessary and useful.

- The arms and hands should have a basic position that allows gestures. That means no crossed arms and no hands in pockets. Who finds it difficult and does not know, what to do with his her hands, can take something into his hand like a sticknote for example. An open attitude to class and "contact link" between blackboard and class is needed.
- The legs should not be cracked or stand apart and they should make even a good ground contact, because a good posture gives more confidence.
- The knees are not in a stable state, since the body weight makes them more elastic.
- While sitting, of course, a good contact with the chair is needed. Those who sit only in the front edge of a chair, will automatically be in a slightly higher body tension.
- Those who sit behind the table, should keep their hands visible to the class. As a starting position, a loose, open storage of the hands and forearms on the table is recommended.
- Looking down means that the teacher is bored or is being serious.
- Keeping one hand on the nose or front of the mouth is evidence of insecurity of the teacher.
- Withdrawn lips signify a mild form of anxiety, as well as a snap on the lips and a tightly closed mouth. The rear solid angle of the mouth can lead to increased anxiety.
- Forwarding the index finger, to a student shows a strict act, a stretched upward pointing finger shows dominance, but this serves to attract attention. Students find this act as friendly and helpful.
- The teacher, bending and smiling slightly inclining her head forward, has shown to the students attention and positive feelings.
- Movements of the head, an expression that surely attracts attention. If you keep this fixed position and you see a student with a steady gaze and / or tilt it upside down, you can call him / her.
- The fist in the air is an impressive gesture that is used to put forward an argument powerfully, either while explaining something to the students or if you have to discipline them.
- Raising the eyebrows is an expression of interest, while you show concentration wrinkles have an ambiguous expression is slight annoyance, but in discussions rather high concentration.
- The eyes to the side twisted, a quick look with wide eyes and a twitch of the eyebrows can show you as being friendly, calm and relaxed. Attention to a specific person among several can attract the attention of the students.

VII. CONCLUSION

Our daily teaching process is a social interaction between teacher and students in a classroom. Over decades, much attention has been given to the research on verbal communication and the non-verbal communication was neglected. This is the reason why daily classroom teaching is still inefficient. The nonverbal cues can influence the teacher's state of mind and further improve the effect of classroom instruction. The effectiveness of teaching and learning in classrooms, depends on the proper use of non-verbal communication. As Foreign Language Teachers, we should be equipped with knowledge of nonverbal means and we should also encourage our students to improve their nonverbal communicative competence.

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Role of the School Principal (Manager) and Quality Education

Hajrije Kastrati, PhD

Kosova

Abstrakt

One of the components of education is the quality where the main actor is the school director who with his work plans, monitors, organizes and controls the quality in education. Management in principle has to do with the school principal and management structures, and it addresses to all employees where represents the culture of work, as well as constituent part of the job of every teacher and of every student. In this research paper will present the work and role of the school principal as a manager where the data will be taken from the research which will be done in public high schools in the city of Prizren and Theranda. The quantitative data will be collected from questionnaires that will be made with students and the respective school teachers while qualitative data will be taken from interviews that will become directors of the foregoing school. Determination of the school principal as a manager, working for an effective school and the establishment of a management style will take us towards improving the quality of education will see the continuation of this scientific work where the data will be taken from the research.

Keywords: school principal, quality in education, students, teachers, managerial abilities, the role of the school director etc.

Introduction

Directors have more responsibility than ever before (Chrispeels, 2004) except that dealing with personnel issues, disciplinary problems of students, parents' concerns, and negative publicity in the media, directors must ensure that all schoolchildren public to be successful (GENTILUCCI & Muto, 2007) so, accountability for directors is very high because they have to work and provide everything what is needed to be successful schools likewise, the author (Leithwood, 1992) and colleagues his give us more case studies and make synthesis of all these cases, which show that school principals as the primary ones, as well as secondary, concentrate on creating conditions for the development of the school, helping in finding and determining possible sources, the development of collaborative cultures in all subgroups of teachers, supporting and promoting the professional development of teachers, the creation of structures facilitating and overseeing the dedication of teachers.

In various countries of the world academic institutions have all opened for education and training or training directors to successfully manage schools. If the success of an organization depends on its Manager then why the success of a school should not depend on the management skills that should have a school principals. Then how is it possible that the management of an organization that deals with the production of products or services to engage experts to prepare more if the theoretical and practical while managing an engaging educational institution directors who are not prepared to manage the school. In this regard the main witness is very poor success.

Not functioning in this very important component of the educational policymakers ago and dealing with problems of this nature in our work in Kosovo's schools has led us to treat this subject very important for school principals and quality in education. Taking into account the importance of education in society can say that there is no economic development, cultural and scientific and technological without quality education without professional or managerial directors in Kosovo schools.

Determination of the school principal as a manager, working for an effective school and the establishment of a management style will take us towards improving the quality of education we shall see in the following of the paper and after research and analysis of data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews to be conducted in public secondary schools in the city of Prizren and Theranda

Aim of this Paper

The main purpose of this research paper is **the role of the school principal in the direction of the institution to increase the quality of education.**

Managerial Functions of Directors in Schools

According to Fayol's to manage the means to predict and to plan, organize, command, coordinate and check.

The functions of the school principal as a manager are: to manage the school, formulation of policies that best suit the needs of the school, and the general interests of students. A successful manager, means of educated, capable of planning, coordinating, controlling, motivating, has good relations with teachers and students, as well as a person with special responsibility towards work, competent, tolerant and so on. A director that is manager is also responsible for the school to plan in order to create an ideal environment for their learning.

Planning is based feature where all others implement the decisions taken at the time of planning. Define specific objectives general, programs, policies and strategies to be followed to achieve them. In general, planning determines where the school wants to be in the future and how to bear up there (Parker, 2013) Planning is important because it provides staff with a sense of purpose and direction, determines the types of tasks that they will perform, and explains how their activities are related to the goals of the school (S.Van Osterlynck den, Broeck J. Abrechts L., Moulart., 2011).

Planning is also a prerequisite for other management functions (Goodstein, 1993) In particular, it becomes the basis for monitoring and evaluating current performance (Donnell, 2011) That is, when the first step made plans and standards or criteria to measure actual performance monitoring made in step. But if plans are formulated and mutually agreed then, relatively little value or basis for measuring the effectiveness of educational outcomes ((Lunenburg & Irby, 2006) (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008) in addition, we compare planned and actual results which offer a sound basis on which to make necessary adjustments in the school's action plan.

Organization - Finding the most effective way to achieve the objectives, division of tasks done by groups that are assigned manager responsible for each group, defined authorities and responsibilities. Once principals have developed feasible plans and methods for their implementation, they should develop an organization that will successfully implement the plans. The organization comprises three essential elements (Argyries, 2012):

- Development of the structure of the organization,
- The acquisition and development of human resources and
- Creating models and shared networks.

In a very basic sense, the design of the organizational structure includes the creation of organizational scheme for a school (Jones, 2010). The Director shall establish policies and procedures for relations with the authorities, reporting models, chain of command and various administrative responsibilities and regulations. The organization is usually more specific and can include the following specific activities (Richard M. Burton & Borge Obel, 2004):

- Developing methods to help people understand what work is part of their responsibility;
- Coordination of individual efforts through two work schedules to avoid unnecessary delays in the implementation of tasks;
- Development of an efficient system to make day-to-day job duties and;
- Providing substitute personnel to avoid interruptions in workflow caused by deficiencies.

Motivation - To be effective in his work directors must understand the behavior of the individual and his group, the recognition of techniques effectively apply the motivation and choice of conflicts. Director should influence his behavior to others in a certain direction. To influence others, the director must understand everything about leadership, motivation, communication, and group dynamics, systematically compare the performance of schools and planned objectives of deviation determined if fighting then taken appropriate corrective actions which may require plans, other organizations, staff qualifications etc.

When directors compare outcomes with the actual results, and take necessary corrective measures, they are performing the function of monitoring. Deviations from past plans should be considered when lay down new plans.

The success with which the directors perform these functions determines how effectively the school is located. A school is set to perform a variety of tasks and to achieve a number of stated goals, the most important is the quality of students (Alan M. Blankstein & Paul D. Housstein, 2007). It is the job of the director to achieve goals, working with all stakeholders of the school in an atmosphere of a professional learning community and this includes planning, organizing, leading, and monitoring (Richard Dufour, Rebecca Dufour, Robert eaker, Thomas Many, 2006).

Model of Quality in Education by CE Beeby

In his historical text, "Quality of Education in Developing Countries", the author (Beeby, 1966) made the first attempt to generate a model to understand educational theory. He introduced the concept of quality in the three criteria;

First, "quality- class", which has to do with the acquisition of knowledge and skills measurable learning, and assessment of behaviors and attitudes of students and teachers which is difficult to measure.

Second, the "quality-education" which serve economic goals of the community in which students live so the quality of education should serve you and economic goals third place quality control.

In his second criterion and the third for quality education defines as "external quality", while the first criterion defines as "internal quality" which according to the author Beeby.

As the main factors which influence the quality of education according to the author are:

- 1 responsibility of the school (school principal)
- 2 teachers and
- 3 income.

He wrote this pattern when human capital theorists had begun development of quantitative techniques to measure the economic benefits of investment in education and thus, was motivated to propose a model of quality in education which match the sophistication of their analysis statistical. This was also a time when the rapid expansion of education delivery, especially in countries with low income was perceived as a threat to quality education.

Theory of Quality Management – Demings Cycle

Continuous improvement is an intervention to prevent the deterioration of a process in time and increase quality. To continuously improve the quality in general and of each process in particular, strongly recommended an approach to incremental improvements continuous process. Continuous improvement process known as PBKV Demings cycle.

Four key steps initial cycle are:

- P (planning) - data collection to identify and define the issues / problems that need improvement and to identify ways to achieve
- B (making, implementation) - to implement the plan through the use of a preliminary test, a set of tests, etc.
- K (control) - analyzing the results to see if there is consistency between the initial goals and what is actually achieved; adjustments, if necessary.
- V (action) - depending on the results of step control action plan or a full-scale realization of further work beginning with P (planning).

In his later work, Deming switched control study because he wanted to emphasize the process of learning as more important than the limited action of control. The main principle here is that self-esteem is a proper fit for the academic institution. PBKV cycle can be applied to all academic activities, including teaching.

Management theory in education process can be described as an analog model of the strategies / tactics of development in education, being methodological premise conceptual model of internal quality management.

Methodology of Work

As a working methodology in this scientific paper questionnaires are used.

Schools that have participated in this research was the top high schools in the city of Prizren and Theranda, therefore total were seven high schools above.

People in research are teachers and students of the high school public which the selection is made at random. The distribution of questionnaires was conducted of MES consent for research in these schools. The data for the realization of this research was gathered by a combination of quantitative methods being supported by the relevant instruments. For quantitative data collection was prepared by a structured questionnaires and semi-structured for teachers and students

Questionnaire for teachers - summarizes the quantitative data, contains a block of questions that relate directly to the issue of quality in schools, concretely with school directors work.

Questionnaire for students - Summarize the quantitative data. At the beginning contains a block of questions which aimed to obtain general information about age, gender, etc. success.

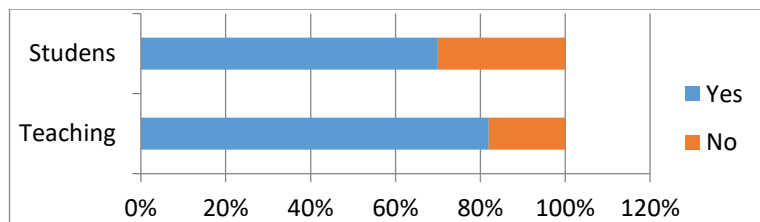
Number of questionnaires for students were 300 questionnaires and for teaching were 150 questionnaires.

Data Analysis

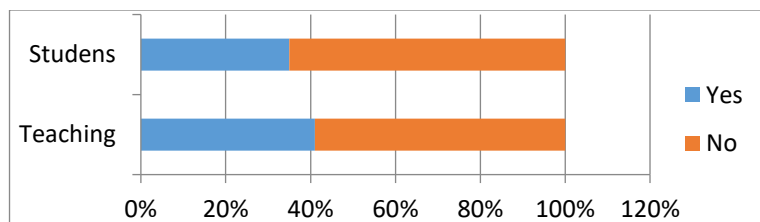
After distribution and data collection has become their analysis

The first question to students and teachers have been: 1. School principal or manager brings quality in education.

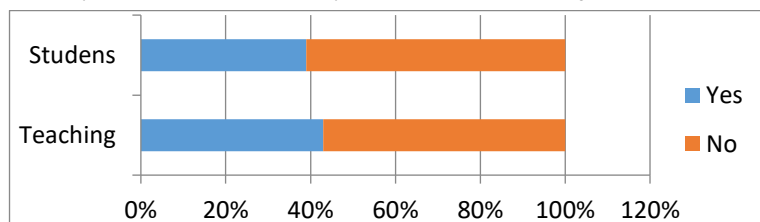
Response was 75% students are for yes while the teachers have been 82% for yes have the file in the diagram below



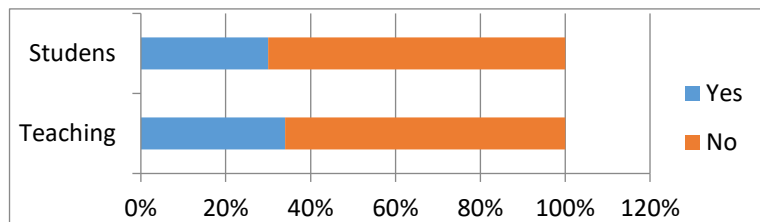
A second question was 2. Are you happy with the work of the director at your school, the answer was for students 35% for yes while teachers was 41% for yes (also shown in the diagram)



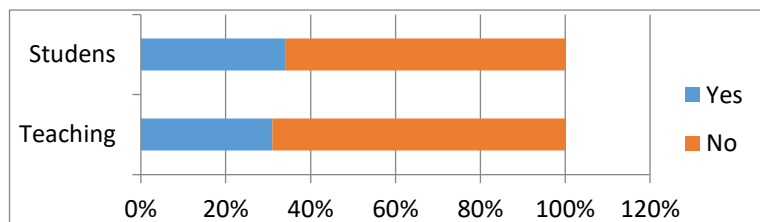
The third question 3. Director at your school a clearly defines its mission and vision, the answer was for students 39% were for yes while teachers 43% for yes are presented in the diagram



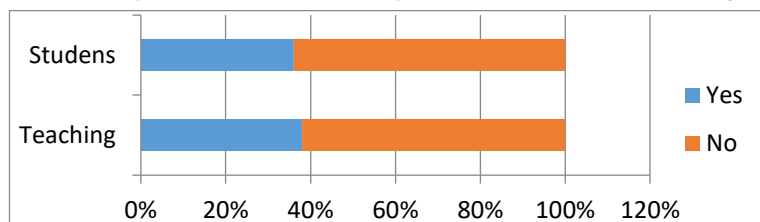
4. The fourth question guided our schools successful director and professional response 30% of pupils were for yes while teachers 34% were for yes are also shown in the diagram.



Question 5. Director at your school or is cooperative and communicative response was this
Students 31% for yes while teachers 36% are for yes



And the last question 6. How is your school principal committed to improving the quality of education, the answer was for students 36% yes while teachers is 38% for yes this result is also shown in the diagram.



Also during the research and conversations with teachers and Received data from MEST school directors were not adequate to guide profession school, they had been my first professors of different subjects as the subject of chemistry, physics, biology etc.

Conclusion

According to data obtained from the questionnaires seen that the above schools governed by directors who were not professional to lead the schools so selection of directors must be based on managerial skills have specifically ee directors should be adequate or proesionist to lead school

It is recommended that institutions of central and regional level take precedence development of training programs of Directors on improving the quality of school. The program may also include a search through which each school to conduct a study to identify the type of quality that exists within it, in order to improve it. It is assumed that if such a program is organized, it will assist principals in schools in assessing their leadership behavior. It will also help them to take the necessary steps to improve the quality of their schools. On the other hand, only improvement is not enough. This improvement, if achieved, should be retained.

Directors should try to include teachers in decision-making fully and their implementation to be cooperative and communicative. In these conditions, the teacher will work mainly with more enthusiasm and commitment on issues relating to the progress of the school. Directors must be professional, objective and honest when giving their evaluations of school staff. Transparency is crucial to establishing cooperative relationships between colleagues. And finally on the basis of data obtained from the research directors must be thus manager must plan, organize, communicate and to check to have the highest quality in schools.

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Fair Trial and its Application in the Republic of Macedonia

Fatbardha Ismaili

PhD Cand. Law Faculty, State University of Tetova,
Ilindenit p.n. 1200 Republic of Macedonia
Tel.0038970333622 mail: fatbardha.i@live.com

Abstract

The right of subjects to a trial within a reasonable time is part of the wider discourse of human rights, as well as all other rights dedicated to the existence of due process compliance of this procedural standard in general is a significant indicator for human rights. In our country the issue of respecting the right to trial within a reasonable time is increasing. On the one hand the ratification of the European Convention on Human Rights as well as other documents that guarantee those rights are the foundation began the rising level of this principle. On the other hand the existence of remedies as the remedy before the Macedonian Supreme Court and European Court of Human Rights, gives another opportunity to the subject to prove their claims. The violation of this principle cause negative consequences for both sides, first for the applicant whose rights had been done, and second this violation means that se state must pay compensation to the applicants, which can cause serious problems and consequences if the state don't take the necessary measures to improve their judicial system.

Key words: *fair trial, court deploy, criminal procedure, reforms, principle of fair trial.*

Introduction

Trial within a reasonable time is one of the most important procedural principles predicted and protected by domestic law, but also guaranteed by international acts. The international documents raised the need of trial evidence in which the procedure would be straight forward and without delay.

From the existence of this standard until today, this principle has always remained as one of the most frequent bases for which the parties have addressed procedural lawsuits by the national and international courts. This is because the underdevelopment of the procedure within a reasonable time means nonexistence of many other important components which will cause delay of the procedures prior the courts.

This is a standard that entails a specific which cannot be found in any other principle. Thus it makes this study even more remarkable. In this article we will approach to this principle in the normative aspect as well in practice, by highlighting the real situation and whether this standard is protected by the courts of the Republic of Macedonia.

1. The regulation of normative principle judgment within the term in RM

There are a number of legal acts which, unlike the Constitution, contain provisions and ways of protecting the standards of the trial within a reasonable time. Law on Courts provides norms for the organization, operation and basic principles for the work of the courts, from which, article 6 will be highlighted. It is a provision that is very important, since there lays the foundation of legal protection to trial within a reasonable time period.

Everyone shall be entitled to equal access before the court for protection of their rights and legal interests. While deciding on civil rights and obligations as well as deciding on criminal liability, everyone shall be entitled to just and public trial within a reasonable time before an independent and impartial court established by law, (article 6 CC-RM)

From this article, standards are ejected without which the procedures are "sine quanon". In the first paragraph the rights of citizens are protected, in order to address the court to protect their interests that are being violated or disrespected. Ongoing, the law calls in procedure should be developed within a reasonable time without concretizing the reasonable time, however the local courts use the same criteria as ECHR.

The Code of Criminal Procedure also approaches to this standard with 9 concrete acts, such as act 6, which foresees *"The person who is subject of the procedure is entitled to be brought before a court of law within a reasonable time and be tried without unjustified delay. The court of law is obliged to conduct the procedure without delay and impede any misuse of the rights of the persons participating in the procedure. The duration of the detention and other restrictions of the personal freedom must be reduced to the shortest period necessary,,,"*. Such approach is a very important guarantee for a procedure which is quite complex and sensitive at the same time. However, while other legislation only envisage this standard, our CPP also foresees the measures that will apply to all of those that will act contrary to this principle.

2. Duration of the procedure

The long duration of the procedure is an old and known problem to when the domestic criminal procedure is at stake. Thus, in accordance with the data provided by the State Statistic Office for 2013 the duration of the procedure from the moment of the submission of the charges till the reaching of the judgment in the cases with known offender, out of 15 012 submitted charges the procedure lasted: up to 1 month-in 4 046 cases; from 1 to 2 months –in 1 744 cases; out of 2 up to 4 month– 2 204; from 4 to 6 months –1 417; from 6 months to 1 year -2 051 cases, and over 1 year – 3 550 cases. Observed through this aspect the picture remains almost the same year in year out, with the difference that the numbers are higher for couple of percents each year.

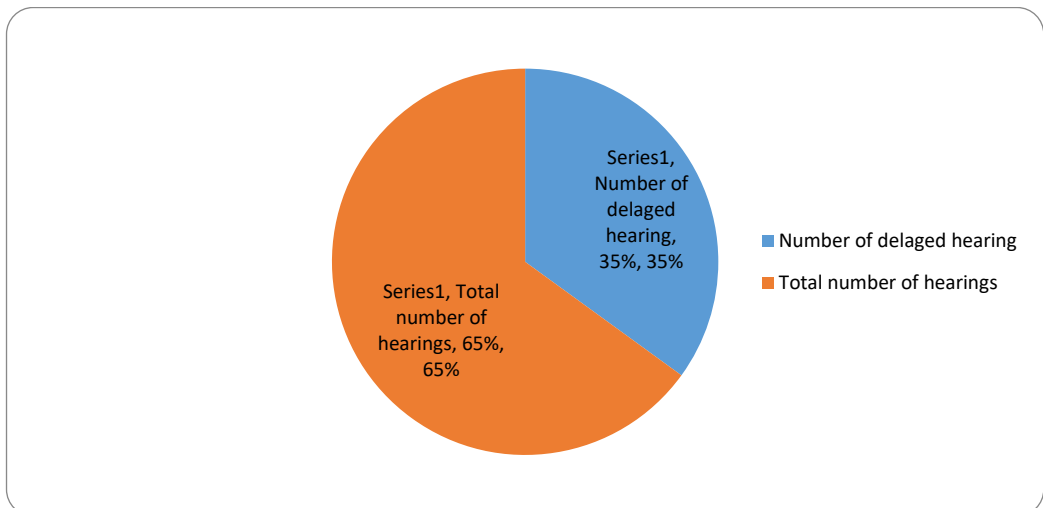
When the acts against office are concerned, the length is somewhat longer due to the complexity of the cases and the number of the offenders that are tried for the same. Thus, according to the data of the last year provided from the same source, the procedure for these criminal acts lasted: up to 1 month–in 1143 cases; from 1 to 2 months-104 cases; from 2 to 4 months -111; from 4 to 6 months - 84; from 6 months to 1 year -158 cases; over 1 year- 205 cases.

The fact that the criminal procedures last so long is negatively reflected in the efficiency of the penal system in general, but special damages are suffered by the defendant, especially if he or she is in detention, which was often a case in the observed cases.

One should bear in mind in the observed cases their complexity – we speak of extensive and complex cases which means that they need more time for completion. The extensiveness and the complexity of these cases is concerned both from the aspect of the actual and legal issues.

3. Delaying of the trial

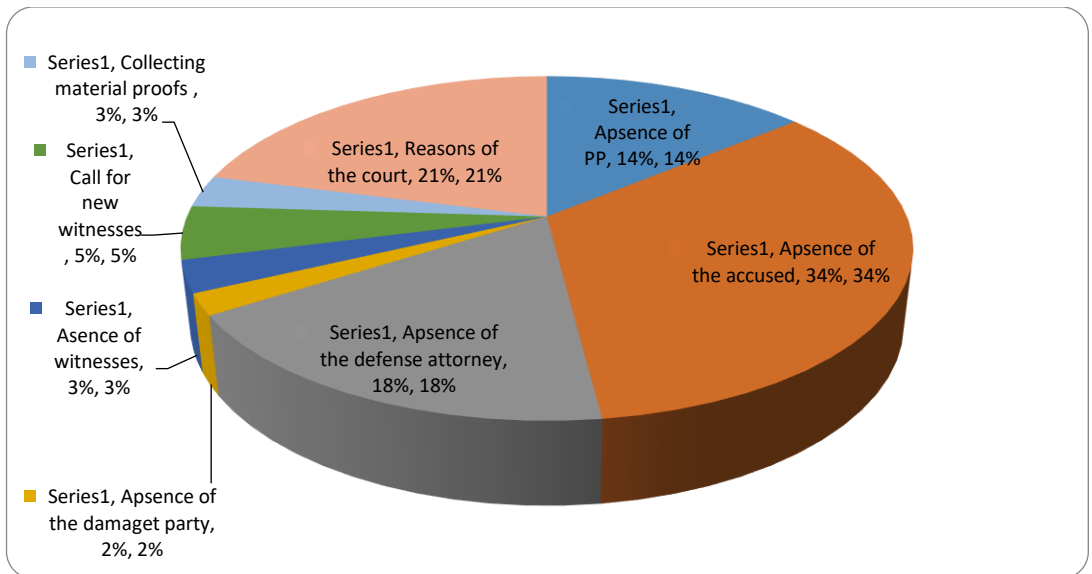
Graph 1.



Number of delayed hearings

The data clearly shows that the number of the delayed trials/hearings significantly contribute in the prolongation of the procedure. The sole fact that almost half of the scheduled hearings are postponed is really worrying and speaks of the bad organization and the lack of professionalism of the participants in the procedure. Admittedly the worst part here, is seems that everybody are used to this manner of working, and the people (including the media) even perceive as normal the trials to take place in phases and with frequent delays. Some of the experts find the reason for this in the model of the procedure itself, where the proofs are gathered sometimes when the hearing and the trial are in process. Contrary to these, for us common practices, most of the western states find that the efficiency of the procedure is one of the most important principles and thus they speak of the principle of concentration, and the trials are previously well prepared and then are conducted in continuity, and if needed in couple of days in a row.

Graph. 2

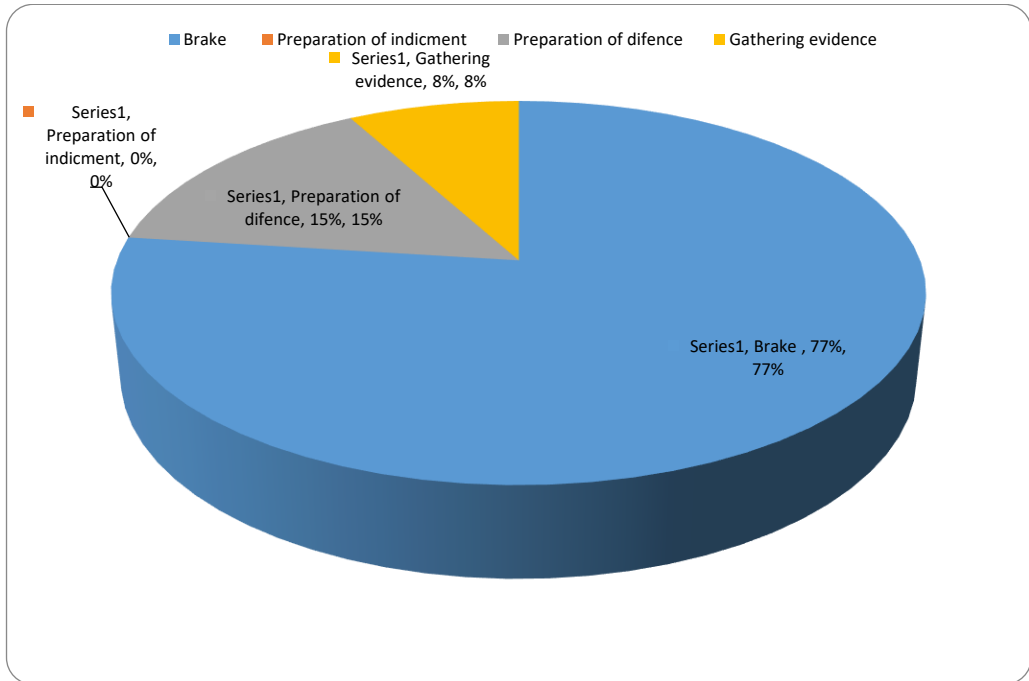
**Reasons for postponing a hearing**

As main reasons for prolongation of the procedure often objective reasons appear – such as when the reason for the prolongation is due the difficulties in finding and presentation of evidence, the time span of the analyse of the expertise etc., but more often the reasons are due subjective factors –when the procedure is prolonged delayed due to the fault of the participants in the proceedings. As it can be seen from the gathered data, the participants in the proceedings, the defendand and the defense were in most cases appearing on the scheduled hearings.

In spite of this, the defendand has often submitted objections and complaints which were not seriously grounded, concealed certain facts essential to the length of the case, defense reques ted a delay because of the excessive workload and so on.

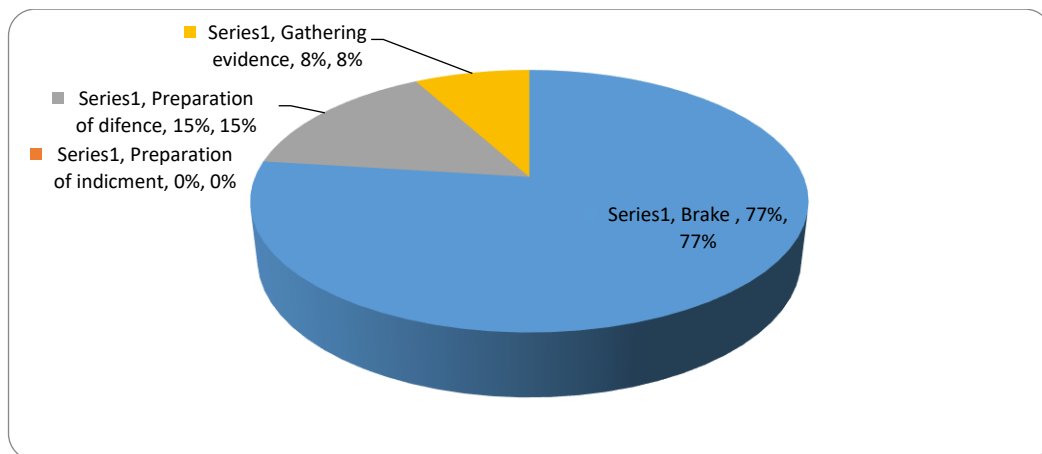
The behavior of public authorities (the court, the public prosecutor and the police) in most of the cases can be evaluated as expeditious since they have shown an active approach in solving the criminal acts, when it was necessary the collection of a large body of evidence and so on, but the cases have been observed where unnecessary delays in almost all phases and stages of the procedurewere happening. Thus, the number of the delayed or postponed hearings which in the monitored cases is caused by the absence of the public prosecutor (14%) or because the court has made them in (21%), is simply unacceptable.

Graph .3.

**Reasons of discontinuation of the trail**

The monitors have noted the existence of numerous and different circumstances, which means that there is a need of interruption of the main hearing (it's stopping in a short period that doesn't surpasses 30 day). Among the circumstances that lead to the interruption of the main hearings are: short reassess/brake during the hearing (77%), preparation of the conviction (8%) or defense (15%), and only in exceptional cases the need for gathering new evidences and other circumstances that are provided for by law.

Graph..4

**Reasons of discontinuation of the trial**

Conclusion

Laws that deal within a reasonable judgment in the Republic of Macedonia not only guarantee but also create other prerequisites for realizing this right even if it is breached. This is the result of increasingly high efforts to limit unnecessary delay. But taking into consideration the legal time controlled by the courts, laws present the clock and the courts are its hands. This means that the laws are necessary, but courts are even more necessary because they apply laws. How do things function here in Macedonia? There is no law for disciplining of judicial time. Judicial practice relies on the decisions of the Strasbourg Court, which is considered as a confirmed source of law for us. But whether the courts apply it or not it remains a big question mark. This article is closed with an expression of Shakespeare that says: „ How does the world move? , the painter responds: " It wears,sir, as it grows ". The world is consumed and it has no time to expect a delayed justice.

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On some Semantic Differences between Verbal Forms of the Past Tense in the Albanian Language

Alma Pinari (Kallari), PhD.

Tirana University

Faculty of Foreign Languages
Department of Slavic and Balkan Languages

Russian language Branch

E-mail: almapinari@gmail.com

Abstract

In the studies on Albanian verbal system, linguists do not share the same opinion about semantic differences among verbal forms of the past. In some juxtapositions of verbal forms of the past, linguists distinguish aspect meanings or nuances, which, according to them, characterize the action by its feature of finiteness / infiniteness. In the following article efforts argue the view that the distinction among forms of Albanian past has nothing to do with the aspect as a morphologic category, present in the Slavic languages. It elaborates the idea that the meanings or nuances acquired by forms of indicative past interacting with some context elements characterize not only realization of tense categorical meanings, but also several other meanings of aspectual but not aspect character. Aspectual phenomena (meanings) stand out in the functional level by interaction linguistic means of different levels.

Keywords: *aspectual shades, aspectual meanings, aspectual context etc.*

Semantic differences between verbal forms in the Albanian language, continue to attract the attention of many Albanian language's researchers. Actually this is quite understandable if we take into consideration the fact that the Albanian verbal system is characterized by a variety of tenses that are used not only in order to describe the time that an action takes place but also to show the manner that this action flows in a certain period of time. (Bondarko A.V., 1987).

According to many researchers, the case of verb tenses remains one of the most important topics of the Albanian language. However, it is worth mentioning that even for this topic, researchers share some different point of views regarding verbs and tenses in the Albanian language.

For instance, according to many studies the definition of potential semantic forms of time and the principle of differentiation from other meanings is still not very clear. Whenever we are dealing with past forms of the verbs we encounter a special confusion which is clearly associated with semantic components of meaning, time and its aspects.

In Albanian language more rich in grammatical forms, is the past tense (Demiraj Sh., 1985), with its subdivisions: past simple, present perfect, past perfect and other past tenses, so-called relative tenses. The three first, the so-called absolute time of the past, express pre-timing in relation to the time of speech and hence oppose each other in aspectual area (Grammar of the Albanian Language 1 (2002)). While the last two the so-called relative tenses of the past, that express pre-timing in relation to a particular moment of the past, do not have a clear semantic distinction between them. The semantic of the past tense is the semantic of precedence of the time of speech, which comes out in counterpoint with the present.

When it comes to the subdivision of the past tenses the Albanian language's theoretical grammar authors name them as tenses, which show the exact moment when we deliver the speech but on the other hand they are different in other aspects. (Grammar of the Albanian Language 1 (2002)). Generally speaking with the terms of meaning and connotations we understand the reaction between the imperative and perfect aspect.

In this paper we will mainly focus on the contravention within the past tenses of indicative form, bringing some very important arguments regarding the difference between the meaning of time and other aspects obtained during the context.

In his linguistic masterpiece professor Shaban Demiraj highlights the pure different aspect between imperfect and simple perfect. According to the author the simple perfect aims to emphasize the idea of a certain action which has already ended in a certain period of the past. Meanwhile the imperfect form of the verb deals with an action which was occurring during a specific moment in the past. (Demiraj, Sh., 1985),

On the other hand, regarding the contravention between past forms of verb such as *e kryer/e kryer e thjeshte* which are equivalent to the past simple and present perfect in the English language, the same author expresses the idea that these forms are more difficult to be explained. This happens because both these forms introduce the end of an action before the moment of speech. However, when we talk about past simple the action does not have a big connection with the moment of speech, while the action introduced in the present perfect does not disconnect with the moment of speech because of the consequences.

The author concludes with the idea that the past simple is characterized by the synthesis of an ended action in the past. But, in this aspect professor Demiraj has distinguished some other differences among other forms of past tenses such as past perfect and simple past perfect.

There are a lot of other linguistics which have dealt with past tenses in Albanian language (Dodi, A., 1968/1; Agalliu, F., 1968/2 etj.), and they have all concluded in the idea that as a matter of fact, the difference between past tenses have nothing to do with the aspect of time, since in most of the past tenses the action has already occurred before the moment of speech. So, they all agree that the biggest difference between past tenses in Albanian language deals with the ingredient of aspect, so the context that we are talking about bring the meaning of time in past tenses.

For such a long period of time, the notion of 'aspect' in the Albanian language has dealt mainly with the idea of different form of the verbal action, which means for example; an action happening during the moment of speech, an action which continues in the future, an action which has been continuing in the past, an intensive action or not intensive etc.

For the very first time, the difference between the meaning of aspect and other aspect meaning which are closely related to the verb forms, was brought to discussion by professor Ali Dhrimo in his monograph regarding aspect and terms of the verb. This book was published in 1996, (Dhrimo, A. 1996).

For this reason it is not difficult to notice that there are many cases in which partial or total assertions about verbal aspects brought a huge confusion in the review of potential semantic verbal forms in the Albanian language. It is worth mentioning that the category of aspect in the Albanian language has not found yet a formal expression because it is not developed in the statue of a morphological category. On the other hand whenever we speak about the meaning of different verbal traits we encounter another contravention between the perfect and imperfect aspect of tenses. This attitude regarding the contravention semantic of past tenses seems to be completely implausible.

Another important aspect that deserves to be discussed is the fact that in the Albanian language the characteristics of the verbal actions has not been part of grammatical structures. According to many linguistics the meaning of 'past' in Albanian language is a morphological case. For instance when we take into consideration the difference between simple past / past continues the case of aspect is the core of the contravention between perfect and imperfect aspect.

The completed action in the past perfect tense can not be treated as a pure meaning of aspect. This is due to the fact that the finished action indicates at the same time one of the other stages of action development, unless we are dealing with another tense.

The Albanian language has no special tools to define the perfective of the verb action. The terms perfect / imperfect (past simple / present perfect) and perfective / imperfective (past aspect / present perfect aspect), although connected by the idea of time, they belong to different semantics.

The contravention past simple / present perfect can only be justified for action completed / ongoing action feature and only for that group of verbs that express proper completed action. This opposition remains partial, incomprehensive. Thus, besides this contravention there remain other uses of the past simple such as repetition of the action in the past meaning, ordinary action meaning, the past action meaning etc. The contravention is isolated from cases as discussed above, when the past simple of Albanian language expresses not only unfinished actions, but aw well completed actions (He called us every evening at home. She sent a few messages a day).

From this perspective it can be argued that the contravention completed action / uncompleted action to the simplest forms of the past tense cannot be seen as pure aspectual meaning for several reasons:

Firstly, not all verbs in the past simple express a completed action. The completed action meaning is mainly due to the verbs that are followed by an object, including the action of the verb.

Secondly, the outcome of the action is just one of its stages, while the other stages of its development remain out of sight of the speaker. Furthermore, in this stage of the action the boundary between aspectual semantics and temporal semantics of the completed action concept is deleted.

Thirdly, completed action can show the forms of the imperfect (During the day she drank some cups of coffee. He sent me several messages a day). In these examples the imperfective verbs (drank, sent) show action with several acts, each act completed separately. These linguistic facts lead us to conclude that, while the same feature is present in aoristic past, as well in the imperfective past, counting on it becomes invalid to claim that the Albanian contravention completed action / uncompleted action is an aspectual contravention (in terms of grammatical aspect contravention perfective / imperfective aspect in Slavic languages).

Fourth, for several decades linguists specialized in aspectual meaning do not consider the contravention completed action / uncompleted action as semantic feature underlying the morphological category of aspect. Along with other stages (initiation and continuation of an action) the meaning of completion of the action, or otherwise known as aspectual terminative understanding, belongs to the ways of conduct and not the category of aspect.

Finally, there is also an indirect argument proving that the contravention past simple / present perfect of the Albanian language, regarding the semantic content is not identical to the contravention completed aspect / uncompleted aspect of the languages that have the morphological category of aspect. In favor of this opinion speaks the presence of these two types of contravention in Macedonian Bulgarian language. These languages have also conducted aorist aspect, aorist and imperfect aspect, the imperfective completed aspect, even imperfective uncompleted aspect. The presence of the two contraventions in the Slavic languages speaks to their different semantics.

Compared with the Russian language (Bondarko, AV, Bullanin, LI. LI. 1967), it can be stated that the present perfect of the Albanian language coincides with one of the uses of the past completed aspects of the Russian language, using its aoristic, but no grammatical meaning of the verb completed aspect in this language. The same can be said for the past simple, which coincides with the past forms of the imperfect aspect, when they are used in the sense of the imperfect.

Different from the contravention past simple / present perfect, the contravention completed aspect / uncompleted aspect includes verb in its entire paradigm. It is indifferent to the instant of the speech (compare, for example, continuing forms of verbs type *открыть / открывать*, which does not have the category of time, but belong to the completed or uncompleted aspect). Rather, the meaning of the contravention past simple / present perfect in Albanian language does not exceed this threshold; it is bordered by it and remains within the schedule of the past.

We think that regarding the Albanian language it would be more fair to talk not about perfective / imperfective aspect, rather about aspectual meanings (Bondarko AV, 1987) by which we understand the features of continuity, duration, intensity, completion, repeating the action, etc. which are realized by the temporal forms in conjunction with the vocabulary and context. Implementation of the above meanings or nuances, different from the categorical meaning of time, is related to the aspectual semantic area, thus the manner of the course of action in time.

Obviously, different meanings or nuances derived from the interaction of the grammatical form, the context or a particular lexical class should be taken into consideration, but that does not mean that they should be included in the grammatical form. It should be well differentiated the understanding of the shape itself from other meanings realized in different contexts.

Regarding the forms of the perfective, they encourage the speaker to bring in mind a situation that has happened before, immediately before the speech. In this sense the perfective involves a clear temporal semantics. But the forms of the perfective do not only state the fact happened in the past, they convey something more than that. The past gives original information that connects the latter with a moment that comes after, which can be in such a proportion as cause and effect, etc. This composite form expresses the "value" that the past action has in the present. This is not observed in present perfect. This form presents the fact that is communicated differently: as a given fact without the mediation of any other thing, without any particular characteristic. Such a distinction is confirmed as well by the ability these shapes have to intertwine with the time situational objects. Usually the present perfect is used in accordance with the lexical indicators such as yesterday, last year, 1980 etc., which express specific time of completion of the action. These indicators are not characteristic forms of the present perfect.

The past simple is usually used with rare situational objects such as often, sometimes etc. The differences observed in the combining skills of the above forms, should be considered closely related to their grammatical meaning.

The claim that the past simple time forms are characterized by "mixed aspect" seems implausible, for the reason that a verbal form used in sentences cannot express simultaneously the perfective and imperfective meaning aspect. Interpreting the past perfect of the Albanian language we forget for a moment that it called past perfect not in the temporal meaning (as past simple and present perfect it is a past tense), but because of its ties with the present through the consequences of the outcome of the action. It's exactly this feature that creates what we call the past perfective meaning, different from the imperfective and aoristic meaning. Then, why should we invent aspectual contravention within the same form, or undue terms from linguistic facts such as mixed aspect? The presence of the "product" of an action in the past into the present does not form aspectual contravention such as perfect/imperfect aspect.

The past perfect of the Albanian language can also express an action that ended in the past, but the concrete result of action is not present at the time of speech. Even in this case it cannot be claimed that the form of the past perfect has the perfective aspect meaning, for example : He has built art monuments (meaning: he knows, is able to do something like that).

The form of the past in the above context expresses an action (several times) to characterize the subject at a given moment. If you would translate this sentence in Russian language along with morphological aspect category, the perfect form of Albanian language verb "has built" would be given the shape of the Russian imperfective: Он строил памятники искусства.

Depending on the lexicon and grammatical features of verbs and the context of past simple, the present perfect and past perfect forms, besides the meaning of past time in relation to the time of the speech, during their function, they have the ability to modify their meanings.

All these past verb action features are aspectual components, which in relation to the past temporal component can be called secondary, irrelevant.

Regarding the presence of several meanings, the so-called aspectual, implemented in certain contexts, we think they are not related to contravention perfective aspect / imperfective aspect. The realization of these other meanings or nuances, different from the categorical meaning of time, is related to semantic wider areas than the morphological category. Grammatical category of time for instance, is the main component for the expression of temporal semantics (Pinari (Kallari) A., 2014)., nevertheless not the only one. Other lexical means also express certain temporal relations time of this field of semantics, but in relation to morphological category, they are its peripheral elements.

Regarding the Albanian language, we think it would be fair to talk not about perfective / imperfective aspect, because as noted above, it lacks formal tools of the perfective and imperfective. For us the difference between the past forms is aspectual (Pinari (Kallari) A., 2014). And with the aspectual meaning we understand the outcome of the action, the stage of starting or continuing, but also other features like repeating verbal action, intensity, quantitative escalation, sustainability etc.

Aspectual, temporal meanings, but as well of other semantic areas are realized not only by morphological contravention, as well by means of different language levels (Bondarko AV, 1987). Aspectual semantics of the Albanian language finds expression at the semantic-functional level and depend on interaction time paradigms and context or aspectual situations., but in any case without reference to the moment of speech.

As noted, confusion or difficulty in differentiating past tense forms meanings is based on the observation of these meanings within the framework of morphological categories, by omitting the interaction of other components of the semantic – functional areas of concern?

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Advice for Career in Relation with Multiple Intelligences

Asllan Vrapı, PhD Cand.

Elbasan. Albania

vrapı.asllan@yahoo.com

Abstract

One of the many concerns that accompanied the teaching-educational process has been and continues to be known fact: different results for the same conditions of the teaching process. By this I mean that students who study in the same class, taught by the same teacher in the same subject and the others under the same conditions do not understand the same process of teaching, explanation, justification, actions, etc. to teachers class. Students have significant differences in the learning process and moreover often big difference especially in the process independent work. Some students progress quickly, some more slowly and to some that almost did not acquire anything. The question then arises: How to respond schools to different speeds of diverse learners in terms of acquisition of the learning process? How teacher to imagine, plan, should organize learning process, how should they, to check, motivate and evaluate the learning process, his students? How to guide and advise the teacher and school students for success in life and professional career?

Keywords: Advice for career, professional career, learning, different results, significant differences

Introduction.

Teaching is a process of constant change, with the aim of acquiring quality-education curriculum. Teaching is both art and science and tireless efforts. "Teaching as" art "relies heavily on intuition, which is the basis for action". (Group of authors. Learning strategies. Eureka. 1995, page 4.)

Class, as heterogeneous community, comprised of individuals with vocational education, culture, with different skills and experiences. Given this reality, the teacher should be satisfied that students, as individuals, have the skills and different rates of learning. Consequently, the teacher must visualize, define and achieve objectives and activities, such that set in motion all students who engage in learning, depending on individual skills despite different levels of knowledge that possess. Numerous researchers of education sciences, pedagogy, psychology, sociology, etc. were obtained with the known fact that different students represent different skills and characteristics in learning. One of the best known in this direction was the professor and psychologist of High School of Education at Harvard University, Howard Gardner. Howard Gardner was representative of cognitive current. In 1983 he published his very important " Dimensions of mind ". His long experience with mentally ill as a result of accidents, paralysis of other central nervous system led him to the conclusion that intelligence is not the only one. He even claimed that it is nearly impossible to measure with simple test to evaluate the coefficient of its existence. By that time it was thought that intelligence was a single. In his Gardner argued that humans have more intelligence. But why Gardner arrived at this conclusion? Above all, he came to this conclusion as a result of observations, studies and tests that he and his associates performed with brain damaged patients. Despite the loss of intelligence in one direction patients showed intellectual ability in other directions. But what is the intelligence according to Gardner? According to Gardner: "Intelligence is the ability to solve certain problems or to create valuable products in one or more cultural communities." (Howard Gardner. 1987. Dimensions of mind). In his intelligentsia is not a single, even that can be measured by a simple test that shows intelligence coefficient.

In his work Gardner acknowledges the existence of at least eight kinds of intelligence and many other suggestions.

Intelligences according to Gardner.

- 1-Linguistic intelligence: People who bore this kind of intelligence tend to talk, discuss, read, write, etc.
- 2- Logical-mathematical intelligence: People with such intelligence have good results in mathematics, like logic games, solve problems, etc.

3- Spatial intelligence. People with strong spatial intelligence as well oriented and fast rule on the ground and on the map. Are good in geometry and the space, can become painters and artists.

4- Musical intelligence. People with such intelligence estimate delight and musical show, can sing, compose, play the instrument, to enjoy music etc.

5- Kinetic-body intelligence. People with high kinetic-body intelligence feel the need of motions, are physically active, can become athletes or sports lovers.

6- Naturalistic intelligence. One with high naturalistic intelligence feel the pleasure of staying in the fresh air, like to observe nature, flora and fauna species in general have a sense of understanding of the natural world.

7- Interpersonal intelligence. Such people learn by sharing ideas with others, prefer cooperation with others on projects and as a rule delight to meet or spend time with other people.

8- Intrapersonal intelligence. People with strong intrapersonal intelligence usually learn, first independently and individual overestimating their ability to understand the thought.

Gardner and his associates were expressed ninth intelligence that was an existential intelligence. This intelligence they do not put on the same stage with eight other intelligences. The reason was that existential intelligence did not respond to a defined area of the central nervous system as eight other intelligences to which correspond certain areas in the brain, central nervous system. Traditionally education system has made efforts to realize the quality of knowledge and teaching practices. Many teachers continue t'a apply it to a variety of methods or techniques to personalize the learning of their students.

Advice for Career

Teachers, lecturers, educators and all staffs who work with students or adults to succeed in applying the theory of multiple intelligences Gardner on is necessary to:

Firstly, recognize and study the theory of multiple intelligences. According to one definition, skilled teacher is one who, for the same concept, open a different number of windows ... A successful teacher serves as an "intermediary between students and curriculum", always ready to promote educational texts, films, computer software - which may help explain the content in a more efficient way for students who exhibit characteristics of this form of learning". (Howard Gardner, *Dimensions of mind*, Tirana, 2003, page 214.)

Secondly, teachers know their students by observing and reasoned on every answer, motion, position or his activism to define and differentiate instruction. "The differentiation of learning is the teacher's immediate response to the needs of students, which is guided by several principles such as the separation duties, creating flexible groups, systematic evaluation and correction of errors or inaccuracies. The teacher can differentiate content, process and product of learning in accordance with students 'abilities to read, with interest and profile their learning". (Carol Ann Tomlinson, *Responding to the Needs of All Learners*, page 15).

Thirdly, by long experience in teaching, discussions and conversations free to students, parents, teachers and the wider appears that it is necessary to open discussions on multiple intelligences to each student by emphasizing those that show more. In this regard successfully resulted recognition processes and accurate determination of skill and intelligence displayed by the students. This apparently is a normal task but not sufficient in many cases. Such determinations can be achieved only on the basis of studies focused all teachers throughout the years of schooling. Keeping accurate and documented achievements, impressions, opinions from each teacher for each student. It is also important organization of discussions between teachers even documented. Such activities can be organized since the first grade onwards. In the last grade of schooling cycles as grade nine or twelve undergraduate education such discussions would be necessary. Currently, these classes develop educational course 'career counseling'. The development of this course is actually a welcome milestone in this direction. It is important structural building and its content. While observations in many cases educational course "Education for career" takes place without the necessary seriousness and correctness. Something different we can talk about teaching the subject, "Advice for Career" that takes place in twelfth grade, probably due to the position in which students are in this class, on the eve of determining their own destiny in life. In the context of reforming school curricula believe there is still opening for more knowledge about the present and future of the students themselves. At the end of the cycle of schooling students themselves alongside their desire for education which should in any case be

taken into consideration, I believe that it is necessary for the organization of discussions with developed intelligences that displays every student. We emphasize this because there are times that students p.sh with kinetic-bodily intelligence go to study mathematics for example while logical- mathematical intelligence that it has been less developed.

Methodology

Study on the Ground

The study was conducted in secondary schools and high low high at region Elbasan and Berat. The study included 100 students and 50 teachers in urban and rural areas. The study was conducted using questionnaires prepared.

Question: Do you think that counseling or career education should be based on the theory of multiple intelligences. Teachers and students responded:

Responses	Yes	No
Teachers	34	15
Students	60	38

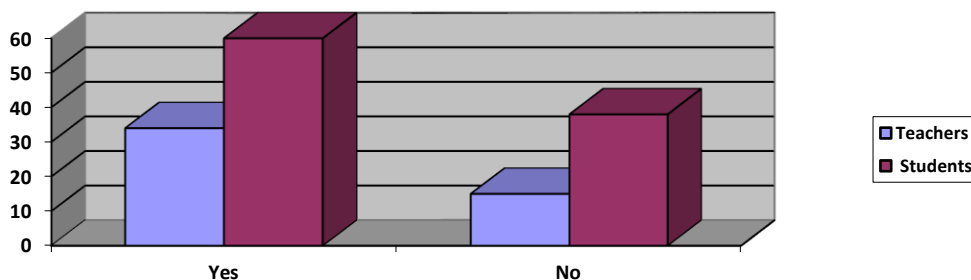


Diagram No. 1. Counseling or education for career and the theory of multiple intelligences.

Question: Do you think that: The teaching program "ADVICE FOR CAREER" is important for the future of students in further studies? The responses of teachers and students were:

Responses	Yes	No
Teachers	36	13
Students	75	23

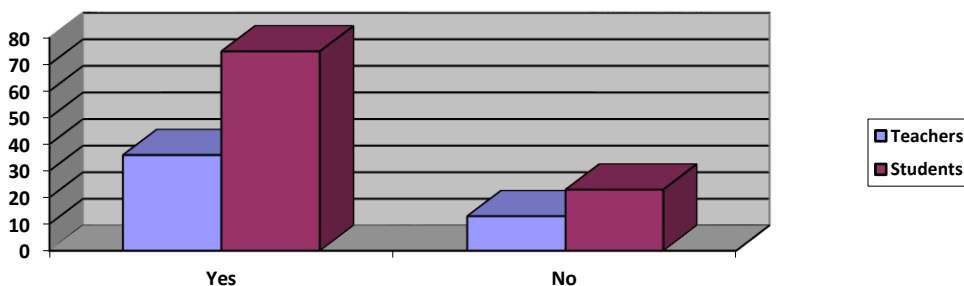


Diagram No. 2. Importance "ADVICE FOR CAREER" for the future of students.

Conclusions

1. Most teachers consider important theory of multiple intelligences in the career counseling process because serves as the basis for the future of pupils.
2. It is the considerable number of teachers who did not consider important theory of multiple intelligences as they have little knowledge about them.
3. Most teachers and students consider important the development of the subject "Career Advice" for the future, the choice of further education and professional careers in life.
4. It is positive that nearly 76% of students appreciate necessary counseling before they throw steps in life.

Recommendations

For this purpose we recommend:

- 1- Teachers need to deepen their knowledge of the theory of multiple intelligences.
- 2- Teachers on the basis of their knowledge of the subject matter and beyond to determine intelligences that displays every student teaching course they develop.
- 3- To be completed and received the importance that belongs to the educational course 'Education for career' 'or "Advice for career" that developed in the last grades of schooling cycles.
- 4- Organization of discussions with all the teachers who have taught for students especially in the last grades of schooling cycles, why not parents and students with the object presentation of opinions on multiple intelligence featuring every student.
- 5- Such activities planned and supervised by the school principal to teachers charged guardian and implemented correctly. Such activities would serve as a good opportunity to involve parents as contributors to the problems of learning and school.

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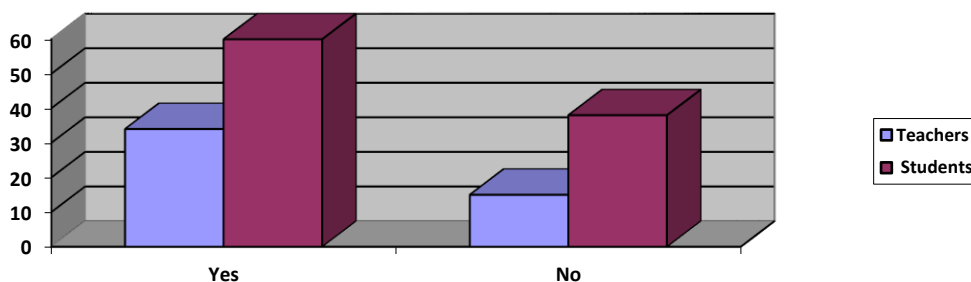


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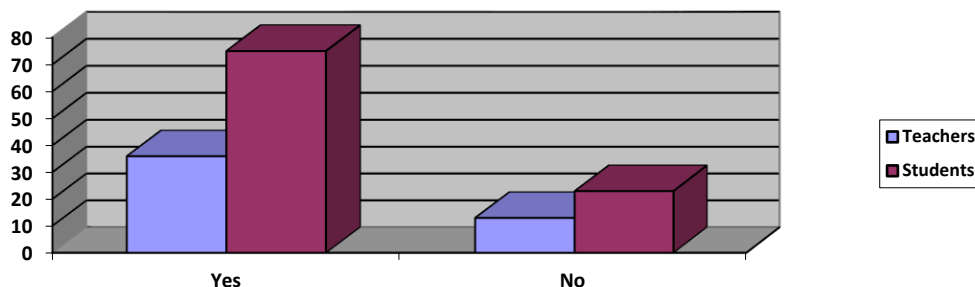


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« Ce n'est pas Politique » - An Anthropological Approach of the Cognitive Relation Media/Politic

Irena Myzeqari, PhD. Cand

Department of Public Relation- Communication,
European University of Tirana,
irena.myzeqari@uet.edu.al

Aleksander Dhima, Prof.Dr.

Department of Political Sciences and International relations,
European University of Tirana,
Aleksander.dhima@uet.edu.al

Abstract

This article is part of a research project conducted by Prof.Dr. Aleksander Dhima, senior researcher and PhD candidate Irena Myzeqari, who are working together on behalf of the scientific projects organized and funded by the European university of Tirana. The aim of this project is to put light on some aspect of the medial reality in Albania regarding the sphere of public information, the political communication and with the absent democratic culture of transmitting this information. In this study are treated some theoretical and practical issues that are related with main features and elements of the political communication and with the handicap of communitarian communication that is completely absent in the Albanian cultural reality. Through a detailed anthropological analysis of actual performance of the political actors, this study tries to find some knots between their cultural "model" and the so called transparent "regime" of the political messages, especially during the electoral campaign. Based on a detailed analysis of the cultural indicators that cause the problematic actual co- dependence between media and politics in this country, this study aims to reassess whether is any real chances for an effective change in the field of collaboration between media and politics, and if so, which would be some of the possible mechanisms that would make this change possible. The impact of the findings, could serve as a methodological basis for answering why we have this state of collaboration between these two actors, an answer that could lead to other vectors of investigation in the future. In the study become clear the principal medial elements, that have influenced the political communication in the Albanian reality such as the fragility of the democratic process during transition; the centralizing motivation for public (non) engagement in decision making; limited freedom of thought and speech especially when referring to opinions articulated by scientific voices on political behaviour and ethics, as indicators conditioned by culture and other traditional factors of the social structure. Thanks to works conducted on the Albanian tradition, in the study are identified primary resources that generate authoritarian effects and negative consequences on these indicators.

Keywords: media, politics, cognitive schemes, tribal organizations, political communication

Introduction

In the multiplicity of issues and problematic of anthropology of communication, one of the main actual themes is the relationship "media-politics", which is generally treated within the framework of cognitive aspects of human experience. Main points of reference regarding this issue are related with some methodological aspects such as cognitive organization and its influence in the way we experience different situations; the impact of media on politics; political transparency simulation from TV mediums etc.

The media is the main source of information regarding political issues and as such, it has complete control on what we know about the political system and on everything else that we cannot discover without its help. Said this, it becomes inevitable to think that media has more than "a certain impact" on the political sphere. That is why lately many researchers are in the opinion that media plays an important role on the way politics is done, especially in conditions of a noted conflict

in the press and TV media, even though both of them “are happy” with their audiences. On the other side, media has tried to create a set of important standards for politics, spreading out the perceptions of the political world in the world of simple people and political leaders. It becomes extremely important during times of rapid political changes, such as elections, because media represents a specific method of knowing the world around; it surpasses the virtual barriers of information. Said this, media earns importance in everybody’s social life, especially when it is seen as a mean of connection with politics. Media can judge, approve or criticize decisions taken by politics; it can sustain or interrupt political careers; the information it produces helps the audience to create their attitudes in relation with politics and how it reacts on different political situations or actors. That is why political parties have to seduce the media. Despite this, the audience in Albania has its own lenses to evaluate what media offers, influenced by their intellectual, cultural and social level. The anthropological analysis that the cultural orientation is against” and in fact it is only the top of the iceberg of the political attitude that the public performs. This state of facts has motivated us to study some of the phenomena of the today’s Albanian medial reality in relation with the cognitive nature of politics, through a documented research on causes, consequences and on possibilities of introducing new cultural values on this field of research.

Objectives, methodology and main research questions

As we mentioned above, this paper is part of a larger project on media and politics. Said this, it is important to mention some of the main objectives and research questions posed in the whole research and of course the specific purposes of this paper. The main parts of the project have to do with: 1- the impact of cultural democracy in media’s functionality; 2- the analysis of the media programs (audiovisual, printed and electronic version) in transmitting the political meaning in Albania in a 20 year period, from 1991 till 2013; 3- the dimensions/ stages of medial transformation; 4- Cultural “lenses” of the Albanian audience; 5- the handicap of the public and communitarian communication in relation with the “against” cultural orientation and last 6- the public ethics in the Albanian media. The project has two main objectives. Firstly, it aims to verify the role of the media in the process of a constructive political communication in creating a new reality in the Albanian society. Secondly, it wants to emphasize main elements that have influenced the cultural aspects of the political communication during transition, which create long term consequences in modifying the political orientation. The methodology of the entire research is a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods; in the first part of the analysis we will deal with data taken by different mediums(written or visual in a 20 years period), while in the second part we will discuss the results taken by 60 questionnaires collected online, by a sample chosen randomly. The questionnaire was semi- structured and the age sample varies from 18 up to 25 years old, following their undergraduate or graduate studies. At the end the methodology is interpretative in the sense that the reflected reality is social and not necessarily positivist. In this paper we will try to give an answer to two main questions. Firstly, are there any real chances for an effective change in the cognitive collaboration between media and politics in Albania and who might be the possible mechanisms to guarantee such change? Secondly, why the political communication is more seen as culture and citizenship than as an offence and avoidance from the truth and responsibility? Thirdly, what kind of perceptions share the youth about the influences that media plays in their political attitudes? Last but not least can we objectify the scale of influence that media has on the poor cultural and democratic behaviours of the political elite.

Theoretical Framework

The cognitive organization of political situations has a direct relationship with the ways people (Albanians in our case) perceive the political message and how is this personal/ communitarian perception modified. The new trends in cognitive anthropology aim to study the way in which “the schemes” created in people’s mind are related with human interaction, an aim that obliges us to evaluate in a new approach emotions and motivations in the process of internalizing the political message (Romney, 2002; pp. 14607). The political communication in Albania has created a contradictory situation that has faded the primary difference between “the truth” and “the lie”, when anthropologically it was expected the contrary; that the truth would be attested through norms and new values of a functional democracy. The citizens of this country are tired from this extreme relativism that has numbed their political actions and their hope for a democratic future (Fuga, 2008; pp.20)

The transformation of media during these years cannot be divided from the other cultural, political and social developments that the country has been subjected to, but in a broader sense, far from democratic revolutions;(Habermas 1989; pp.30-31); copying and imitating the western trends of mediums was and still is perceived as generative source, but without having

a clear and inner reflection for the innovations and the defect of this model. Albanian, even today, is captured in the chains of a tribal form of organization and this primitive “communitarian homogeneity” above all means a higher scale of life security (Dhima, 2013; pp.328). The audience experiences “thinking differently” in total silence, as a stage of numbing the “contrary attitude that is more present when the public is under pressure. Silence is a result of the dictatorial experience that this country has had, which is still a social complex, primarily caused by the behaviour of the political parties and their leaders or representatives.

The Albanian community has strong feature of a familiar structure and less of territoriality (neighbourhood/ village/ town/ city). From previous empirical studies results that “the word- mouth” is an important cultural instrument in more than 82% of the population in contrast with other instruments or communicative channels. However, this “capacity” has not motivated any political organization in Albania to start working with processes of capillary communication (Fleicher 2003; pp.371) This is a testimony of the general negligence that you can feel in the national environment in relation with the public communication and a kind of refusal to be involved in decision making processes. Since the communist period, but surely even earlier, the Albanian public has adopted double standard behaviour; they have one reality for public appearance and another one for personal/ familiar consume. Denouncing a negative phenomenon in media happens only when it has a direct influence for the one who accuses. On the contrary, when the injustice happens to a third member, it does not produce or attracts public attention because it is peripheral news. Collective denounce happens only under strict orientations, led by the highest communitarian hierarchy.

Media power

In the modern world, media power is inevitable and very important for human society and the modern man who has the need to receive information, fast and in real time. Media becomes important, especially in times of political violence and wars and that is why political leaders try to keep under control media coverage during these times. This power is increasing day by day thanks to technology development and this power, even though its called the fourth power, influences other types of power as well, playing an important role in decision making. Different mediums have a codependent relation with politics, but they have evolved more rapidly, because they were more capable in defending the public interests. It knows how to create contacts, earn people’s trust and entertain them, what seems unthinkable for politics.

Media fulfills three main functions:

- 1- It guarantees freedom of speech or better to say that oblige politicians to be faced with the public opinion sentence
- 2- Keep the community united, giving to citizens common references at the same time
- 3- Make possible a coordinated action, because people and parties generally do not speak face to face, only during campaigns.

Individuals feel closer among them, because of the need to support common opinions and the press makes possible the creation of this experience. Referring to Artan Fuga(2010), who says that... ‘ media studies of a specific time, is a method or a gate towards the society (pp.10), we could evaluate the role of the media in the process of constructing political communication and creating a new social reality. Said this, we can easily understand now the changes that political communication has suffered especially in terms of attitude and language use. Media is an epistemological method of knowing the world around us, a method to surpass virtual frontiers of information and as such it becomes quite important in the each individual social life, especially when its is perceived a connecting mean of doing politics.

Political Communication

Political communication includes each type of communication that has as an object politics and it has two main features: the enlargement of the political sphere and the increase of the role of communication in everyday life. It does not only “diminish” political antagonisms through direct debate, but it gives a broader sense to democracy as well. This happens because politics is gaining more and more a public character, thanks to different mediums; politics becomes real, not only through human personal experience, but through its medial appearance as well. An important ingredient of this process is the reflective communication that aims to create political convictions in the audience that later on would become political decisions or behaviours. Aleksander Dhima says that during this kind of communication we can catch technical and

semantic dimensions of the political message and signals taken by the social context (Dhima, 2010, pp: 10). Communication in politics is mainly reflective because it is related with elaborated messages that have to do with the cognitive organization of the ethno cultural "cut" of different target groups.

Political communication has created a contradictory situation in Albania that has faded out the difference between the truth and the lie, when anthropologically it was supposed to be the contrary; that the truth should have been attested through norms and new values of a functional democracy.

Politics media coverage is in crisis, because political communication is in its essence exclusive; it is based in power techniques. This can happen also because the increased number of communicative channels that deform somehow the political communication and bring in front of the audience political elite that lacks a strong ideological axe. That is why the media attempt to be neutral is still questionable. The new political elite in Albania has many deficiencies in knowing basic principles of maintaining a functional legal state and democracy. Media shows a low democratic level and a lack of vision and functional and effective approaches. 20 years later we cannot justify any longer the absence of this democratic culture.

The media co-dependency is quite important when we analyse the political communication among actors and some of the main effects of media on political communication are: selective memory; communicative climax; personal though and personification of each political activity

They become extremely important in times of rapid political changes, such as elections. That is why political leaders try to maintain under control everything that happens during these periods. All media coverage influences the public opinion, much more that informal and closed doors meetings. Candidates use media to attract more attention and elections in general are affected by two main factors: by the force and the political image of the candidate and the way media interprets his/ her performance.

Political communication in the Albanian cultural reality

When we speak about this topic, we should keep in mind at least these three elements. Firstly, the democratic process in Albania started in a period of total lack of dissidence, where people for 50 years were used only with the so called "popular democracy", where in text books nobody spoke about pluralism and where the topic of freedom and human rights was prohibited and where people who worked in the highest hierarchy did not have a broad vision and culture on western democracy.

In these circumstances took life the process of democratisation, a process that required a new elite and a new leadership and even though they were created, their form was abstract and they were lacking standarts and political concepts to create a solid democracy.

Secondly, democracy is all about communication and collaboration. In this context, political communication has its special role and people often think that it is easy to do politics and forget that political communication is more about the dialogue and less for monologue, is more about listening and inclusion and less about punishment and centralizing tightening, is more about the truth and citizenship. Thirdly, the political behaviour here is fixed and regulated based on personal approaches of the leaders and less based on ideologies of political inclusion of the community. The research conducted in this field identify three main sources that influence and have long terms effects on political behaviour and they are family, the authority and the social circle, all three that could influence the political orientation. 'Friendships have the advantage of being in the same generation that somehow shares the same cultural mentality, norms and values that are experienced and developed together in the community'(H.R. Kitayama & S. Markus, pp. 277-283). We can add some other elements to the previous ones that have to do with the scale and the efficiencies of media appearance and individual choices about political parties. Even though their short term actions, they have a long term effect on political orientation in specific moments. Many researchers believe that massmedia plays an important role in the electoral environment and it has been a decisive factor in liberal democracies.

Since the fall of communism, in 1991 -1992, the transition from a centralized economy to a free market brought major social and political changes. This period was a continuous attempt to establish a democratic regime, part of which was also the development of communication means and this moment signs a new reality in the communication, which was quite different from what happened during communism.

In the post communist Albania, the first language of communication that media delivered was freedom of expression, a language that was chosen to be part of the political communication through the slogan "freedom and democracy". Artan

Fuga says that the news feed up a long absence, offering a new dimension to the individuals, far from forced collectivism, and giving life to a strong desire to receive any kind of information (Fuga, 2010: pp.22). Naturally, this role and function of media was strengthened with the opening of many more journals, newspapers and private licences, who, through, their editorials, language and rhetoric, brought a new era of communication and 'in a variety of features, the most special one was to teach and learn a new political language' (Glukmani, 2010; pp. 219)

Results and analysis

As it was mentioned above, the applied methodology to collect data for this project and especially for this paper was quantitative. In the first stage of it, were completed 60 questionnaires that were spread online. The target were youth of an age rate from 18 up to 25, aiming to capture youth that had voted at least one time or mostly 3 times in their lives, local and general elections. The majority of the people who were part of the sample were following their university studies, round 65%, while 27% were following postgraduate studies. Only 8 % of them had just finished high school and were not registered in any university. We tried to respect a gender balance among the respondents and at the end resulted that 55% of the sample were female and 45% were male.

The questionnaire had 14 questions, 13 were closed questions and the last one opened. It persisted in three main pillars. Firstly we wanted to understand how important was the political information for the youth and how much were they prone to search and look for this kind of information. Secondly, we tried to discover who were the principal sources of information from which they received information and last but not least we tried to capture their perceptions about the role that media plays, especially those chosen by them, in their political education in relation to other educative "structures". The answers are grouped in four parts, and each of them fulfils one the objectives mentioned in the beginning.

To the question, how much is it important the political information for the youngsters, the majority of them, round 45% believe that the political information is averagely important for them, 35% are on the opinion that it is not that important while 20% admit that it is not important at all. The other question asked them "who were the main sources of information they used when referring to political information". The answers show that youth have a clear tendency towards the television, which is classified as the main source of information. The press and the official pages of political parties achieve non considerate percentages, while the option radio" was not chosen by anyone.

When talking about the Television, the sample makes a list starting from the most reliable channel till the least reliable for them. The first television was Top Channel, who has an audience of more than 80% of the sample, while other televisions such as Klan or Vizion plus take very small percentages. In this point of the questionnaire they were also asked about the importance of online political communication that was an innovation for the last general elections. They see it as a new tendency of doing politics and we notice a trend of balance between those who embrace this new alternative channel of communication with those who completely negate dealing with that.

Youth sound to be quite worried about the level of propaganda and demagogy that the Albanian Medias serve to them. Round 75% of the sample admit that the information they receive is in most of the cases pure propaganda in favour of one or the other party and that the level of debate that they offer has neither content nor messages and as a consequence they put less and less trust in these media. They think that this kind of information offered by them numbs their capacities of political activism.

The last question was an open question, because we wanted to collect people's thoughts and opinions on this statement "Media does not tell us how to think, but it defines what we should think about". Is adaptable for the Albanian reality? We conducted a content analysis to the answers we received and at the end it was concluded that it is our reality that give total freedom to the media to take this role and to decide on what we think and how we think about a specific matter. Said this, its effects on the cognitive schemes of youth is quite high, and as it looks like, quite negative because related with the concept of civil engagement that was quite problematic for this target group, it seems that media is somehow guilty for the passive attitude that youth have towards politics and the political information.

For illustration below is written a short review of the opinions we collected.

"Media is the mirror of our society; through its reflections we see (the fairest and the nearest stories that happen round us). The closest they are the harder is for us to judge on these issues. Media helps us to help and gives

us the tool on how to think for each of this stories or events. I think, i reflect, i react when media transmits me a story where i can have a say, but does a voice change the entire society instead of three million?

At the end we can conclude that the transformation and changes that the media has been subjected to cannot be seen and studied dividedly from the other cultural, political and social developments of the Albanian society. From the overall responses results that:

- 66% see media/ television as a bridge between the citizens and politicians
- 58% think that media stimulates little or no political activism at all
- 62% admit that media as little or no influence in their political attitude.

Conclusions

The focus of this project was political communication that occupies the biggest amount of time in news and in media discourse, because the individuals feel closer when they share common opinions and the media (especially the press) does not create this feeling to the audience. It is media's fault for the diversity of opinions and the power that it possesses could make possible that some opinions would "triumph" easier than others and imply a broader consensus among the audiences.

Secondly, knowing that media in Albania has evolved more rapidly compared to politics, due to its capacity to create multidimensional contacts with people and to spread information in all times, it deserves to have a bigger power in defending the public interests. But the reality shows that media has used this power for bad purposes.

Thirdly, media- despite its importance- has bad effects on politics as well. It can judge, approve, or criticize the decisions taken by politicians. The information that media produces baffles the audience and influence their critical attitudes towards politics. The world history is full of examples where media has been the primary cause of a ruined political career.

At the end, till this stage of research, we can highlight some main medial elements that have influenced the political communication in the Albanian reality. Some of these elements are:

- a) Mentality (difficult to be changed) that politics is the easiest exercised profession;
- b) Centralized tightening for (non) public participation in decision making;
- c) Obstacles in freedom of speech and thought and scientific arguments on behaviour and political ethics, as indicators conditioned by culture and other traditional factors of social structure

One of the main conclusions that we could draw is that the transformation of the Albanian media cannot be studied divided from other cultural, political and social developments, but in a broader sense, even from "democratic revolutions". As Habermas could say, imitating western Medias is a source of generation, but if it does not reflect inner changes, it will not function. Even today, Albanians suffer the consequences of a tribal organization that above all guarantees a higher scale of security for their lives. The audience experiences "thinking different in total silence, fading out any chance for a counter response. Silence has its source in the dictatorial experience of the country, which is still present as social complex, mainly because of the behaviour of political parties and their representatives.

Limitations and further research

This research paper contributes in the further awareness of the media institutions and the audience for the lack of transparency in transmitting the political message, due to the close relation media –politics and hidden interests of media owners and politicians. Some of the analyses conducted in this research create a qualitative debate and that many research centres do not possess. Said this, the results of this stage and of the upcoming one can be used by journalists, communication sciences, national and international agencies that deal with media problems and Albanian politics etc.

When we talk about limitations of the project, they are real and concrete for some essential reasons. Firstly, it is the first time that someone conducts a research on this topic and for this reason is impossible to make diachronic comparisons with previous records. Secondly, due to its specific requests, we cannot exclude subjectivity from the sample taken for the study. Last but not least, linguistics problems can be a cause for misinterpretations from other researchers or political makers, who are not that open when their work is criticized in scientific terms. As we said, in the beginning, the sample was a bit small, that is why the second stage of this project that starts in March, will focus on a larger number of interviews and target

groups, from a variety of ages, educational level and origins, variables that would enrich the results of this project and increase its validity.

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Hidden Consequences of Migration and Remittances in Albania

Ermira H. Kalaj, PhD

Aleksander Moisiu University, Durrës

ermirahoxha@uamd.edu.al

Abstract

Using household survey data for Albania, the paper investigates the effect of remittances on health capital accumulation. Total expenditure is divided into two categories: expenditure on medicines and expenditure on visits and laboratory services. The estimation is presented for two separate sub groups, rural and urban area. In the paper both instrumental variable and propensity score matching are used to give answer to the research question about the impact of remittances in the health capital investment. The findings indicate that households increase their expenditure for medicines and other health services in the presence of remittance income. The positive relationship is statistically significant in the case of remittance receiving households living in the rural area. The magnitude is lower in the case of total expenditure for visits and laboratory. However, total expenditure for visits and laboratory are likely to have significant impact on the health outcome given their prevention nature. These findings show that remittance flows pay a heterogeneous role in the decision making process of remittance-receiving household members. However, these non-labor income flows may play an important role in supporting expenditures, especially for those living in rural areas.

Keywords: remittances, health expenditure, instrumental variable

JEL classification; C41, I15, C26

Introduction

As labour markets become internationalized and people increasingly migrate to find work, remittances have become important for the survival of the low-income households in regions of outmigration. Remittance flows, funds received from migrants working abroad, have become enormously important as a source of income in many developing countries (Giuliano and Ruiz-Arranz, 2005; Mundaca, 2009).

There is an ongoing debate on the role of migration in the development of countries with high rates of migration such as Albania. The literature focuses on how remittances are spent by remittance-receiving households and their implications in terms of costs and benefits for the local economy. Researchers disagree over the extent to which remittances-receiving households use these financial resources productively. Some findings suggest the use of remittances mainly for short-term consumption needs rather than for long-term investments. The extent to which remittances contribute to local development depends upon the household context, circumstances and the way decisions are made.

Since the beginning of the transition from a centralized to a market economy Albania has been characterized by rapid growth in the volume of migration with a particular peak in 1997-1998¹ following the Pyramid Scheme collapse (Azzari & Carletto, 2009), and in 2000. In conjunction with the migration, the volume of remittances directed to households in Albania has grown rapidly. Remittances represent the most direct and immediate benefit for the remittance-receiving households and the local community. The lack of microeconomic restructuring, however, seems not to have stimulated local production and remittances have generally been used for the consumption of goods (Castaldo & Reilly, 2007), thus deepening the extroversion of the economy². While remittances are generally flows of small individual transactions and the method of transfers may sometimes be informal or irregular, the total amount of remittances is substantial.

¹ Peaking in 2000 at about 50.000 new migrants per year and steadily decreasing after that.

² Extroversion of the economy: meaning that the local consumption is higher than the GDP, while the difference is compensated by remittances and foreign aid (Samson, 1996).

There have been few empirical studies of the impact of remittances on the labor market issues in Albania. Utilizing the Albanian Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) for 1996, Konica and Filer (2009) suggest that remittances have a negative effect on female labor market participation due to higher incomes from household members working abroad (Rodriguez & Tiongson, 2001; Amuendo-Dorantes & Pozo, 2006). This finding is consistent with studies conducted in other countries. In the Albanian case, however, Konica and Filer (2009) find that neither the existence of emigrants in the household nor the amount of remittances received has an effect on male labor force participation.

Remittances are not only invested in physical capital, but also productively invested in human capital accumulation, such as education. The Becker (1991) model of investment in education states that families take into consideration their education rate of return and its cost in order to choose the optimal education level for their children; in this model a range of factors may influence the educational attainment. If families have financial constraints the level of schooling for their children will be lower than optimal. By relaxing the household's liquidity constraints, remittances from abroad may facilitate investments in education.

Studies of households on Albania have focused mainly on the decision to work and do not consider how remittances impact human capital investment. My second chapter examines how remittances influence decisions to invest in schooling of the household members. Little is so far known about the extent that remittances effect socioeconomic outcomes such as school attainment. According to the literature on remittances, labor migration seems to have contradictory impact on the education of the household members left behind.

The development potential of remittances is increasingly being recognized by researchers and policymakers. This paper examines the contribution of migration and remittances on human capital investment using cross-sectional data for Albania. Health is an important factor of future productivity, in this way it has a direct impact on economic growth and poverty reduction. According to Grossman (1972) health capital differs from other forms of human capital because an individual's stock of knowledge affects her market and nonmarket activities, while "the stock of health" determines the amount of time she can spend earning money and consuming commodities. This brings differences in the demand for health if compared to the demand for other capitals. Health is demanded for two reasons; as a consumption commodity and as an investment commodity. Consumers demand for health is positively correlated with labor incomes. Does this positive relation still hold with non-labor incomes, such as remittances? Do remittances affect household consumption of health?

Considerations about remittances and health care expenditure

In a narrower way other sources of income transfers such as remittances are expected to have positive impact on the health expenditure. In analyzing the role of remittances in the provision of health care it is important to consider the relationship between migration and health.

Using 2002 Mexico Survey, Amuendo-Dorantes and Pozo (2009) find that international remittances raise health expenditures. Approximately 6 pesos of every 100 peso increment in remittance income are spent on health. Health care expenditure is less responsive to remittance income among lower-income households. They also find that households lacking any health care coverage exhibit greater remittance income sensitivity. Hence remittances may contribute to equalization in the usage of health care services by households with and without some kind of health care coverage.

According to Jorge (2008) there is a statistically significant positive relationship between remittances and the household's expenditure on health for households without access to employment's medical insurance. The researcher uses a Tobit model with random effects finding that 10 percent changes in remittances are devoted to health expenditure. The study shows an important difference in the effect between remittances and "institutional transfers".

Using LSMS for 2005 Tomini and Maarse (2011) explores the demand side of informal payments for health care in Albania. They used multivariate logit and OLS to explain informal payments. Their findings suggest differences in determinants of informal payments in inpatients and outpatients care. Informal payments depend on demographic characteristics but are less dependent on income, suggesting homogeneity of payments across income categories.

Given current and projected declines in remittance flows, it is important to understand the role of these transfers in the household's well-being through better health outcomes. This is why the following study will focus on the effect of remittances

on the health capital accumulation in Albania. The relationship will be analyzed in two directions; direct and indirect consequences. First, do remittances further more spending on health care and services and second, is there any relationship between migration and remittances with health outcomes or health status.

The methodology

The central concern of this study is to understand how remittances influence household health expenditures. Remittances as non-labor income relax budget constraint and may contribute to increase the household medical use. Health care expenditure is modeled as follows (Amuendo-Dorantes et. al. 2009);

$$HCE = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 R + \alpha_2 X_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

In equation (1) Health Care Expenditure (HCE) is given in relation to remittances (R) and the vector of household characteristics. To overcome the endogeneity problem I used an instrument, which is correlated with household remittance income but not with household health care expenditure. I selected the Instrumental Variable (IV) approach introduces an instrumental variable, z , which has the property that changes in z are associated with changes in x but do not lead to changes in y (health status and health care expenditure), except indirectly via x . The IV estimator provides a consistent estimator under the very strong assumption that valid instruments exist, where the instruments are variables that satisfy $E(u | z) = 0$.

To further investigate the dynamic of health expenditure in the suspected presence of endogeneity I will also use the propensity score matching method explained in the previous chapter. The main between the two methods is that propensity scoring uses observable measures to conduct a weight based on selection where IV method rely an instrument variable made for unmeasured factors or characteristics. Both methods present strengths and weaknesses.

The propensity score, which involves comparing households with similar propensity to receive remittances, attempts to balance observed characteristics in the remittance-receiving group as could occur in a randomized experiment. The propensity score for individual i , $e(x_i) = P(D_i = 1 | X_i = x)$, is defined to be the probability to receive remittances given a vector of observed characteristics. Rosenbaum and Rubin (1983) have shown that matching on the propensity score produces treatment groups that are balanced. Thus, under the assumption that the treatment assignment is ignorable, unbiased estimates of the average causal effect can be obtained by comparing individuals with similar values of the propensity score.

Empirical Results

Recognizing the endogeneity of migration and remittances I am using Instrumental Variable techniques. I find an instrumental variable that is correlated with remittances but not correlated with health care behavior of household members. Amuendo-Dorantes, et al., (2007) instrument remittances using information on the percent of migrants in the state of residency and information on the per capita count of the Western Union offices in the country during the previous year.

The instruments used by Kilic, et al., (2007) include whether a household member spoke either Greek or Italian, whether the head of the household had any family relative or friend living abroad in 1990, the distance in kilometers between the place of residence and the closest point exit from Albania, the annual average number of economic and labor market shocks experienced by the households, and whether the household owned a satellite dish in 1990. All these variables may satisfy the criteria for a valid instrument; they may influence the amount of remittances or the decision to migrate and may not have a direct connection with health care attitudes. In my study I will use a set of three instrumental variables; the number of household members living abroad, the country where the migrants are currently living, and whether a household member spoke Greek or Italian.

Table 1 reports on the impact of remittances on the total expenditure for medicines. The IV estimates for the overall sample indicate that, receiving remittances has a greater impact in terms of magnitude to the total expenditure for medicines. However in both cases remittance incomes do not seem to be statistically significant. Results are represented in the table

divided into two sub groups rural and urban. The IV estimates show that remittance incomes have a positive and statistically significant effect only in the case of rural remittance receiving households meaning that the total expenditure for medicines rise with the presence of remittances in the rural area.

For the entire sample the non-IV estimates show that the total expenditure rises if the household member is older, female, the head of the household and living in the mountain area of the country. In the other hand total expenditure for medicine lower if the household member has more years of education, has a health license, is not working and the household size is greater. The direction of the relationship still holds in the IV-estimates for the entire sample, except for the case of having a health license. In the presence of remittances, expenditure for medicines increases depending on the results presented by the IV-estimates. We notice an increase in the magnitude of total expenditure for medicines in the case of female household members.

In the rural sub group the IV-estimates show a positive and statistically significant impact of remittances. In the same sub group positive impact in the total expenditure for medicines have age, the possession of a health license, being the head of the household and not working.

Surprisingly the relationship between total expenditure in medicines and the income net from remittances is negative in the case of households living in the rural area. These results are not in line with the literature related with the health care behavior. More educated household members spent less for medicines; however we notice that the magnitude is lower in the rural sub group if compared to the urban sub group. In this case we can conclude that more educated household members focus more on prevention. Interesting in this sub group is the positive relation in the case of households living in the mountain area. The difficulties of the access to medical service infrastructures maybe one of the reasons of this relationship.

In the urban sub group the non-IV estimates show that total expenditures for medicines increase with age, female status, being the household head and living in the mountain area. In the other side the total expenditure for medicines lower in the presence of a health license, if the household size is greater, if the household member is not working and if more educated. In the urban sub group the magnitude for educated household members is higher if compared to the rural sub group. This result is higher in the case of urban sub group IV-estimates.

Total Expenditure for Medicines	All		Rural		Urban	
	NoIV	IV	NoIV	IV	NoIV	IV
Receive	384.060	1168.343	154.750	9388.832	272.937	34154.830
Remittances	(799.926)	(10376.090)	(447.714)	(4083.426)**	(1700.557)	(58174.190)
Urban	2793.112 (932.073)**	2352.49 (978.453)**	-	-	-	-
Education	-369.817 (116.674)**	-300.846 (127.344)**	-86.950 (71.338)	-31.824 (84.476)	-683.623 (231.441)**	-838.034 (478.271)*
Age	27.673 (78.495)	4.833 (82.974)	43.407 (41.669)	35.549 (49.049)	35.463 (178.717)	111.065 (319.190)
Age Squared	.713 (.983)	.840 (1.042)	.488 (.518)	.595 (.603)	1.939 (2.268)	-.574 (4.138)
Female	1415.409 (859.931)*	2151.001 (947.255)**	1231.827 (483.821)**	1652.88 (589.035)**	1036.402 (1798.877)	4229.389 (3070.196)
Has Health License	-613.849 (840.010)	188.129 (875.050)	769.928 (520.518)	1691.686 (654.832)**	-2119.058 (1611.866)	1044.025 (3550.328)
Income net	.029	.016	-.030	-.041	.053	.019
Remittances	(.013)*	(.013)	(.010)**	(.012)**	(.022)**	(.043)
HH size	-493.059 (221.284)**	-243.956 (362.169)	35.135 (118.632)	509.870 (198.529)**	-1181.125 (507.235)**	-1543.127 (1115.884)

Not working	-258.674 (773.891)	-274.439 (874.495)	1116.467 (464.411)**	1808.881 (600.710)***	-674.316 (1524.258)	-77.491 (1700.451)
Coastal	1273.667 (1202.893)	885.392 (1300.407)	-239.888 (496.536)	762.802 (618.770)	-41.474 (1908.727)	2298.664 (4170.608)
Central	1629.174 (1269.352)	1519.742 (1506.061)	1234.121 (1165.540)	386.602 (633.302)	-343.613 (2121.748)	751.246 (2549.583)
Mountain	4378.423 (1301.748)***	3150.895 (1372.600)**	496.536 (526.829)	156.980 (27.430)***	9519.731 (2250.697)*	6262.789 (2473.883)**
Head of HH	4516.190 (1214.094)***	4263.074 (1331.845)***	1293.200 (692.992)*	1727.736 (835.200)**	6736.172 (2528.164)*	6741.399 (3085.784)**
Cons	1457.852 (2470.532)	279.485 (4912.204)	1698.405 (1205.592)	-4575.805 (2380.743)**	9001.387 (5184.701)*	18176.340 (19160.380)
N	8,129	6,328	4,419	3,538	3,710	2,790
R-squared	0.014	0.011	0.031	-	0.019	-
Wald chi2(14)	-	76.57	-	112.98	-	33.58
Prob>chi2	-	0.000	-	0.000	-	0.001

Note: ***, **, and * indicate the statistic significance respectively at 1, 5 and 10 percent level or better

The second regression reports variables affecting the total expenditure for medical visits and laboratory services. This dependent variable may be considered as the one describing prevention behavior. The results are presented divided by sub groups of households living in urban and rural area. The main variable of interest for us is remittance income. The IV-estimates suggest that remittances have a positive impact in the expenditure for medical visits and laboratory service. This relationship holds in rural sub group; however the magnitude is higher in the urban sub group but not statistically significant. Remittance income positively affects the expenditure in medical visits and laboratory services in the entire sample.

The OLS estimates show that the total expenditure increases in the urban area. In contrast with the findings in table 1, the relation between total expenditure for visits and the education is positive. More years of education lead to higher expenditure for visits and laboratory services. This result may be related to a higher propensity of educated household members to the prevention through visits and other similar services.

As expected higher age means higher expenditure for visits and laboratory services. Referring to the theory, the human capital formation predicts a positive correlation of the demand for health care and the rate of depreciation on the health stock. The OLS estimates show that the magnitude is higher in the urban area if compared to the entire sample and the rural area.

Total expenditure estimates show that the estimated relation is positive for female household members. Male household members are less intensive users of the health care system because they face a higher opportunity cost in compared to female household members. All other things being the same we can expect household size to negatively affect the expenditure for visits and laboratory work. The coefficient is negative in the case of the entire sample and the rural sub group. Larger households will have a lower per capita income reducing the demand for health care. However the IV-estimate is positive in the urban sub group. Being the head of the household means a higher expenditure for visits and laboratory work.

The direction of the relation is negative for all the three areas of residence; Coastal, Central and Mountain. However the effect does not have a clear direction if divided by sub groups. Income net from remittances has a positive effect either in the entire sample or in the sub groups. The theoretical model predicts that the elasticity of demand for all forms of medical services with respect to income should be positive unless it is considered an inferior good. The effect of non-working status¹ is negative in the sample but have different direction for the sub groups suggesting a positive relation in the rural area and a negative one in the urban area.

¹ The household members maybe unemployed, or out of the labor force, (e.g. children and older members).

Concluding remarks

The paper examines the relationship between remittance income and total expenditure for health care using instrumental variable method. Total expenditure is divided into two categories: expenditure going in medicines and expenditure going in visits and laboratory services. The estimation is presented for two separate sub group rural and urban area.

The overall findings of the study indicate that households increase their expenditure for medicines and other health services in presence of remittance income. The positive relationship is statistically significant in the case of remittance receiving households living in the rural area. The IV-estimates show that total expenditure for medicines increase by around 9,400 Lek in the case of households living in the rural area of the country. The magnitude is lower in the case of total expenditure for visits and laboratory. However, total expenditure for visits and laboratory are likely to have significant impact on the health outcome given their prevention nature. Remittance flows may play an important policy role in supporting total expenditure for the health care of remittance receiving households, especially for those living in rural area where the access is limited if compared to the urban area.

According to the IV-estimates more years of education means less expenditure for medicines but more for visits and laboratory services. This may be related with the fact that educated household members are more efficient producers of health meaning that they are more skilful in combining medical prevention services for better health outcomes. The total health care expenditure increases with age, for female household members, and households living in the mountain area of the country.

The policy implications of the presence of remittances and the effect they have in health expenditure of household members are also important in choosing the right analytic strategy. Observed characteristics of the set of individuals used to compute the propensity score causal estimates allow us to identify characteristics of the reference population and thus make recommendations for individuals. On the other hand, IV approaches may be more applicable because they demonstrate the marginal effects of different changes.

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Saint Augustine's Invention of the Inner-Man: a Short Journey to the History of the Internality of the West

Halil Kayıkçı

Abstract

Phrases such as inner-man, inner-self, inner-vision and inner-hearing occupy an important place in the philosophy of Saint Augustine. Inner-man phrases are dominant to the Augustin's explanations relating to knowledge. Besides function as a means to explain thoughts of Augustine relating to knowledge, these phrases also function as a means to connect his explanations relating to knowledge to other areas of Augustine's philosophy. Before Augustine there was internality also. For example in Jewishness it was thought as conscience which spoke to the individual from his inside. Saint Paul used it as the intelligent part of the soul but Paul was influenced by Plato. But the person who used inner-man phrases systematically and who developed an epistemology directed to subject's understanding himself and who in this way started the tradition of internality of the West was Saint Augustine.

Keywords: Saint Augustine, philosophy of middle age, inner-man, outer-man, internality, nosce te ipsum, inner-space, epistemology of knowing oneself, inner-vision, inner-speaking.

Augustinus'un "İç İnsan"ı Keşfi: Batının İçselcilik Tarihine Kısa Bir Yolculuk

Giriş

İç-insan, iç-göz, iç-kulak, iç-duyma, iç-görme, iç-ben ibareleri Augustinus'un (M.S. 354-430) felsefesinde önemli bir yer tutar. O bu ibareleri bazen birbirinin yerine kullanır. Bu ibarelerin kullanımı bir yandan insanın kendini tanımasına yönelik iken diğer yandan bilgi felsefesinin birer parçasıdır. Bu ibarelerin kullanımının Augustinus'un eserlerinde kademeli olarak arttığı gözükmektedir. Ancak ilk dönem yapıtlarında örtük bir şekilde bu ibarelere başvurulur. Sözgelimi *Contra Academicos*'da şunları okuyoruz: "İnsanda, haklı olarak insanda bulunan tüm diğer şeylere egemen olan ve diğer tüm şeylerin yasa koyucuları olarak kendisine boyun eğmesi gereken şeyden daha iyi ne olabilir. Bununla birlikte, başka bir tanımda ısrar etmediğimiz müddetçe, bu, zihin ya da akıl diye isimlendirilebilir."¹ Ancak Bubacz'ın ifadeleriyle ifade edersek, "ister açıkça isterse örtük bir şekilde kullanılmış olsun, iç-insan eğretisi Augustinus'un bilgiye ilişkin açıklamasına egemendir."²

Bilgi ile ilgili olarak sormak zorunda olduğumuz ilk soru 'Gerçekte neyi biliyorum?' sorusudur. Ancak kendimizle ilgili olarak ne biliyoruz? "Augustinus öfke içinde sorar, o halde neden zihne kendini bilmesi emredilmiştir? O, 'kendini bil' öğüdünün kendinden uzaklaşmama ve Tanrı'nın kanatları altında kendi doğasına göre yaşama öğüdü olarak anlaşılması gerektiğine inanır."³ Burada kendini bilme, Tanrı'yı bilme ve dış dünyayı bilme süreçleri hep iç-insan ibareleri üzerinden açıklanmıştır. Ancak bu noktada Augustinus'un içselciliğine daha fazla yoğunlaşmadan önce, Augustinus öncesinde içselciliğin durumuna ilişkin biraz bilgi vermek söz konusu konuda Augustinus'u doğru anlamak bakımından yararlı olabilir.

Augustinus Öncesinde İçselcilik:

Çok erken dönemlerde içselciliğin bugün vicdan olarak adlandırdığımız yetiden ayrı düşünülmediği gözüküyor. "İlk peygamberler İlyâ ve Elişa kişisel vicdan düşüncesini geliştirdiler. İlyâ'nın, Tanrı'nın kendisiyle dingin, alçak bir sesle konuştuğunu söylediği biliniyor... Mekândan bağımsız bir yürek dinini ilk getiren kişi Hoşea olmuştur."⁴ Yahudilikte de koşut bir anlayışa tanık oluyoruz. "Peygamber Yeşaya'ya göre, her birimizde vicdanın dingin, alçak sesi vardır ve Yahudilikte bu ayırt edicidir. Yahudilikte tam anlamıyla bir öbür dünya inancı yoktu ve dolayısıyla ruha en yaklaştıkları nokta vicdandı."⁵

¹ Augustinus, *Contra Academicos* I, 2, 5.

² Bruce Bubacz, *Augustine's Theory of Knowledge: A Contemporary Analysis*, New York 1981, s. 19.

³ Gareth B. Matthews, *Knowledge and Illumination, The Cambridge Companion to Augustine*, Cambridge, 2006, s. 177.

⁴ Peter Watson, *Fikirler Tarihi Ateşten Freud'a*, çev. Kemal Atakay, Barış Pala, İstanbul, 2008, s.165-66

⁵ A.g.e., s. 167.

Burada sözü geçen vicdanın ya da vicdanın içimizdeki sesinin daha sonra Augustinus'da göreceğimiz iç-insanın gördüğü işlevlere benzer işlevler gördüklerini görüyoruz.

Yahudilikteki bu içselcilik anlayışı sonra gelecek olan Platon ve Hıristiyanlığın içselciliğine benzese de Yahudiliğin kendine özgü doğasından kaynaklanan farklılıklar vardır. 'Ruhun akıllı parçası' olarak düşünülen 'iç-insan' ibaresi önceki paragrafta söylediklerimize koşut olarak "Eski Ahit'in tipik biçimde kalp diye adlandırdığı şeydir (ki İbrance'de açıkça hissetmenin olduğu kadar anlama ve düşünme yetisi anlamına gelir). Elbette Yahudi düşünme biçimi ya da benin akıllı parçası ile sözcüğün Platoncu kullanımları arasında önemli ayrımlar bulunmaktadır. Olasılıkla en dikkate değer başkalık, İbrance yazıtların benin düşünen parçasını bedenden ayrı olarak resmetmemesi ve onun ölümsüzlüğüne ilişkin hiçbir tanıt içermemesidir (Bu açıdan Platon'dan çok Homeros'a benzemektedir). İbrani 'kalp'inin rasyonelliğinin görmekten çok duymaya, birinin söylediğini anlamaktan çok gözlemleme ve deneyime ile ilgili olmaya eğilimli olduğunu ekleyebiliriz. İbarenin anlamı çoğu Helenistik metinde zihne ilişkin sıradan Yunan konuşmasından çok farklı gözükmemektedir. Gerçekten çarpıcı başkalık onun bu bağlamdaki kullanımının özel amacıdır: Çünkü burada aydınlanmış benin gördüğü şey Platoncu anlaşılabilir dünya ya da Stoacıların İlahi Doğası değil, Tanrı'nın amacının İsa'daki zenginliğidir."¹

Platon'da konumuz açısından sonraki dönemleri çok etkileyecek bazı ipuçlarına rastlıyoruz. "Devletin sonuna doğru Platon, ruhun üç parçasına ilişkin kuramını çarpıcı bir eğretilenle özetler. Ruh çok başlı bir canavar, aslan ve içteki insanla karşılaştırılır. Bağlam içindeki hiçbir şey, Platon'un iç-ben gibi bir şey ima ettiğini önermez. 'İçerideki insan' ya da 'iç-insan' basitçe ruhun akıllı parçası için bir eğretilen değildir. Diğer iki eğretilen de ruhun iştahlı ve sinirli parçaları için birer eğretilenlerdir. Bu eğretilenlerin Yeni Ahit'e kadar Antik Yunan'a ait hiçbir metinde benzeri yoktur. Eldeki metinler açısından bakıldığında, öyle görünmektedir ki, 'iç insan' Aziz Paul'un mektuplarına Platon'un diyaloglarından sızmıştır."²

Yukarıda Yahudilikteki karşılığını vicdan olarak verdiğimiz iç-insan kavramının Platon'un Devlet adlı diyalogundaki anımsanmaya değer kullanımı dışında hiçbir öncü kullanımı yoktur ve Platon'un kullanımı Aziz Paul'de Hıristiyan öğelerle birleştirilmiştir. Phillip Carry'e göre, "iç-insan ibaresinin Aziz Paul yazınındaki kullanımı olasılıkla benzer bir tarzda en iyi biçimde anlaşılabilir. İbarenin kendisi rasyonalite ve anlamaya iye bir benin parçası gibi bir şey anlamında anlaşılabilir olmalıdır ve olasılıkla Paul'un dinleyicilerinin eğitilmiş üyeleri tarafından onun Platoncu kökeni tanınmıştır. Her ne olursa olsun, söz konusu ibarenin Yeni Ahit'teki kullanımıyla ilgili ayırt edici şey, iç-insanın doğasının ve yazgısının tek insan İsa Peygamberle sıkıca ilişkili olmasıdır."³

İç-insan kavramının kullanımının Paul'den sonra gelişerek arttığı gözüküyor. Kavramın kullanımının artışının dinin yapısının içselciliği gerektirmesiyle yakından ilgili olduğunu göreceğiz. Batı Kiliselerinde kavramın kullanımın yaygınlaştıran ve kavramı biçimlendiren kişi olarak karşımıza Origen çıkmaktadır. "Daha sonra, Platoncu Hıristiyanlar tarafından iç-insana ilişkin dil, daha iyice insan doğasına ilişkin Platoncu düşüncelerle iç içe geçirilmiştir. Bu gelişme içinde en önemli ve biçimlendirici kişi Origen'dir. Alexandria'lı 3.yüzyıl Platoncu Hıristiyan, Origen zihin ya da kalbin bedensel duyu organlarına karşılık gelen ama özdeksel nesnelere çok tinsel nesnelere algılayan beş duyusundan söz etmektedir. Bu iç ya da tinsel duylara ilişkin sözcük dağarcığı, onun desteklediği literal/gerçek hermeneutiği ile birlikte Batı Kilisesinin daha karmaşık çevrelerine yayılmıştır. Ancak Afrika'da yetiştiği sırada Augustinus onun hakkında hiçbir şey bilmemekteydi... Onunla ilk karşılaşması Milan'da Piskopos Ambros'un vaazlarıyla ki Ambrose, Augustinus'un Katolik Kilisesi cemaatine katılmasına yardımcı olmuştur."⁴

Kavramın Hıristiyanlığın ilk dönemindeki kullanımının Augustinus üzerinde önemli etkileri olacaktır. "Bizim amacımız açısından, iç-insan, iç-görme, iç-duyma gibi duyumlar üzerine erken dönem Hıristiyan konuşmasının önemi, bu konuşmanın Augustinus'u içsellik dilinin en iyi Katolik geleneğinin bir parçası olduğuna ikna etmiş olmasıdır. İç-insanın sadece Ambrose ve Paul'de değil ayrıca Plotinus ve Platon'da da ilgi nesnesi olmasının onun dikkatinden kaçması hemen hemen olanaksızdır. Bu bir noktada birleşme, onun doğru din ve doğru felsefenin aynı şey olduğunu anlamasına neden olmuştur."⁵ Augustinus'un Hıristiyanlığa girdiği sırada bu ibarelerle karşılaşmış olması açıklayıcı bir niteliğe sahiptir. Çünkü o bu dönemde Tanrı'yı aramaktadır ve insanın kendisini tanımaya yönelik bu kavramlar kendini bilip anlamasına ve buradan da Tanrı'yı bilmesine yardımcı olabilir. Moran'ın ifadeleriyle, "kendinin bilgisinin bizzat kendisi bir dıştan içe dönüşür, daha alçaktan daha yüksek olana dönüşür."⁶ Bu nedenle iç-insan ibarelerinin Augustinus'un Tanrı arayışında önce kendini

¹ Phillip Carry, Augustinus's Invention of the Inner Self. The Legacy of a Christian Platonist, New York, 2003, s. 47-48

² A.g.e., s. 47.

³ A.g.e., s. 48.

⁴ A.g.e., s. 48.

⁵ A.g.e., s. 48.

⁶ Dermont Moran, the Philosophy of John Scottus Eriugena, Cambridge UK, 1989, s. 147.

anlamasına ve düşüncesini daha yükseklere yöneltmesine, Tanrıyı bulduktan sonra da O'nunla ilişkisini açıklamasına yardımcı bir araç işlevi gördüğü gözüküyor.

Bu süreçte Augustinus üzerinde ve içsellüğün anlamının belirlenmesinde etkili olan Plotinus bizim açımızdan özellikle önemlidir. Çünkü Augustinus'un kuşkuculuktan uzaklaşmasında ve imanın kafasında anlaşılır hale gelmesinde Plotinus'un etkisi büyüktür. "Plotinus'un özellikle içe dönüşü dışımızdaki şeylerle ve zihinsel görmeyi imanla ilişkilendirme yöntemine ilişkin bir metnini düşünelim. 'Zihinsel Güzellik Üzerine' adlı incelemede, Plotinus içe dönmenin bedensel şeylerden uzaklaşma anlamına geldiğinde son derece ısrar eder... Plotinus ruhun kendi içine bakmak suretiyle anlaşılır şeyleri (intelligibles) gördüğünde ısrar eder. Baştan aşağı kendisine zihinsel güzelliğin işlediği ruhlar saf seyirciler değildir. Çünkü bir yandan dışarıdaki biri varken, diğer yandan dışarıyı seyreden bir şey vardır, ancak keskin gözlü olanlar gördüklerini kendilerinde görürler."¹ Bu paragrafta geçen 'keskin gözlü olanlar' ifadesi yanlış anlaşılmalıdır. Keskin gözlü olmak burada derin düşünmeyle, yani tefekkürle ilgili bir şeydir. Carry'nin yerinde ifadesiyle, "tefekkür bir kimsenin kendi dışındaki bir şeyleri görmesi benzeri bir şey değildir, o daha çok bir kimsenin kendi varoluşunun temeliyle yeniden birleştiği bir varolma tarzıdır ve söz konusu temel, tüm varoluşun temelidir."² Plotinus'un en önemli özelliklerinden biri de insanın düşünme yoluyla özdeksel dünyayı, derin düşünme yani tefekkür yoluyla da Tanrı'yı yani varoluşun temelinde bulunan varlığı bilip onunla birleşebileceğimizi ispatlamış olmasıdır. Burada görmemizi sağlayan organın maddi gözlerimiz değil zihnimiz olduğu, maddi gözlerimizin gerçekte zihnimiz önüne ne koyuyorsa onu gördüğü, tefekkür yetisi gelişmeyen bir insanın pek çok şeye kör kalacağı ve körün görmediği için dünyanın varlığını yadsıyamayacağı gibi, tefekkürde bulunmayan yani gözlerini keskinleştirmeyen kimselerin de kendileri görmedikleri için Tanrı'nın varlığını ya da varlığımızın temelini meydana getiren varlığı yadsımalılarının anlamsızlığı ortaya konmaktadır.

Augustinus'un Plotinus'un konuya ilişkin düşüncelerini Hıristiyanlaştırdığı ve bu yolla Hıristiyanlığı etkilediği gözüküyor. Çünkü Hıritiyan inancındaki evren-Tanrı ilişkisi Plotinus'un konuya yaklaşımından çok farklıdır ve bu farkı korumak için Augustinus, Plotinus'un düşüncelerinde bazı değişiklikler yapmak zorundaydı. "Augustinus'dan önce zihinsel görme öğretisi ile iç uzam olarak ben kavramını birleştiren kişi Plotinus'tur. Bu tuhaf bir bileşimdir ve Plotinus çok geçmeden ondan uzaklaşacaktır – ya da daha çok onu aşacak ve onun ötesine geçecektir. O, ruh için kendi içine dönmenin ya da bakmanın nasıl olanaklı olduğunu açıklamakla ilgilenmemekte, ama daha çok tefekkürün görmeden (vision) ayrılmı olduğu anlamı vurgulamaktadır, çünkü o (söz konusu anlam) bilenle bilineni birleştirmektedir. İnsani görmenin tersine, zihinsel bilgi bizi, hatta bilenle bilinen arasındaki ikiliği geride bıraktığımızı söyler; Bir'i görmeyiz, hatta onu bilmeyiz de, ama onunla bir oluruz. Böylece en yüksek tefekkür, bilenle bilinen arasındaki özdeşlikten daha yüksektir, hatta Aristoteles'in kendi düşüncesini düşünen Tanrı'sından da yüksektir. Çünkü O (Aristoteles'in Tanrısı), hiçbir şekilde düşünmemekte ya da bilmemektedir (çünkü bu durum bilen ve bilinen özdeşliğinde bile belli oranda bir ikilik içermektedir) hala ama o sadece İlahi Bir olarak bir ve kendisi olarak varolmaktadır. Böyle bir ilahilik (tüm kutsallıkların en yücesi) zaten bizim varlığımızın özünde ve merkezinde olmadığı sürece, içe dönüş Plotinus için sonal biçimde bir anlam ifade etmez. Burada yine Augustinus'un neden içe dönüşün yeni ve ayrılmı bir biçimini tasarladığını görüyoruz. Ruh İlahi olandan daha aşağı yapmak için Augustinus, Plotinus'un yadsıdığı eğretilmeyi benimsemek zorundadır: İç-görme. Çünkü o, Plotinus'un yapmak istemediği şeyi Augustinus'un kesin olarak yapmasına izin vermektedir. Ruh ve Tanrı, gören ve görünen arasında bir uçurum ya da uzaklık koymak. Bu yollardır ki 'içe bakma' tuhaf eğretilmesi Batı geleneğine girmiştir."³

Plotinus'un içsellığe ilişkin temellendirmelerinin Augustinus'un düşüncüyle ulaşılan doğrulara güvenini artırdığı gözüküyor. Daha önce de ifade ettiğimiz üzere Plotinus'un içsel bilgiyi temellendirmesi Augustinus'u Hıristiyanlığa hazırlayan en önemli unsurdur. "Plotinus sadece içe dönüşü ve zihinsel görmeyi araştırmayı aşılammakta, ayrıca imana güveni de aşılammaktadır. Plotinus'u okumak Augustinus'un sadece dışsal şeylerden uzaklaşmamız gerektiğine ilişkin inancını güçlendirmemiş, aynı zamanda onun anlamaya ulaşabilmek için imanla başlamamız gerektiğine ilişkin inancını da sağlamlaştırmıştır. Plotinus'un felsefesi Augustinus'a çok fazla şey sağlamıştır: En önemlisi, Tanrı ve ruh arasındaki iç bağlantıya ilişkin bir açıklama ve ayrıca bizim neden bu iç bağlantıyı tanımakta başarısız kalmaya devam ettiğimize ve sonunda onu görmeye nasıl ulaşabileceğimize ilişkin bir açıklama."⁴

¹ Phillip Carry, a.g.e., s. 41-42.

² A.g.e., s. 42.

³ A.g.e., s. 42.

⁴ A.g.e., s. 43.

Augustinus'un içselciliği

İçsellik ya da içe dönme gerekli mi, yoksa kendi kendimize yüklediğimiz bir angarya mı? İçe dönüş bize gerçekte insanlığımızı hissettiren çok önemli bir eylem gibi görünüyor. Kanaatimce özellikle modern kapitalist dönemde daha önemli bir konu olarak karşımıza çıkıyor. Çünkü insanlar sürekli parayı ve maddeyi düşündükçe maddeleşiyor ve madde ile arasındaki ayrımın kapandığını bile farkedemeyecek kadar kendinden uzaklaşıyor. Bütün değerleri madde üzerinden üretmeye başlıyor ve bu durumda içsel olarak kabul ettiği değerleri de aslında maddenin bir yansıması oluyor. Bu durumda kişinin kendi de değerleri de her an madde gibi değişken ve sonlu oluyor. Zaten modern insanın en büyük sorunlarından birinin sonsuzla olan bağının kopması değil midir? Augustinus'un içselciliğinin göreceğimiz üzere bu noktada modernizme ve postmodernizme direndiği ve modernizm ve postmodernizmin getirdiği sorunlara çözüm için bir seçenek olmaya ısrarla ve güçlü biçimde devam ettiği görülecektir.

Dış dünyanın yetersizliğinin ve insani özelliklerimizin bizi içe dönüşe ya da içsellikçe sürüklediği gözüktüyor. "Bir içe dönüş, dışardaki dünya aradığımız iyiyi bulma konusunda yanlış yer olarak gözüktüğünde çekici olmaktadır. Dış dünya itici, ölü ve anlamsız görünmeye başladığında, bazı (hepsi değil) Orta Çağ mistikleri için, ki onlar bu dünya yaşamına yabancılaşmışlardır, ölümlü ve yok olabilir olması nedeniyle insan bedeni kaçınılmaz olarak kendisinden kurtulması gereken bir şey olarak görüldü. Bununla beraber bazı (hepsi değil) modern filozoflar için fiziksel dünyanın bilinç ve düşünceden yoksun yaşamsız ve mekanistik olması –sonal anlamı bulmak için bakılacak yer olmadığı- kaçınılmaz görünmektedir. Her iki durumda, dış dünya ile ilgili doyumsuzluk içe bakmak için bir itki sağlayabilir ve ruhun gözünü içe çevirme yolu tuhaf Augustinusçu eğretilere kesinlikle gereksinim duyduğumuz şey olarak gözükebilir. Bu sanki Orta Çağlıların ve modernlerin olağan olarak içinde yaşadığımızı söyleyebileceğimiz dış, uzamsal dünyaya bakıp, başlarını sallayıp kendi kendilerine 'Hayır, istediğim şey her ne ise, olasılıkla burada bulunamaz' dediklerinde, *İtirafınn* 7. Kitabının başlangıcında Augustinus'la birlikte konumlanmalarına benzemektedir. Böyle bir anda içe dönüş kaçınılmazdır. Eğer dış dünya aradığım iyiyi bana göstermezse, içsel olan dışında bakılacak başka bir yer olabilir mi?"¹

Aynı durum Augustinus için de geçerlidir ama o sorunu sürekli Tanrıyla ilişkilendirerek işlemektedir. Daha net ifadelerle, "Augustinus'un sorunu, ruhun ilahiliğini onaylamaksızın, Tanrı'yı ruh içinde konumlandırma. O (Plotinus gibi), tanrısal olanın benden tamamen ayrılmış olduğunu onaylamakla birlikte Tanrısal olanı ben içinde bulmak istemektedir. O bu sorunu Tanrı'yı yalnızca ruhun içine değil aynı zamanda (onun yaratıcısı olarak) ruhun üzerine yerleştirmekle çözmektedir. Böylece Plotinus'un 'içe' dönüşünü içeriye sonra da 'yukarıya' çevirmektedir –önce ruhun içine girmek sonra da onun üzerine bakmak. Özel iç uzam kavramı bu değişiklik sonucunda ortaya çıkmaktadır. Çünkü içine girdiğimizde kendimizi bulduğumuz uzam tam olarak bizim kendi uzamımızdır. Bu, insan belleğinin ve düşüncesinin iç dünyasıdır ve Tanrısal zihnin anlaşılır dünyasıyla özdeş değildir."² Augustinus açısından Tanrı'yı bulma konusunda bu içe dönüş Kutsal Kitaptan bile önce gelmektedir. Ona göre "Tanrıya ilişkin bir anlama bir kimsenin bir metinde bulabileceği bir şey değildir. Sonuçta o, Tanrı'yı bulmak için içe dönmemiz gerektiğine inanmaktadır. Hiçbir metin bize Tanrı'ya ilişkin bir görüş vermez, ancak nereye bakacağımızı söyleyebilir."³

İtirafınn da Augustinus aynı sorundan hareket eder ve içe dönme edimini artık bir projeye dönüştürür. "Sorun, Tanrı'yı nerede bulacağımızdır, ancak daha özde özdeksel olmayan terimlerle Tanrı'yı nasıl kavrayacağımızdır. Bir kişi nereye dönebilir, dikkatini nereye yönlendirebilir, bedensel dünyada hiçbir yer işgal etmeyen bir şeyi bulmak için. Yanıt sezgisel olarak Platoncudur: Bir kişi ayrılmış bir görme türüne uyanmalıdır, ki bu görme türü, farkedilmeksizin ruhu baştan başa kateden bir görme türüdür. Augustinus'un içe dönüş projesi kişinin kendisini bu görmeye uyandırma projesidir: o bir bilgi felsefesidir, bir eğitim bilimidir, Tanrı'yı görmeyi arzu eden zihin için bir etikir."⁴

İtirafınn adlı yapıtı, ki bu yapıtı Augustinus uzmanları tarafından *Tanrı Devleti Üzerine* ile birlikte dünya kitap kültürü mirasının en önemli yapıtlarından biri olarak kabul edilir, konumuzu anlamak bakımından bize çok yardımcı olacaktır. "*İtirafınn*"ın yazarı, ruhu duyularla ilgili cazibenin ötesine yönlendirmenin yolunun, onun dikkatini, kendi özdeksel olmayan doğasının düşünsel bir kavranışını elde etmesi için, içe çevirmek olduğuna ikna olmuştur. Eğer ruh sadece kendini görebilirse, bedensel olmayan şeylerin neye benzediğini görmeye başlayabilir. Böylece Augustinus, Tanrı'yı kavramakla ilgili sorununu ben bilgisinin eksikliğine kadar geri giderek izlemektedir. İçe dönmek öncelikle ruhun kendi dikkatine katılmak ve kulak

¹ A.g.e., s. 142.

² A.g.e., s. 140.

³ A.g.e., s. 40-41.

⁴ A.g.e., s. 63-64.

vermek demektir ki ruh özdeksel bir şey değildir ve Tanrı'ya onun görmek için kullanıldığı bedensel şeylerden daha yakındır.¹

İtiraflar Augustinus'un Tanrı'ya yolculuğunu betimlemesi yanında içe dönüş denen şeyi ayrıntılarıyla açıklaması nedeniyle bizim açımızdan önem arz etmektedir. "Bu bakış açısından, içe dönüşün Platoncu kaynakları, Augustinusçu kökenlerinden daha az önemlidir. *İtiraflar*'ın 7. Kitabı, Augustinus'un daha erken bir çalışmasının, *Özgür İrade Üzerine* adlı incelemenin ikinci kitabının bir özeti gibi okunabilir. *Özgür İrade Üzerine*'nin ikinci kitabı, duyulardan iç duyuya ve zihne ve zihnin Hakikatin ışığıyla duyulur şeyleri yargılayan yetisine kadar ilerler ve sonunda anlaşılır hakikatin kendisinin bir görüşüyle sona erer. Bu anlaşılır hakikat insan zihninden yüksektir çünkü değişmezdir, insan zihni ise değişmez değildir. Bu ayrıntılı içe dönüş tasarısı, ruhun güçleri üzerine soruşturma yoluyla yükselme, Augustinus'un erken bir çalışmasında bir yerde yankılanmaktadır. *İtiraflar*'da konu üç kez geçmektedir ve ayrıca bu kullanımlar onun sonraki düşünüşündeki anahtar öğeleri biçimlendirmektedir. *İtiraflar*'ın 7. Kitabındaki Augustinus'un Tanrının görülmesine ilişkin bildirileri, devam eden içe dönüş tasarılarının özet ifadeleridir."²

İtiraflar'ın Augustinus'un sonraki yapıtları açısından olduğu kadar Hıristiyan Batı açısından da önemli sonuçları olacaktır. Droit'nin "İtiraflar coşkuya ve altüst eden bir heyecanla anlatılan bir ruhun öyküsüdür,"³ tümcesi yapıtın niteliği ve konumuz açısından önemi hakkında son derece bilgilendiricidir. Augustinus burada yaşadığı, deneyimlediği bir yolculuğu anlatmıştır ve bu nedenle de yaşayanlar üzerindeki etkisi büyük olmuştur. Zaten bu yaşayan canlı bireyi felsefenin konusu yapması nedeniyle de varoluşçu düşünülere öncelik yapmıştır. "Genellikle önce bir varoluşçu olarak anılan Augustinus'un varoluşçuluğu, en belirgin ve dramatik şekli, *İtiraflar*'ında gördüğümüz şekliyle, onun bir din psikoloğu olarak gücünde yatmaktadır. Aziz Augustinus, benliğin derindeki endişeleri, titreyişi, kırılmalı ve sevgi olarak kendini aşma özlemi açısından Ben'e karşı çok güçlü bir hassasiyete sahipti. Bunun için o *İtiraflar*'ında bize, en büyük Helen yazınının bile vermediği ve veremeyeceği öznel deneyim örneklerini sunmaktadır; zira bu tür bir deneyim içselleştirmesi Antik Yunanlılar tarafından bilinmemekteydi ve ancak Hıristiyanlık dolayısıyla gerçekleşmişti. Eflatun ve Aristoteles 'İnsan nedir?' diye sorarken Aziz Augustinus 'Ben kimim' diye soruyordu. Augustinus'un sorusu, tamamen farklı olarak soruyu soran kimsenin içindeki daha belirsiz ve yaşamsal bir odaktan gelmektedir. Yani bu soru, kişisel olarak keskin bir terk edilmişlik duygusundan kaynaklanmaktadır... Böylece Augustinus, Yunan düşüncesine egemen olandan tamamen farklı bir bakış açısının kapılarını aralamaktadır."⁴

Yukarıdaki paragrafta da işaret ettiğimiz üzere, Augustinus'un konuya ilişkin düşünceleri Batı düşünüyü açısından bir kırılmaya işaret etmektedir. "Bu bağlamda gerçek bir iç maceradır. Yunanlılar bu olguyu bilmezler. Jean Vernant'ın da belirttiği gibi, onlar için önemli olan başkaları tarafından nasıl görüldükleridir. Eylem ve düşünce dışarıya dönüktür Yunanlılarda. İçselliğin keşfine yönelik değildir, iç duyguların, belli bir özelliğin getirdiği kişiselliğin aydınlatılmasına yönelik de değildir kesinlikle. Dephoi kâhininin 'kendini tanı' deyişinin anlamı hiçbir biçimde 'içselliğini keşfet' değildir. Bu sözün anlamı, 'bir insan olduğunu, ölümlü olduğunu ve dolayısıyla bir Tanrı olmadığını bil' demektir ve 'bireyselliğini keşfet' değildir. Augustinus'la birlikte, gerçeğin araştırılması ben'in araştırılması olacaktır... Tanrıya, yaratıcısına adanmış bir bireyin ruhunun özel ilişkisini aydınlatan sıraların dökülmesi. Augustinus'la birlikte öznel dünyanın ortaya çıkar. Avrupa felsefe düşüncesi bu dünyayı günümüze kadar sürekli dönüşen uygulamalar haline getirecektir."⁵ Droit'nin şu tümceleri de özeldir *İtiraflar*'ın genelde de Augustinus'un tüm yapıtlarının konumuz açısından insanlık üzerindeki etkilerini aydınlatmada çok yardımcı olacaktır: "İtiraflar'ın felsefi önemi yapıtın tümünde aranmalıdır. Bunlar düşüncenin içselliğinin yapısını gösterir... Antikite insanları genel olarak kendilerinin dışındadır. Sokrates, Platon, Aristoteles ve Antik Felsefenin tüm kurucu babaları bakışlarını bilincin katmanlarına ve labirentlerine değil, derin düşüncelere çevirirler. Augustinus'la birlikte yeni bir birey keşfedilir, hatta inşa edilir bu birey. Bir yığın içsellikle, iç derinlikler ve kıvrımlarla dolu bir belleği vardır bu yeni insanın. Sonunda Hıristiyan olan Augustinus özneliği keşfetmiştir."⁶ "İçselliğin doğuşu antik sitenin ölümüyle çıkarılır."⁷

Carry'nin açıklamaları da yukarıda Droit'den yaptığımız alıntıyı ve yazının başından bu yana savunduğumuz düşünceleri destekleyici ve aydınlatıcı niteliktedir. Ona göre, "iç-ben kavramı ve bu kavramın işaret ettiği içsellik Augustinus'dan önce de vardır ama Augustinus söz konusu kavrama yeni bir başlangıç vermiştir. Ve sanırım bu, Augustinusçu başlangıcın bize

¹ A.g.e., s. 64-65.

² A.g.e., s. 66.

³ Roger-Pol Droit, Kısa Felsefe Tarihi, çev İsmail Yerguz, 2003, İstanbul, s. 77.

⁴ William Barrett, İrasyonel İnsan, çev. Salih Özer, Ankara, 2003, s.100-101.

⁵ Roger-Pol Droit,a.g.e., s. 68.

⁶ Roger-Pol Droit,a.g.e., s.78.

⁷ A.g.e., s. 79.

kadar gelen Batılı içsellik geleneğinin başlangıcında konumlandığını söylemek güvenlidir. Bilinmeyen bir öncelle ilgili durum ne olursa olsun, bizim içselliğimiz Augustinus'dan kaynaklanmaktadır. Bir Batı düşünce tarihçisi için bu önemli bir noktadır. Bu Batı felsefesine, teolojisine ve psikolojisine ve gerçekte kendimize ilişkin yorumları aydınlatacağını umduğum bir noktadır.”¹

Augustinus'un söz konusu açıklamaları biz modernler için ne ifade etmektedir? “Augustinus'un mirasını kalıt olarak alan bizler onun için var olmayan iç ve dış dünyalar hakkında sorular sorabiliriz. Biz özel içsel uzamımızı kendisinden kaçmamız gereken bir şey olarak düşünebiliriz. Dışarıdaki dünyanın kısır ve ölü, mutluluk ve zekâdan yoksun salt bir mekanizm olmasından endişelenebiliriz. Ve biz içsel görmelerimizi (inner visions) akıldan çok bir iman konusu olarak düşünebiliriz ve orada gördüğümüz şeye inanıp inanmama konusunda endişeli olabiliriz. Ya da iç dünyayı aklın ötesinde ve altındaki bir deneyimler konusu olarak düşünebilir ve orada, varlığımızın gizli merkezinin bulunduğu orada açık bir anlaşılabilirlikte parlamayan ama daha çok anlayamayacağımız kadar derin yollarla bize dokunan bir Tanrısallığı arayabiliriz. Başka sözcüklerle, Augustinus ile başlayabilir ve bazı Orta Çağ mistiklerinin ve 19. Yüzyıl idealistlerinin yaptığı ve çağdaş Amerikalı Gnostiklerin şimdilerde yapmakta oldukları gibi, Plotinus gibi bir şeyleri yeniden bulgulayabiliriz.”² Carry'nin bu ifadeleri çok yerinde görünüyor. Çünkü biz modern dönem ya da postmodern dönem insanların, kendinin dışında madde içinde kaybolan ve buna paralel olarak değerleri ve benlikleri iyice aşınmış bireylerin kendi varlıklarının derinliklerine ulaşma ve kendine dönmesi bakımından Augustinus gerçekten de bir deniz feneri işlevi görebilir.

İç-insanın neliği ve işlevleri

Her şeyden önce Augustinus'un söz sanatlarından çok yararlandığını ve onun bu tutumunun konumuz açısından da geçerli olduğunu aklımızda tutmamız gerekiyor. Sözgelimi, *De Doctrina Christiana*'da “kapalı şeyler benzetme yoluyla çok daha kolay anlaşılabilir,”³ derken aynı yapının başka bir yerinde “mecazi ifadeleri literal olarak almama konusunda dikkatli ol,”⁴ diyerek benzetmelerin kullanımında içerik olan tehlikelere karşı okuyucuyu uyarır.

Her şeyden önce, Bubacz'ın ifadeleriyle, “biz, deneyim karmaşasına bir yapıyı empoze eden, bu yapıyı sınavan ve onu değiştiren bir iç-insana iyeyiz.”⁵ Augustinus'un bizde iç insan diye bir yetinin olduğundan kuşkusuz yoktur. Ancak bu yapı ne işe yarar? “Augustinus iç-insan ibarelerini en yoğun bir şekilde düşünceye ilişkin açıklamalarında kullanır, özellikle de apriori doğruyu tartıştığında. Bu ibareleri kullanmasının birkaç nedeni vardır. Düşünce hakkında konuşmak için iç-konuşma ibarelerini kullanma konusunda kendini rahat hisseder çünkü konuşma benzeri bir şey olarak düşünceye imalar İncil'de çok geçmektedir. Bununla birlikte, Augustinus'un sadece İncil'de yazdığı için düşünme hakkında yazdığında iç-konuşma ibarelerini kullandığını zannetmiyorum. Daha çok, Augustinus bir Hristiyan olduğu kadar bir öğretmen de olduğu için böyle ibareleri kullanmıştır. O, zihin ve zihinsel olgunun genel olarak tartışılması zor konular olduğunu kabul eder, çünkü biz onlar üzerinde konuştuğumuzda hiçbir şeye işaret edemeyiz. Bu nedenle, biriyle zihinsel olgu hakkında konuşmayı denediğimizde biz konuşma kiplerini kullanırız ve bu konu üzerinde yazmak bizim dinleyicinin deneyimi içindeki bir şeyi başvurmamıza izin verir.”⁶

In Johannes Evangelium'da İç-insan ibarelerinin birincil olarak apriori bilgi konusunu temellendirmek amacıyla ve diğer kullanımlarını sergileyen açık bir pasaja rastlıyoruz: “Kendi zihnimizin bile, başka ifadeyle, iç-insanın bile hem kendisinden gerçek ışık diye bahsedilen ışığı gördüğü hem 'başlangıçta söz vardı' anlamına gelen sözü işittiği ve hem de kendisi için 'senin merhemlerinin ardından koşacağız' denen korkuya duyarlı olduğu, hem kendisi için 'yaşam pınarı seninle beraber' denilen kaynaktan su içtiği ve hem de kendisi için 'Tanrı'ya bağlanmak benim iyiliğimdir' denen dokunma duyusundan hoşlandığı söylenir.”⁷ Bubacz'ın yorumuna göre, “Bu pasajdan iki şey açıkça görülmektedir: İç-insanın duyuları vardır ve bu duyuların nesnelere özdeksel şeyler değil, tinsel şeylerdir. İç-insanın duyularını düşünmeden önce onun duyularının nesnelere doğasını ve bu ikisinin nasıl birbiriyle ilişkili olduğunu düşünmek iki önemli sorundur. Sorun önemlidir, çünkü

¹ Phillip Carry, a.g.e., s. 140.

² A.g.e., s.141.

³ Augustinus, *De Doctrina Christiana*, II,6,8.

⁴ A.g.e., III, 5,9.

⁵ Bruce Bubacz, a.g.e., s. 117.

⁶ A.g.e., s. 205-206.

⁷ Augustinus, *In Johannes Evangelium*, XCIX, 4.

İç-insan farklı ve ayrı duyulara (böylece farklı ve ayrı duyu organlarına) sahiptir düşüncesi, iç/dış ikilemi açıklayıcı olmaktan çok tanımlayıcıdır düşüncesi açısından esastır.¹

Burada iç-insan ibarelerinin bazı bilgi türlerine ulaşmak için bir araç olarak kullanıldığını ve ona gereğinden fazla anlam yüklemememiz gerektiğinin ayırında olmalıyız. "Bir benzer modelin merkezi gücü, onun gizemli olan şeyle sıradan olan şey arasında benzerlikler kurarak gizemli olan şeyi anlamamızı sağlamasıdır. Özdeşsel gerçekliği düşündüğümüzde sıradan olanın insanın bedeni, maddi nesnelere, güneşler ve lambalar olduğunu görüyoruz. Gizem iç-insan değildir, gizemli olan şey daha çok insanın özel olgular hakkında kesinliğe ulaşabilme yetisidir. O halde iç-insan bir araçtır, ne sıradan ve ne de gizemlidir ve iç-insanı değerlendirirken anımsanması gereken de onun bu tuhaf durumudur."² Bu noktada iç-insanın nelliğini ve işlevini daha net ortaya koyabiliriz. Bubacz'ın ifadeleriyle, "Augustinus'un iç-insan ibareleri, insanın bedenini ve fiziki çevresini insan zihni ve bu zihnin Tanrı'yla ilişkisi için bir benzer model (analogue model) yapan bir benzetmeler kümesini betimler. O halde Augustinus için iç-insan ibareleri, insanın beden ve fiziki çevresinin, insan zihni ve bu zihnin Tanrı'yla ilişkisiyle paylaştığı bir ortak nokta inşa eder."³ İç-insan kullanımının epistemolojisinin tüm alanlarına yayıldığı gözüküyor. "İç-insan ibareleri benim başat ya da temel diye adlandırdığım durumda apriori durumlara ilişkin bilgimizi açıklamak ve Tanrı'yla olan ilişkilerimize bir içerik sağlamak amacıyla kullanılmışlardır. Sanırım iç-insan insan bedenine fiziki bir çevrede temsili bir benzer model yapan benzetmeler kümesi olarak hizmet eder. Böyle durumlarda o iç-insan ibarelerini kullanır çünkü o kullanışlıdır ve onun epistemolojisini diğer düşüncelerine bağlamasına izin verir."⁴ Bu konuyu ileride 'iç-insan ibareleri ve kendini bilmenin epistemolojisi' adlı bölümde ayrıntılandıracağız.

İç-sözcük, dış-sözcük

Augustinus iç-insanın işlevlerini yerine getirirken nasıl işlem gördüğünü açıklamak için iç-konuşma, dış-konuşma, iç-sözcük, dış-sözcük gibi ibareler kullanır ve bu ibareleri ve işlevlerini açıklamak konuyu anlamamızda son derece yardımcı olacaktır. Augustinus öğrendiğimiz bilgi kırıntılarını nasıl ele aldığımızı ve bedensel eylemleri yerine getirmeyi nasıl başardığımızı açıklamak için iç-konuşma ibaresini kullanır. Bu konular üzerinde çok durması sonucunda "hem sözcükleri hem de dinsel törenleri işaret türleri olarak sınıflamakla Augustinus Orta Çağcı ve modern semiyolojiyi (imbilim) yaratmıştır. O ilk dışavurumcu imbilimcidir."⁵

İç-insan iç-sözcüklerle konuşur, iç-sözcükler herhangi bir doğal dilin sözcükleri değildir, bütün insanlarda ortaktır ve bütün doğal dillerden öncedir. Kendi ifadeleriyle, o "ne Yunanca, ne Latince ve ne de başka herhangi bir şivedir."⁶ O, "dillerin bütün farklılıklarından öncedir."⁷ Konuşan ya da yazan kişi düşüncelerini sözlü ya da yazılı olarak ifade etmeden önce "dillendirilecek konu sade ve çıplak bir şekilde kalbin boşluklarında iç-sözcükler olarak varolur."⁸ Yine *Sermones*'de geçen şu iki pasaj iç-sözcüğün dış-sözcüğe öncelliği düşüncesini pekiştirir. "Sesle meydana getirilen şey, sessizlik içinde daha önce söylenen şeyle aynı şeydir."⁹ "İşte söylemeyi arzu ettiğim şeyi zaten biliyorum, onu kalbimde tutuyorum, sesin aracılığını istiyorum. İfadeyi ağızla dillendirmeden önce sözcüğü kalbimde tutuyorum. Böylece sözcük benim ifademden önce gelir ve sözcük daha önce bendedir, ifade sonradır. Sana, anlayabildiğin derecede, ifade önce senin kulaklarına ulaşır, öyle ki sözcük senin kalbine takdim edilebilsin."¹⁰ Bu alıntılar iç-sözcüklerin varlıkbilimsel olarak da dış-sözcüklere öncel olduğunu düşünmeye bizi itiyor. İçsel olanın dışsal olandan daha gerçek olduğunun düşünülmediği yerde bu çıkarım tutarlıdır. Ayrıca neden sonuçtan öncedir. Burada gerçek sözcük olan iç-sözcüktür. Dış-sözcüğün herhangi bir anlama sahip olmasının tek nedeni ve dış-sözcüğü 'sözcük' olarak adlandırmanın tek nedeni, ona iç-sözcük tarafından neden olunmuş olmasıdır. İç-sözcükle böyle bir ilişkinin yokluğunda, dış-sözcük sadece anlamsız bir sestir. Bu düşüncenin bir devamı olarak, iç-konuşma da sadece zamansal olarak değil, ama aynı zamanda mantıksal olarak da dış konuşmaya önceldir. Dış konuşmanın sözcüklerinin anlamlı olması için onlarla ilgili iç sözcükler bulunmalıdır. Gördüğümüz üzere, bu, düşüncesizce

¹ Bruce Bubacz, a.g.e., s.25.

² A.g.e., s.210-211.

³ A.g.e., s. 214.

⁴ A.g.e., s. 208.

⁵ Phillip Carry, a.g.e., s. 143.

⁶ De Trinitate XV,10,19.

⁷ Sermones, 187,3.

⁸ A.g.e., 187, 3.

⁹ A.g.e., 187, 3, 3.

¹⁰ A.g.e., 288, 4.

ya da ezberden dillendirdiğimiz sözcüklerin anlamlı olmadığı anlamına gelmez. Bu, dış-sözcükler herhangi bir kimsenin iç-sözcükleriyle bağlantılı olmazsa anlamsız olacakları anlamına gelir.

De Trinitate'de geçen şu pasaj iç-sözcüğün neliğini anlamamıza yardımcı olabilir: "Doğru olan bir şeyden söz ettiğimizde, yani bildiğimizi söylediğimizde, bilginin kendisinden doğan, belleğin kendisinde muhafaza ettiği bir sözcük vardır ve bu sözcük tamamen kendisinden kaynaklandığı bilgiyle aynı türdendir. Çünkü bildiğimiz şey tarafından meydana getirilen düşünce, kalbimizde konuştuğumuz sözcüktür."¹ Yani bir şeyi bildiğimizi söylediğimizde, bilinen şeyler tarafından bir iç-sözcük meydana getirilir. Ancak onun burada depolanmış iç-sözcüklermiş gibi bilgidan söz etmediğine dikkat etmek gerekir. Bunun yerine o sadece bilgiyi içeren zihinsel eylemi açıklamayı istediğinde, bildiğimiz bir şeyi bir başkasına nasıl aktarabileceğimizi betimlemek istediğinde, yani doğru düşüncelerin bir analizini verdiğinde, ilk el ya da ilksel dilbilimsel konuşmaya baş vurur. Doğru bir şey söylediğimizde dış-sözcüğün yerine geçen iç-sözcük belirli nitelikleri beyan eder Ancak bu nitelikler sadece açıklanan bilgiye bağlıdır.

Yazılı sözcükler konuşulan sözcüklerin işaretleridir ve konuşulan sözcükler düşündüğümüz şeylerin işaretleridir. Gerçekte düşünceler gerçek sözcüklerdir. "Dışsal olarak sese bürünen sözcük içsel olarak ışık saçan sözcüğün bir işaretidir. Sonraki bir sözcük olarak adlandırılma yönünde daha güçlü bir iddiaya sahiptir."² Burada açıklanan şudur: Biz bedensel sesin telaffuz ettiği şeyi bir 'sözcük' olarak adlandırıyoruz, ancak gerçekte o bir sözcüğün sesidir. İç- sözcükler sesleri temsil etmek için herhangi bir aracı içinde temsil edilemeyebilirler. Bununla birlikte bir ses derindeki bir iç-sözcükle ilişkilendirilebilir. Öyle yakından ve derinden ilişkilendirilebilir ki, sesi duyan (ve dış-sözcüğün iç-sözcükle olan uzlaşımın ilişkisini bilen) bir kişi konuşanın sahip olduğu aynı iç-sözcüğe sahip olmayı başaracaktır. Bu yakın ilişkiye rağmen iç-sözcükle dış-sözcük arasında temel bir ayırım vardır. Augustinus'un kendisi bunu şöyle ifade eder: "Çünkü iç-sözcük sesle ya da herhangi bir bedensel işaret aracılığıyla dillendirildiğinde, o gerçekte olduğu şekliyle dillendirilmez, ama beden tarafından görülebilecek ya da duyulabilecek biçimde ifade edilir."³

Bilgimizi ya da duygu ve düşüncelerimizi başkalarına bildirmek istediğimizde yaptığımız şey, iç-sözcüğü dış-sözcük aracılığıyla ifade etmekten başka bir şey değildir. Burada görüldüğü kadarıyla sağlıklı iletişim de gerçekte iç-insanlar arasında gerçekleşen bir olgu olarak gözüküyor. Ancak yazmak da bir iletişim biçimidir ve Augustinus'un konuya ilişkin açıklamaları iç-sözcüklerden hareket eder. Ona göre, "harfler varolmayan yani etrafımızda bulunmayan kişilerle de iletişim kurabilelim diye icat edilmişlerdir. Ancak sözcüklerin düşündüğümüz bu şeylerle konuşmamızdaki işaretler olması gibi, bunlar sözcüklerin işaretleridir."⁴

Augustinus'un kendi yazıları da bunun bir örneği olarak verilebilir. O ne söyleyeceğini önce düşünmüş sonra da Katedrale gidip düşündüklerini cemaatine anlatmıştır ya da bu düşündüklerini yazmıştır. İç-sözcük konuşmadan ya da yazmadan önce Augustinus'un düşündüğü şeydir. O konuyu bir vaazında da şöyle tartışır: "İşte, şimdi seninle konuşan benim. Sana ne söyleyebileceğimi sana gelmeden önce peşinen düşündüm. Sana ne söyleyebileceğimi düşündüğümde kalbimde zaten bir sözcük vardı, çünkü önceden düşünmeksizin seninle konuşamazdım. Senin bir Latin konuşucu olduğumu gördüm ve dolayısıyla sana Latince bir sözcük önerdim. Bununla birlikte, eğer sen Yunanlı olsaydın seninle Yunanca konuşmak zorunda kalır, sana Yunanca bir sözcük söyledim. Kalbimde adeta bir sözcük ne Latince ne de Yunanca. Çünkü kalbimde olan şey böyle dillere önceldir. Onun için bir ses arıyorum, buna bir araç arıyorum. Kendisi aracılığıyla kalbimde olanı beni terketmeksizin sana ulaştırabileceğim bir araç arıyorum."⁵

Dış-sözcükler iç- sözcükleri tam olarak yansıtmamasına rağmen, dış sözcüklerden hareketle karşımızdaki insanların düşüncelerine ulaşabiliriz. Konuşma, konuşmacının düşündüğü şey için delildir, çünkü iç-sözcükler dış-sözcüklerle olan özel ilişkilerin yerini alır. De Magistro'da bu duruma işaret eder: "Bir kişi bir ifadeyi biçimlendirdiğinde bile, hiçbir ses telaffuz etmememize rağmen biz yine de zihnin içinde konuştuğumuz sözcükleri düşünüyoruz. Ve böylece tüm konuşmada sadece anımsıyoruz. Sözcükler belleğe bağlıdır. Biz onları düşünürüz ve bu, sözcüklerin işareti olduğu birçok şeyin zihne gelmesine neden olur."⁶

Yukarıdaki anlattıklarımızı göz önünde bulundurduğumuzda şöyle bir sıralanma ortaya çıkıyor: Bir şey söylemek istediğimizde önce söylemek istediğimiz ifadeyi zihnimizde oluştururuz ve sonra bellek bize kullanılması gereken dış

¹ De Trinitate XV, 10,19.

² A.g.e. XV, 11,20.

³ A.g.e., XV,11,20.

⁴ A.g.e., XV, 10,19.

⁵ Sermones, 225,3.

⁶ De Magistro 1, 2.

sözcüğü sağlar. Düşünce her zaman kendi ifadesine önceldir. Düşünceyi açıklama konusunda doğru sözcükleri bulmak için belleğimizi araştırmalıyız. Belleğimizi araştırmak için hangi iç-konuşma sözcüklerini açıklamak istediğimizi bilmeliyiz. Böylece, iç-sözcükten dış-sözcüğe doğru olan silsile: iç-sözcük, iç-sözcüklere uyan dış-sözcükleri bulmak için belleğin araştırılması; dış-konuşma. Düşünme burada iç-konuşmadır. İç-konuşmanın dile dökülmesi de dış-konuşma.

Bilginin iç-sözcüklere neden olduğunu daha önce belirtmiştik. Bilginin iç-sözcüklere neden olduğunu söylemek gerçekte bilgi ile iç-sözcük arasındaki ilişkiyi de açıklamak demektir. Bilgi iç-sözcüklerle yakından ilişkilidir ama ikisi aynı şey değildir. "Bu durumda (bildiğimiz şeyi söylediğimizde) bir sözcük bilinen şeye en çok yakındır."¹ Yine bunun nasıl olanaklı olduğunu *De Trinitate*'de şöyle açıklar: "Söylediğim gibi, ileri geri onu döndürmek suretiyle bildiğimiz şeye rastladığımızda ve kendi tam suretinde aldığımızda doğru söz ortaya çıkar. Böylece her bir şey hangi biçimde bilinirse o biçimde de düşünülürler, yani kalpte söylenirler."² Yani bildiğimiz şeye rastlamadan önce belleğimizde depolanmış çeşitli olasılıkları düşünüyoruz ve bildiğimiz, bellekte depolanmış bu şey bir iç-sözcük meydana getirir. Burada yine yakından tanıdığımız bir Augustinusçu tutumla karşılaşıyoruz. Bu da her şeyde bir ölçeme bulma düşüncesidir. Burada da bir ölçeme söz konusudur: Bellekte depolanmış bir şey vardır. Bu iç-sözcüğe neden olur ve iç-sözcük de dış-sözcük olarak ortaya çıkar.

Başka zihinler sorunu da düşünce tarihinde ilk defa burada gündeme gelir. Ona göre biz iç-sözcükte başkalarıyla iletişim kurarız. "Zihnimizde taşıdığımız bir sözcük bedensel işaretler yardımıyla bedensel duyarlar için bilinir hale gelir,"³ tümcesi başka zihinlerle iletişim sorununa çözüm getirecek niteliktedir. Burada gerçek iletişim iç-sözcükten hareketle açıklaması dikkate değerdir. "Gerçekte olduğu şekliyle içsel olarak konuşulan bilgidir, bilgide olan şey ondadır (iç-sözcükte) ve bilgide olmayan şey de onda (iç-sözcükte) değildir."⁴ Burada iç-sözcüklerin dış sözcükler, başkalarının duyarlarına uygun bir araçdaki sözcükler olarak ortaya konulması başkalarıyla iletişim açısından önemli bir eylemdir. Konuşma ya da mimikler iç-sözcükte olana ne denli uygunsa iletişim de o denli sağlıklı olacaktır. Diğer zihinlere aracı olarak ulaşma olanağımız olmadığı için düşüncelerimizi başka bedenlere uygun hale getirebilen bir araç içinde açıklamanın gerekli olduğu anlaşılmaktadır.

Augustinus açıkça bilgiyi incelemenin faydalı bir yolunun onu bizimle konuştuğumuz ya da sahip olduğumuz sözcükler gibi ele almamız gerektiğini önermektedir. "O halde biz zihnin bakışıyla formu gözlemliyoruz. Oldukları şekliyle, içimizdeki bir sözcük olarak bu şekilde kavranan şeylerin doğru bilgisine sahip oluyoruz,"⁵ diyerek bu düşüncesini ifade eder. *De Trinitate*'de daha derli toplu bir pasaj bulunmaktadır: "O halde, insan zihninin kendiliğinden bildiği, onun bedensel duyarlar yardımıyla bildiği, başkalarının tanıklığı nedeniyle bildiği ve elde ettiği tüm bu şeyler bellek deposunda yerleştirilmiş ve korunmuştur. Ve bildiğimizi söylediğimizde doğru olan bir sözcük yaratılır ve bu sözcük tüm seslere önceldir ve sesin düşüncesine önceldir. Bilinen şeye en yakın olan şey bellek tarafından bir sözcüğün yaratıldığı andır. Böyle bir sözcük dile aittir ve doğru olan şeyle ilgili doğru bir sözcüktür. Bu sözcüğün olduğu tüm şey onu meydana getiren bilgidен çıkarımlarıdır. Böyle bir sözcük, bildiği şeyden söz eden kişinin bildiği şeyi öğrendiği zamana işaret etmez. Tüm bunlar sadece sözcüğün kendisinin doğru olması, yani bilgidен kaynaklanması koşuluyla böyle bir sözcük hakkında doğrudur."⁶

Zihin içsel olan şeyleri iç-görme yetisi ile görür. İç-görme nesnelere olarak ya ruhsal görmeye yaratılan şeyleri ya da zihnin kendisinde yerleştirilmiş şeyleri görür. Augustinus bilgiyi nasıl elde ettiğimiz üzerine konuştuğunda iç-görme ile ilgili konuşmaya baş vurur. Bununla birlikte, Augustinus bildiğimiz bir şeyi başka birine nasıl söylediğimizi açıklamakla ilgilendiğimizde, zihinsel süreçleri, bu zihinsel süreçler iç-konuşmamış gibi ele alır. Bilgiyi elde etmeye ve elde ettiğimiz bilgiyi başkalarına bildirmeye dair açıklamaları arasındaki benzerlik çarpıcıdır. Maddi dünyadaki bir şeyi gördüğümüzde ruhsal görmeye bir imge yaratılır. Bu imge daha sonra iç-görmeye sunulur. Bildiğimiz bir şeyi ifade ettiğimizde, bellekte depolanmış şeyden bir iç-sözcük meydana getirilir. O daha sonra dış-sözcük olarak dışa vurulur. *De Trinitate*'de iç-görme ve iç-konuşmanın iç-insanın farklı işlemleri olmadığı konusunda bizi uyarak yukarıda ifade ettiğimiz konudaki düşüncelerini toplu olarak açıklar: "Ve bununla birlikte, düşünceleri kalbin konuşmaları olarak çağırıldığımızda, buradan onların ayrıca görme eylemi olmadıkları sonucu çıkmaz. Doğru olduklarında görme eylemleri bilginin görülmesinden kaynaklanırlar. Çünkü beden aracılığıyla dışsal olarak gerçekleştirildiklerinde konuşma ve görme ayrı şeylerdir. Ancak içten düşündüğümüzde, tıpkı görme ve işitmenin bedensel görmeye karşılıklı olarak birbirinden ayrı iki şey olması gibi, ikisi bir şeydir. Görmek ve duymak zihinde aynı şeydir ve böylece, konuşma görülmemesine ama daha ziyade dışsal olarak

¹ De Trinitate XV, 12, 22.

² De Trinitate XV, 15, 25.

³ A.g.e., XV, 10, 19.

⁴ A.g.e., XV, 11, 20.

⁵ A.g.e., IX, 7, 12.

⁶ A.g.e., XV, 12, 22.

duyulmasına rağmen, iç-konuşmaların, yani düşüncelerin Tanrı tarafından görüldüğü fakat duyulmadığı Kutsal Kitap İncil tarafından söylenmektedir.”¹

İç-insan ve Dış-insan

Augustinus'un insanı iki yöne ayırdığı ortaya çıktı: İç-insan ve dış-insan. Birazdan da açıklayacağımız üzere, iç-insana birçok görevler yüklenmiştir. Fakat ona yüklenen özel görev, dış insanı korumakla görevlendirilmiş olmasıdır. Böylece insan organizmasının fiziksel varlığı iç-insana emanet edilmiştir. İç-insan bedensel duyular tarafından sağlanan ayrılmamış, inşa edilmemiş türlü türlü deneyimlerin karşılayıcısı olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. “Gördüğümüz şey 'bir şeyler karmaşasıdır’”² der *Soliloquia*'da. Aslında bunu söylemekle sanki I. Kant'ın kategorilerini önceden haber vermekte ve Kant'ın kategorilerinin işlevini iç-insana yüklemektedir. Çünkü iç-insanın ele alması gereken ham verilerin bulunduğunu ima ediyor gibidir. O dış-insanın duyularının iç-insanı bilgilendirdiğini ve dış-insanın bilgiden sorumlu olmadığını düşünür. Eğer dış-insanın deneyimleri her hangi bir şekilde dış-insan tarafından inşa edilseydi, bu durumda dış-insan en azından kısmen dış dünyanın bilgisinden sorumlu olurdu. Augustinus açıkça durumun böyle olmadığını iddia etmektedir. Duyumsama bilgi değildir. Dolayısıyla iç-insan bir bilgi karmaşasıyla karşı karşıyadır. Duyumsamaları anlamlı kılan ve bilgiye çeviren iç-insandır.

Epistolae'de geçen “çevre yalnızca, yoğunlaştırılmış ya da seyrekleştirilmiş, daraltılmış ya da genişletilmiş, küçük parçalara bölünmüş ya da büyük bir kütleyle genişletilmiş maddi özlerin bir niteliğidir,”³ tümcesi konumuz açısından son derece açıklayıcıdır. Çünkü iç-insanın dışımızdaki dünyayı varolduğu şekliyle inşa etmedeki işlevini açıkça ortaya koymaktadır.

Yalnız iç-insan dış dünyayı dış-insan üzerinden kurar ve bunun için de dış insana egemen olmalıdır. Bunun için de iç-insanla dış-insan arasındaki ilişkinin rasyonel bir ilişki olması gerekmektedir. *De Musica*'da “biz bir duyumsamayı tecrübe ettiğimizde iç-insanın maddi bir nesnenin bilgisine ulaşmasını tecrübe ediyoruz,”⁴ dediğinde iç-insanın yaşamsal dikkatinin tam işlevini ‘duyumsama’ olarak adlandırabiliriz. Başka bir yerde de “iç-insan bir tür yaşamsal dikkat yardımıyla bedende meydana gelen olaylardan haberdardır”⁵ sözleriyle iç-insanın söz konusu işlevine işaret eder. İç-insanın dış-insana egemenliğini vurgular, Ona göre, “iç-insan bedende olup bitenden haberdar olmalıdır çünkü böyle bir farkındalık olmadığında beden işlev bozukluğundan muzdarip olur ve ölü.”⁶ Ancak burada dikkat edilmesi gereken nokta, dış insanın iç-insan olmadan hayatta kalamamasına koşut olarak, iç-insanın da dış insan olmaksızın varolamayacağıdır.

Yukarıdaki alıntılar bize iç-insanın dış-insan için neleri yerine getirdiğini anlamak ve açıklamak konusunda yeterli ipucu vermektedir. Öncelikle amaç bedenini kendi varlığını temin etmektir ve sonra da çevrenin düzenini koruyacak şekilde çevreyle etkileşimde bulunmasını sağlamaktır. İç-insan dış-insanın çevresindeki fiziki tehlikeleri bertaraf etmesini sağlar ve ayrıca duyumsamanın nesnelere karşı aşırı tutkulu olmasını ve mutlak doğrulardan ayrılmasını engeller. Çünkü daha önce de ifade ettiğimiz gibi, mutlak doğruların bilgisini elde eden iç-insandır ve dış-insana egemen olması nedeniyle elde ettiği bu doğruları dış-insana dikte eder.

İç-insan ibareleri ve kendini bilmenin epistemolojisi

İç-insan ibarelerinin insanın kendisini, Tanrı'yı ve dış dünyayı bilmek için birer açıklayıcı araç olarak kullanıldıklarını daha önce söyledik. Kendini bilmek denen şey gerçekte nedir? Kendim hakkında gerçekte neyi bilebilirim? diye bir soruyu sorduğumuzda, kendimiz hakkında Burt'un ifadeleriyle şunları keşfederiz:

“1- Kendimi var olan, düşünen, kendimin dışında olduğu gözükken bireysel maddi şeylerin, yani benim parçam olmayan şeylerin algısına sahip bir varlık olarak biliyorum.

2- Duyularımın nesnelere, bu masanın sertliğini, bu odanın duvarlarının rengini vs. algılıyorum.

3- Maddi dünyaya ilişkin geçmiş tecrübelerin ve tarihimizi oluşturan geçmiş olayların anılarına sahibim. Ayrıca salt soyut olayları hatırlayabilirim. Sözgelimi, bir geometri probleminin çözümü, mantıklı bir terimin tanımı.

¹ A.g.e., XV, 10, 18.

² Soliloquies II, 6, 11.

³ Epistolae 137, 2, 4.

⁴ De Musica VI, 5, 9-10.

⁵ Epistolae 122, 2.

⁶ De Genesi Ad Litteram III, 5, 9-10.

4- Maddi dünyanın geçmiş tecrübelerini birleştirme sonucu oluşturulan tasavvurlara sahibim. Bu nedenle at ile insan imgelerini birleştirmek suretiyle bir 'insan başlı atın' neye benzediğini tasavvur edebilirim. Ayrıca daha önceden bilinen figürlerden ve kanıtlardan yeni fikirler ve kanıtlar keşfetmeme izin veren yaratıcı imgelemelere sahibim.

5- Salt 'soyut' şeylerin ayırındalığına sahibim, örneğin, adalet düşüncesi, mutlak normlar olarak iyilik, adil eylemler olarak düşündüğüm şeyin karşıtı düşünceler, 'iyi' olarak isimlendirdiğim insanlar.

6- Yargılar oluşturduğumun ve böylece gerçek dünya üzerine düşüncelerimi zihinsel olarak ilişkilendirdiğimin ayırındayım. Sözelimi, 'Sarah, Mary'nin kızkardeşidir', 'insan akıllı bir hayvandır.' Ayrıca salt soyut konularla ilgili yargılar oluşturuyorum. Örneğin, üçüncü şeye eşit olan iki şey birbirine eşittir. Bu yargılardan bazıları sadece kesin olarak doğru değildir; onlar zorunlu olarak doğrudur, yani onlar sadece bu dünyada değil, fakat ayrıca mümkün her dünyada doğru olmalıdır."¹

Augustinus'un klasik 'kendini bil' öğüdünü, kendisini bilme konusunda zihne yapılmış bir öğüt olarak yorumladı gözüküyor. O böyle bir incelemeye neyin neden olduğuna ilişkin pek bir şey söylemezken, zihnin kendisini bilme konusunda neden başarısız kaldığını sormadan edemez. Hiçbir şey zihne kendisinden daha yakın değildir. Zihin sadece kendini değil başka zihinleri de merak edebilir. Matthews'e göre, Augustinus diğer zihinleri bilme sorununu, Diğer Zihinlerle Benzerliğe Dayalı Kanıt diye adlandırılan bir kanıt ile açıklar: "Çünkü bize benzerliğinden dolayı bedenlerin kendileri sayesinde başkalarının bizimle birlikte yaşadığını fark ediyoruz. Tıpkı yaşam esnasında kendi bedenimizi hareket ettirmemiz gibi diğer bedenlerin hareket ettiğini anlıyoruz. Çünkü yaşayan bir beden hareket ettirildiğinde gözlerle görülmeyen bir şey olan zihni görmemizin bize uygun hiçbir yolu yoktur. Ancak benzer şekilde bedenimizi hareket ettirmek için bizde bulunan şey gibi bir şeyin bu bedende bulunduğunu algılıyoruz; bu şey yaşam ve ruhtur. Böyle bir algılama, bir bakıma insan sağduyusu ya da akla özgü bir şey de değildir. Çünkü gerçekte arılar da bizim gibi sadece kendilerini değil fakat birbirlerini ve başkalarını da canlı olarak algırlarlar. Onlar vücudumuzun hareketleri dışında ruhlarımızı görmezler ve bedenimizin hareketlerini bir tür doğuştan uzlaşma türü nedeniyle görürler. Doğrudan ve çok basitçe görürler. Dolayısıyla biz herhangi bir kişinin zihnini hiçbir biçimde kendi zihnimizden bilmeyiz ve biz kendi durumumuz nedeniyle bilmediğimiz bu zihne inanırız. Çünkü biz sadece bir zihni algılamıyoruz, fakat ayrıca kendimizinkini düşünmek suretiyle bir zihnin ne olduğunu da biliyoruz; çünkü biz bir zihne sahibiz."²

Augustinus insan zihninin bu niteliği için hayvanlardan örnek vermesine rağmen bu iki varlık arasındaki farkın da bilincindedir. "Onun bu konuda diğer zihinlerle benzerliğe dayalı kanıtın 'işlevsel eşdeğerini' hayvanlara atfetmesi ilginçtir. O elbette böyle hayvanların 'başka zihinler vardır' sonucuna kendilerini ulaştıran bir usullama sürecinden geçtiklerini düşünmez. Ancak o, onların belli bir doğal uyum ya da uzlaşma sayesinde bizim ruhlarımızı ve diğer hayvanların ruhlarını algılama yetisine sahip olduklarını düşünür. Sözü geçen uzlaşma onların ruhları ile diğer ruhlar arasındaki bir uzlaşmadır."³

İnsanlar başka zihinleri bilebilirler, ancak onlar içinde olup biteni bilebilirler mi? "O tipik bir şekilde diğer zihinlerde neyin bulunduğunu bilme konusunda çekimserdir. Başkalarının dile getirdiği sözlerin aslını araştırdığında o, onların düşüncelerini belirleme konusunda iyi niyet ilkesini kullanmamız gerektiğini söyler. Aslında o, okuyucularının, *İtiraf*'da yazdığı şeyin, onun kendi içinde sahip olduğu şeyin, doğru bir açıklaması olup olmadığını bilemeyeceğini ilave eder. Onları kendisine inanmaya sevk eden şeyin sadece onların iyi niyetleri olduğunu söyler."⁴

Şimdi tekrar iç-insan (iç-ben) ibarelerine dönebiliriz. Augustinus'un bu ibareleri birçok kitabında farklı amaçlarla kullandığı görünüyor. Augustinus neden böyle ibarelere ihtiyaç duyar? Daha önce de belirttiğimiz gibi, "duyular tarafından sağlanan bilgi akıl tarafından yargılanıncaya dek bilgi olamaz. Algıdan akla doğru olan süreçte birkaç ara aşamanın bulunması gerektiğini Augustinus kabul eder. Duyu algısı süreci duyulardan gelen bilginin doğrudan akla gönderilmesine basitçe izin veremeyecek ölçüde karmaşıktır. Bu boşluğu kapatmak amacıyla Augustinus işlevleri kendisi için de tam olarak açık olmayan iç-insan ibarelerine başvurur."⁵ İç-insan ibarelerinin bu ara aşamayla ilgili olmasına ilaveten ona başka görevler de yüklenektir. Öyle anlaşılıyor ki iç-insan ibareleri Augustinus için büyük bir açıklayıcı güce sahiptir.

İç-insan ibareleriyle ilgili en belirgin ve önemli kullanım *De Beata Vita* (Mutlu Yaşam Üzerine)'de geçen şu metindir: "Kutsal güneş mükemmel ışığını en iç yerimize akıtır. Bizim dillendirdiğimiz tüm hakikat onun hakikatidir. Endişemiz içindeki tüm tereddüde rağmen cesaretle onun ışığına dönmek ve onu tam olarak kabul etmek gerekir, çünkü daha yeni açılmış

¹ Donald X. Burt, *Augustine's World*, University of America, London, 1996, s. 84.

² Matthews, a.g.e., s. 178-179.

³ A.g.e., s. 179.

⁴ A.g.e., s. 179.

⁵ Ronald H. Nash, *The Light of Mind*, St. Augustines Theory of Knowledge, Ohio 2003, s. 73.

gözlerimiz yeterince güçlü değildir. Bu ışığın Tanrı olduğu gözükmemektedir.¹ *İtiraflar*'da da bu metnin benzeri bir metinle karşılaşırız: "Bununla birlikte Tanrımı severken bir çeşit ışık, bir çeşit ses, bir çeşit koku, bir çeşit yiyecek ve bir çeşit kucaklaşma sevmiş olurum; şöyle ki, Tanrı bendeki iç-insan için bir ışık, bir ses, bir koku, bir yiyecek, bir kucaklaşmadır."²

Bubacz'a göre, *Mutlu Yaşam Üzerine*'den alınan yukarıdaki pasajın ima ettiği iki şeyden bahsedebiliriz: "Augustinus bir iç güneş tarafından aydınlatılmış bir şeyi henüz tam olarak değerlendirebilecek güce sahip olmayan gözlerden bahsetmektedir. Tanrı'yı doğruluğun kaynağı ve yaşamın doğru rehberi olarak alan bu bağlamda onun böylesi gözlerle ilişkin tartışması erken dönemde dahi okuyucusunu doğruyu araştırmaya teşvik etmek için iç-insan ibaresinin bir türünü kullandığına işaret eder. İçte parlayan bir ışığın anlama ve bilgi üzerinde parlaması önemlidir. Bu, aydınlanma öğretisinden erken dönem söz ediliştir ve Augustinus'un bu pasajın önemini farkında olmadığını düşünmek için nedenler vardır. Çünkü bir ay sonra o mutlak doğruların unutulmadan ve zihin tarafından yapılan incelemelerden elde edildiğini yazacaktır (Platoncu anımsama kuramına çok yakın bir düşünce). Daha sonra Augustinus aydınlanma lehine Platoncu hatırlama kuramını reddedecektir. Bu aydınlanma, apriori bilginin iç-ışıklar ve iç-görmelerle daha uyumlu bir açıklamasıdır. Alıntı ile ilgili ikinci husus ise, Hakikati Tanrı'nın zihnine yerleştirmekle Augustinus bilgi felsefesi ve ahlâkın birbirine yakından bağlı olduğuna dair önemli düşüncesi için bir zemin oluşturmuştur."³

İtiraflar'dan aldığımız alıntıya gelince, Augustinus burada sanki insanın kalbini anlatmaktadır. Bu pasajda iç-insan, Tanrı'nın insanla iletişim kurduğu bir yetiye göndermede bulunuyor gibidir ve ilk pasajın aksine Augustinus buradaki kullanımının farkında gibi gözükmemektedir. Bu pasaj benzeri bir pasaja da *De Continentia*'da (İlmlilik Üzerine) ve *Sermones* (Vaazlar)'de rastlıyoruz: "Ağızdan çıkan bir şeyi duyduğunda kalbinden anla. Ben her ikisini de söylüyorum, ancak birini açıklamak için diğerini kullanıyorum. İç-insan bir iç-ağıza sahiptir ve iç-kulak onu duyar."⁴ Bir kişi kalbiyle övgüde bulunduğu iç-insanın sesiyle övgüde bulunur."⁵

Yukarıdaki yorumlarımızı destekleyen bir pasaja da *De Magistro* (*Öğretmen Üzerine*)'da rastlıyoruz: "Tanrı akıllı ruhun iç-insan diye isimlendirilen gizli bölmelerinde aranmalıdır."⁶ Bu kitap Augustinus ile oğlu Adeodatus arasındaki bir konuşmanın yazıya dökülmüş biçimidir. Bu kitap birkaç nedenle önemlidir. Önce, o gelişmekte olan bilgi felsefesinin özel iç yetileri ve iç nesnelere daha sık kullanması gereğini ortaya koyar. Bu kitabın diğer önemli özelliği ise apriori bilginin ilk defa burada ele alınmasıdır. Son olarak, Augustinus burada yeni bir iç-insan ibaresini kullanır: İç-konuşma. O burada, "Bir ses çıkardığımızda bile, sözcükleri düşünmemiz nedeniyle, zihinle konuşuruz,"⁷ diyerek ibarenin ne olduğuna ilişkin ipuçları verir. İç konuşma ibaresi onun bilinçli eylem ve iletişime ilişkin incelemesi açısından önemlidir. Bu zihin içinde konuşma eyleminin Tanrı-insan ilişkisinde de önemli olduğunu göreceğiz.

Bazı kitaplarındaki kullanım ise iç-insan ibaresinin zihne işaret ettiğini gösterir. *Üçleme Üzerine*'de geçen şu pasaj bunu açıkça ifade eder: "Kendi içine in, gizemli yerine, zihnine git."⁸ Zihinle ulaşılan şeylere nasıl ulaştığımızı açıklamak için o yine bir iç yetiyi başvurur. "Akıl zihnin gözüdür ve zihin bedeninin yardımı olmaksızın onun yardımıyla doğruları kavrar."⁹ Augustinus burada iç-görme kavramına geçer ve zihinle görmeyi iç-görme olarak da niteler. Aynı kitapta o, "Akıl, zihnin bedeninin yardımı olmaksızın, kendisi sayesinde kavradığı doğruları görmesidir,"¹⁰ der. Burada iç-görmenin nesnelere zihnin oluşturduğu imgeler, apriori bilgi ve Tanrı'nın bilgisi oluşturmaktadır. Burada artık zihne epistemolojik bir ödev yüklenmeye başlandığı gözüküyor. *Ruhun Nitelikleri Üzerine*'de geçen şu pasaj bu son durumu açıklamak açısından önemlidir: "Akıl diye isimlendirdiğimiz şey, zihnin görmesi, bilgi diye isimlendirdiğimiz bazı şeyleri görür. Ancak o, zihin görmediğinde bakışını yoğunlaştırırsa bile, bu görmeme bilgisizlik diye isimlendirilir."¹¹

Augustinus tüm bu ibareleri kullanırken onların nesnelere ilişkilerini göz önünde bulundurur. Örneğin, *Retractiones* (Geriye Bakışlar)'de "Bedensel duyu sayesinde değil de zihin tarafından kavranan ilmi kapsamayı arzu eden kişi nasıl bir

¹ Augustinus, *De Beata Vita* 4, 35.

² *İtiraflar*, s. 222.

³ Bubacz, a.g.e., s. 13.

⁴ Augustinus, *De Continentia* II, 4.

⁵ *Sermones* 257, 1.

⁶ *De Magistro* I, 2.

⁷ A.g.e I, 2.

⁸ *De Trinitate* X, 8, 11.

⁹ Augustinus, *De Immortalitate Animae* VI, 10.

¹⁰ A.g.e VI, 10.

¹¹ *De Quantitate Animae* 27, 53.

şey olmalıdır,¹ diye sorar. Bu soru, “Zihin yardımıyla anlaşılın şeyler, zihinde var olan şeyler olarak anlaşılır”² şeklindeki pasajda geçen ‘zihinde var olan şeyler’ kavramıyla yakından ilgilidir. Çünkü iç-görmenin nesnelere zihinsel şeylerdir. Bu iç görme ayrıca, insanın apriori bilgiye sahip olmasını açıklamada da kullanılır. Bunun için *Soliloquies* (İç Konuşmalar)’de geçen şu pasajı verebiliriz: “Akıl sana konuşur ve güneşin gözle görülmesi gibi zihinle Tanrı’yı görmene izin vereceğini sana vaat eder. Zihnin kendi gözleri vardır. Bilginin kesin doğruları güneş tarafından görünür kılınan nesnelere benzeri şeylerdir.”³

O, yukarıda sözünü ettiğimiz iç-insan ve zihinsel nesnelere bakımından zihnin bedende nasıl bulunduğunu açıklar. Ona göre, “Zihin uzamsal bir tarzda beden içinde yer almaz. Zihin, ciğer ya da başka bir organın beden içinde bulunması gibi bedenimiz içinde bulunmaz. O, el ya da ayağın beden bir parçası olması gibi beden bir parçası da değildir. Zihin, sağlık ya da yaşın bedende var olması tarzında bedende var olur. Bir zihne sahip olmak insan bedenleri için doğrudur. Bununla birlikte o, sağlığın beden bir parçası olmasından daha çok beden bir parçası değildir.”⁴

Augustinus “Hakikat iç-insanda yaşar,”⁵ ifadesini kullandığında artık bu ibarenin bilgi felsefesiyle ilişkisini kurmuş olur. Ancak Nash’in ifadeleriyle söylersek, “İç-insan hem bedensel duyarlar tarafından algılanan nesnelere ve hem de bedensel duyuyla algılanmasına rağmen, algıladığı şeyi akli ölçütlere göre yargılayamaz. Çünkü akıl hem duyarları ve hem de iç-insanı yargılar ve her ikisine de üstündür.”⁶

Katz, “İç-insan ibarelerini genel anlamıyla kelimesi kelimesine kabul etmemeyi öneriyorum,”⁷ diyerek iç-insan ibarelerinin belirsizliğine ve kullanım çokluğuna işaret etmek ister. Diğer yandan, “iç-insan, iç-konuşma, iç-duyma gibi ibarelerin metafiziksel dualizm için delil olduğu iddia edilmiştir.”⁸ “Onbeş yüzyıl önce, dilsel fenomenalizmin keşfedildiği ve idealizmin ortaya çıktığı dönemde Augustinus epistemik açıklamayı gerektiren fenomenin temelde ve indirgenemez olarak içsel olduğunu düşündü. Zamanın belli bir kesitinin farkında olmak, maddi nesnelere ilişkin bilgimiz, geçmişin anıları, zorunlu doğrulara dair anlamalarımız, hepsi içseldir.”⁹ Platoncular’dan aldığı etkiyi göz önünde bulundurarak bu ibarelere baktığımızda, “Onun araştırmasının nihai amacı Yeni Platonculuğu kullanan bir Hristiyanlıktır. Ruhsal olanla maddi gerçeklikler arasındaki ilişkiye dair onun açıklaması hem Aziz Paul ve hem de Cicero ve Plotinus gibi Yeni Platoncular tarafından etkilenmiştir. Bu iki gerçeklik, Augustinus’un hem bir iç ve hem de bir dış yöne sahip olarak incelediği insanda birleştirilmiştir.”¹⁰

Dualizmi benimsemesine rağmen içselden yana tavır olan Augustinus’un, bilgi felsefesi içinde dışsalı da ihmal etmediğini biliyoruz. O, iç-insana karşılık dış-insan ibaresini geliştirerek iç-insan kullanımını daha belirginleştirmeyi dener. Dış-insanın da çeşitli işlevleri vardır. “O, ruh tarafından kullanılır. Bir insan bedene sahip olan ve bu bedeni kullanan akıllı bir ruhtur. Onun iki temel kullanımı vardır. O maddi şeylerin algılanmasından sorumludur. Onun duyarları zihne mesajlar yollar ve iç-insanın kendisi sayesinde bir şeyi değerleriyle ilişkilendirdiği araçları sağlar.”¹¹

De Trinitate’de Augustinus dış-insan ibaresi hakkında daha kapsamlı ve somut açıklamalar yapar: “Dış-insan bedene yaşam verir. Dış-insan sadece beden değildir, o ayrıca insanın hayvanlarla paylaştığı tüm özellikleri ve yetileri de içerir. Dış-insan bedeni, beden duyarlarını ve bedeni canlı tutmak için yerine getirilmesi gereken koşulların hepsini içerir.”¹² Nash bu yetiyi bir içgüdüye benzetir. Nash’a göre, “öyle ya da böyle, maddi nesnelere bedensel duyu üzerinde bir etki meydana getirir. Augustinus bundan daha fazlasının meydana geldiğine inanıyor. Algılanan nesne duyu organını etkilediğinde gözlerdeki görme duyası iç-duyuyu haberdar eder. İç-duyu daha sonra doğrudan akli bilgilendirir. Sıradan duyarların her şeyi kendisine aktardığı bir çeşit iç-duyu vardır. Bu duyu ne görme, ne duyma, ne koku alma, ne tatma ve ne de dokunma duyası olarak isimlendirilir. Ancak o tüm diğer duylardan sorumlu olan başka bir duyudur. Bu duyu akıl sayesinde kavramımıza rağmen, onu yine de akıl olarak isimlendiremeyiz. Çünkü hayvanlar da ona sahiptir. Bu içgüdü sadece

¹ Augustinus, *Retractiones I*, 41.

² *De Immortalitate Animae VI*, 10.

³ *Soliloquies I*, 6, 12.

⁴ *De Trinitate X*, 7, 10; *De Trinitate IX*, 3, 3.

⁵ *De Vera Religione XXXIX*, 72.

⁶ Nash, a.g.e., s. 73.

⁷ Katz, *Memory and Mind, An Introduction to Augustines Epistemology*, Spring Hill College, s. 9.

⁸ Matthews, “The Inner-Man”, *American Philosophical Quarterly*, 1967.

⁹ Bubacz, a.g.e., s. 19.

¹⁰ A.g.e., s. 19.

¹¹ A.g.e., s. 21.

¹² *De Trinitate XII*, 1, 1.

duyulardan gelen verileri algılamaz, ayrıca duyuların kendilerini de algılar. O hangi şeylerin hangi duyuya ait olduğunu ve hangi şeylerin farklı duyulara ait olduğunu ayırt eder.”¹

Bubacz ise dış-insanın işlevlerinin hatırlama yetisine kadar yayıldığını düşünür. Ona göre, “Dış-insan ayrıca maddi nesnelere algılanmasında kullanılan beş bedensel duyuyu içermektedir. Bedenin duyu organları maddi bir şeyi algıladığında, bir imgenin yarattığı yer olan zihne bir ileti gönderilir. İletinin imgesi zihinde depolanır ve biz belli maddi nesnelere hatırladığımızda bu imge hatırlanır. Bu hazırlama hâlâ dış-insana ait bir şeydir.”²

Bubacz’ın dış-insanı anlatmak için verdiği şu örnek, dış-insanı somutlaştırmamızı sağlamaktadır: “Çeşitli makineler yardımıyla canlı tutulan bir insanı düşünün. Bu makineler onları işlevsel kılmak amacıyla organlara destek olmaktadır: Kalbinin atmasını, ciğerlerinin nefes almasını ve böbreklerinin süzgeç görevini yerine getirmesini sağlayan makineler. Böyle bir makineye bağlı bir bedenin bir beyin okuyucuya başvurduğunu düşünün. Beynin etkinliğinin yokluğunda dahi beden en azından belli bir süre işlevselliğini sürdürecektir. Birazcık bilim-kurgu ilave edersek, bir kişiye yeni bir beyin nakledildiğini ve az çok normal bir şekilde yaşamını devam ettirdiğini düşünebiliriz. Bir bedenin işlevselliğini sürdürmesini sağlamak için bu makinelerin yaptığı her şey sağlıklı bir kişinin durumunda dış-insan tarafından yerine getirilmektedir.”³

Yukarıda anlattıklarımız içinde dış-insanın ruhla benzer bir şey olduğunu, ancak onun ruh olmadığını söylemiştik. Dış-insanla ruh arasında insan üzerindeki işlevleri açısından şu farklar vardır: “Ruh insana yaşama gücü verir. Dış insan yaşamaya için gerekli olan her şeyi bedene sağlar. Bedenin işlevsel kalması için yerine getirilmesi gereken bazı koşullar vardır. Dış-insan bu koşulları sağlar. İç-insan onun isteklerinin ve yetilerinin kullanımlarını yönlendirmek suretiyle bedenden yararlanır. Augustinus insanı ruhu ile özdeşleştirdiği için, görünen çelişki ortadan kalkmaktadır. Beden kendini canlı tutar, ruh ise insanı.”⁴

Augustinus’a göre iç-insanla dış-insan arasında bazı benzerlikler vardır. *De Trinitate*’de o bu benzerliğin öneminden söz eder: “Çünkü kendisi de iç-insanla bazı benzerliklere sahip olmazsa, dış-insan hiçbir şekilde bir insan olarak adlandırılmaz.”⁵ Bubacz’a göre, “Augustinus iç-insanın Tanrı’yı imgelemesiyle dış-insanın iç-insanı imgelemesi arasında bir benzerlik kurar. Bir insanın zihinsel olarak hesaba katılabilmesi için, zihin Tanrı’nın imgesi olmalıdır. Bu, ilk önce zihin yaratılmıştır ve sonra Tanrı’nın imgesinde olma niteliği ona verilmiştir anlamına gelmez. Daha çok, iç-insan önce Tanrı’nın imgesinde bulunmasaydı iç-insan ve dış-insan zincirlemesi bir insan olarak isimlendirilemezdi anlamına gelir. Çünkü Augustinus’a göre dış-insan iç-insanın imgesine göre yaratıldığı için, dış-insanı insan olarak adlandırmak yanlış değildir.”⁶

İç-insan ve dış-insanın birlikte çalışmasının bazı sonuçları vardır. *De Trinitate*’de Augustinus Tanrı’nın üçlülüğünün benzerliklerini araştırır ve Tanrı’nın üçlülüğünün iç-insandaki ve dış-insandaki yansımalarına ulaşır. Nash’ın yorumlarına bakılırsa, “burada o önce dış insan üçlemesi diye isimlendirdiği şeyi tartışır –yani, dış nesne, görme eylemi ve zihnin dikkati. Dış nesne olmaksızın duyumsama söz konusu olamaz. Fakat Augustinus ayrıca, dış nesne tarafından bilgilendirilen bir duyu olan gömeden (visio) bahseder. Görme eylemi üzerinden örneklenen görme, duyu ve dış nesnenin bileşimidir. Son olarak, Augustinus niyetten söz eder. Eğer duyu algısı meydana gelecekte zihnin iradesi duyu organını nesneye yönlendirmeli ve zihnin dikkatini nesne üzerinde yoğunlaştırmalıdır. Dış-insan üçlemesinin bu üç yönü önemli olmasına rağmen, Augustinus niyetin önemini vurgular. Son derece sağlıklı duyu organlarının bulunmasına rağmen hâlâ bu duyu organlarının algılamadığı fakat algılanabilir olan nesnelere sahip olmak mümkündür. Zihnin dikkati nesneye yoğunlaştırılmalıdır.”⁷ Dış-insan üçlemesinin iç-insanda bir karşılığı vardır ve daha önce de söylediğimiz gibi bunlar birbirinden bağımsız değildir. “Dış-insan üçlemesinin işbirliği iç-insan üçlemesini meydana getirir, yani hafızadaki imge, iç görme ve irade. Bu üç ögenin birlikte çalışmasından düşünce (cogitatio) meydana gelir. Maddenin fiziksel olarak algılanan biçimi tecrit edilse bile onun sureti iradenin tekrar bakışlarını çevireceği hafızada kaldığı için, duyunun algılanabilir maddenin varlığı tarafından oluşturulması gibi, o da bu şekilde içeriden oluşturulur. Böylece üçleme bellek, iç-görme ve bu ikisini birleştiren iradeden meydana gelir ve bu üç şey bir şey haline getirildiğinde, bu bileşimin kendisi nedeniyle onlar düşünce diye isimlendirilir.”⁸

¹ Nash, *a.g.e.*, s. 72.

² Bubacz, *a.g.e.*, s. 21.

³ *A.g.e.*, s. 21.

⁴ *A.g.e.*, 21.

⁵ *De Trinitate* XI, 1, 1; *De Trinitate* XIV, 10, 13.

⁶ Bubacz, *a.g.e.*, s. 13.

⁷ Nash, *a.g.e.*, s. 73-74.

⁸ *A.g.e.*, s. 74.

İç-insandan söz ettiğinde Augustinus çoğu kez mecazlara çok başvurur. İç-görme, iç-konuşma vs. kavramlar bilme sürecinden bahsetmektedir. Bedenin sahip olduğu gibi ayrı ve bağımsız duyu organlarına sahip olduğunu söylemek iç-insan için yanıltıcı olacaktır. İç-insan ve dış-insan kavramları epistemik sürecin bir parçasını teşkil etmektedir. Bu ibareler bilgi felsefesinin çeşitli yönlerini açıklamak amacıyla, nasıl yargıda bulunduğumuzu açıklamak ve yargılarımız üzerine bilgi vermek için kullanılmıştır. Bu nedenlerden belki de en önemlisi, Bubacz'ın ifadeleriyle, "Augustinus'un bilmeyi başarmanın kavramsal bir şemanın tecrübe karmaşası üzerine yüklenmesini içerdiğini kabul etmesidir. O halde bilgi açıklama (aydınlatma) sürecinin bir sonucudur."¹

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* Augustinus'un Latince yapıtları, J. P. Migne tarafından 1844-64'te Paris'de derlenen *Patrologia Latina* serisinden (cilt: 32-47) kaynak verilmiştir.

¹ Bubacz, a.g.e., s. 3.

