



ICRESH 2020

**International Conference on Recent Social Studies and
Humanities
(Online)**

Venue (online sessions coordinated at)

Faculdade Letras, Universidade Lisboa, Alameda da Universidade, 1600-214 Lisboa,
Portugal

Proceedings Book

ISBN 978-164970605-8



REVISTIA
PUBLISHING AND RESEARCH

ICRESH 2020
International Conference on Recent Social Studies and Humanities
(Online)

Proceedings Book
ISBN 978-1-64970-605-8

Venue (online sessions coordinated at)
Faculdade Letras, Universidade Lisboa, Alameda da Universidade, 1600-214 Lisboa, Portugal

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

Typeset by Revistia
Printed in Lisbon

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

Address: 11, Portland Road, London, SE25 4UF, United Kingdom
Tel: +44 2080680407
E-Mail: office@revistia.com

International Scientific and Advisory Board

Ewa Jurczyk-Romanowska, PhD - University of Wroclaw, Poland

M. Edward Kenneth Lebaka, PhD - University of South Africa (UNISA)

Sri Nuryanti, PhD - Indonesian Institute of Sciences, Indonesia

Basira Azizaliyeva, PhD - National Academy of Sciences, Azerbaijan

Federica Roccisano, PhD -

Neriman Kara - Signature Executive Academy UK

Thanapauge Chamaratana, PhD - Khon Kaen University, Thailand

Michelle Nave Valadão, PhD - Federal University of Viçosa, Brazil

Fouzi Abderzag, PhD

Agnieszka Huterska, PhD - Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń

Rudite Koka, PhD - Rīgas Stradiņa universitāte, Latvia

Mihail Cocosila, PhD - Athabasca University, Canada

Gjilda Alimhilli Prendushi, PhD -

Miriam Aparicio, PhD - National Scientific and Technical Research Council - Argentina

Victor V. Muravyev, PhD - Syktyvkar State University of Pitirim Sorokin, Russia

Charalampos Kyriakidis - National Technical University of Athens, Greece

Wan Kamal Mujani, PhD - The National Universiti of Malaysia

Maria Irma Botero Ospina, PhD - Universidad Militar Nueva Granada, Colombia

Mohd Aderi Che Noh, PhD - National University of Malaysia

Maleerat Ka-Kan-Dee, PhD

Frederico Figueiredo, PhD - Centro Universitário Una, Belo Horizonte, Brazil

Iryna Didenko, PhD - Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Ukraine

Carlene Cornish, PhD - University of Essex, UK

Sadegh Ebrahimi Kavari, PhD

Mohammed Mahdi Saleh, PhD - University of Jordan

Andrei Novac, MD - University of California Irvine, USA

Ngo Minh Hien, PhD - The University of Da Nang- University of Science and Education, Vietnam

Kawpong Polyorat, PhD - Khon Kaen University, Thailand

Haitham Abd El-Razek El-Sawalhy, PhD - University of Sadat City, Egypt

Ezzadin N. M.Amin Baban, PhD - University of Sulaimani, Sulaimaniya, Iraq

Ahmet Ecirli, PhD - Institute of Sociology, Bucharest, Romania

Dominika Pazder, PhD - Poznań University of Technology, Poland

Sassi Boudemagh Souad, PhD - Université Constantine 3 Salah Boubnider, Algérie

Lulzim Murtezani, PhD - State University of Tetovo, FYROM

Ebrahim Roumina, PhD - Tarbiat Modares University, Iran

Gazment Koduzi, PhD - University "Aleksander Xhuvani", Elbasan, Albania

Sindorela Doli-Kryeziu - University of Gjakova "Fehmi Agani", Kosovo

Nicos Rodosthenous, PhD - Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece

Irene Salmaso, PhD - University of Florence, Italy

Non Naprathansuk, PhD - Maejo University, Chiang Mai, Thailand

TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE AGRO EXPORTS OF ORGANIC NATIVE PRODUCTS AND ENVIRONMENTAL SECURITY IN PERU	7
EDELINA COAYLA YSABEL BEDÓN	
THE EFFECT OF CORRUPTION AND FDI ON THE ECONOMIC GROWTH IN ALBANIA: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS FROM 2002 TO 2019	21
TEUTA XHINDI KEVIN SHESTANI	
A COMBINED APPROACH INTERVENTION TO PROMOTE FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS’ INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE	33
KAROL CUBERO VÁSQUEZ	
COMPETITIVENESS OF TOURIST DESTINATIONS THEORETICAL STUDY OF THE MAIN MODELS ..	43
DIAMANTINO RIBEIRO PEDRO HENRIQUES LUIZ PINTO MACHADO	
EUROPEAN SCHOOL INTEGRATION PROCESS - THE CASE OF ALBANIA	62
VALBONA CINAJ BUKURIE KALLANXHI (HAXHIA)	
METH AND MURDER: THE VIOLENT SUCCESS OF DUTERTE’S WAR ON DRUGS	78
MARK LEE	
DETERMINANTS UNDERSCORING VOCATIONAL TRAINING: A SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE CASE	93
PETRONELLA JONCK	
STUDY CHANGES IN THE LEVEL OF MORAL FIGHTING BETWEEN MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS - A CASE STUDY MADRASA HAXHI MAHMUD DASHI AND QEMAL STAFA SECONDARY SCHOOL ..	108
FATIH UFUK BAĞCI	

**IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION PROCESSES AMONG ASIAN IMMIGRANT ENTREPRENEURS IN
POLAND. CASE STUDY BASED ON VIETNAMESE, CHINESE, INDIAN, SOUTH KOREAN, AND
FILIPINO GROUPS..... 126**

RENATA CZEKALSKA

ADAM W. JELONEK

The Agro Exports of Organic Native Products and Environmental Security in Peru

Edelina Coayla

Faculty of Economic Sciences· Universidad Nacional Federico Villarreal

Ysabel Bedón

Faculty of Administration Universidad Nacional Federico Villarreal

Abstract

The study objective is to analyze agro-exports of organic products and environmental security (certification) in Peru. Agro-exports are the second generator of foreign currency for Peru. The descriptive, comparative-graphical method and the polynomial curve are used. In 2019 traditional agro-exports and non-traditional agro-exports contributed 11% and 89% of total agro-exports respectively, the main markets were the United States (35%) and the Netherlands (15%). Peru is the world's leading exporter of native functional products (called superfoods) quinoa and maca. Quinoa is the most demanded native agro-export product internationally. It was found that during the period 2000-2019 the main Peruvian agro-exports of non-traditional products with a vertiginous growth are fruits and vegetables. For the year 2019, fruit agro-exports in terms of FOB value in millions of US \$ contribute 56% to the total of non-traditional agro-exports. The increase in fresh grapes, fresh blueberries and fresh avocados is remarkable. Environmental security in terms of the area for organic production affects 51% of agro-exports. Peru promotes organic production from the producer to the final consumer and the certification of organic products in the production, transformation and marketing processes.

Keywords: Agro exports, organic products, certification, environmental security

1. Introduction

In recent decades, the Peruvian agro-export sector is the second economic activity with the highest profitability after mining, with earnings from non-traditional exports multiplying almost eight times (Larrea, *et al.* 2018).

The first efforts to diversify exports of traditional products such as coffee, cacao, sugar and cotton began in the mid-1980s with the successful promotion of asparagus exports, in the 1990s it was accompanied by diversification across a wide range of other high-value products for export (World Bank Group, 2017).

Agro-exports are the second generator of foreign currency for Peru. Since the year 2000, its export figures have experienced an exponential increase of US\$ 700 million to US\$ 7 billion (trillion). Peru is known worldwide for its biodiversity, climatic zones allows in produce variety of high quality products, increasingly recognized by international markets, Europe is the second destination market for exports of fruit and vegetables, accounting for 37% of the total exported in 2019 (Blueberries Magazine, 2020).

The producers of quinoa the Puno region use local inputs and have limited access to providers of financial and technical assistance, in the region of Junin farmers enjoy greater access to these providers and answers more quickly to market changes / price (Mercado and Ubillus, 2017).

About 65% of national agriculture depends on native genetic resources, such as potatoes, corn, sweet potatoes, Andean grains (quinoa, kiwicha and kañiwa, tarwi or lupine), fruits (avocado, papaya, prickly pear, camu-camu, custard apple, custard, cocoon, cherry, sweet cucumber, etc.), roots (arracacha, yacón, maca), Andean tubers (oca, mashua, olluco), cacao, legumes (pallar, beans, pashullo) and various other crops (Lakkala *et al.*, 2019).

Peru is ready to implement plans to promote its range of superfoods with plans to increase exports of its ethnic and other agricultural products to the Middle East region in line with growing demand.

Peru has unique products in the world, from agricultural and artisan products to its gastronomy.

The range of Peruvian superfoods is classified into fruits and vegetables (aguaymanto, blueberries, artichokes, camu camu, custard apple, asparagus, pomegranate, passion fruit, guanabana, lúcuma, mandarin, avocado and grapes), grains (cacao, chestnut, sweet potato), cañihua, chia, amaranth, maca, purple corn, quinoa, sacha inchi, yacón and yuca), and seafood (anchovy, eel, tuna, bonito, mackerel, squid, scallops, horse mackerel, shrimp, mahi-mahi, hake, paiche, cuttlefish and trout). At the Asia Fruit Logistics 2020 Fair to be held from September 16 to 18 in Singapore, through PROMPERÚ, various Peruvian companies negotiate organic products. In Biofach 2020, the main fair of organic products in the world, aguaymanto, cacao, coffee, camu camu, chestnut, ginger, kiwicha, quinoa, lúcuma, maca and sacha inchi were exhibited, promoted under the Super Foods Peru brand, highlighting the nutritional properties that benefit its consumers.

Literature review

Peru's rich biodiversity distinguishes it as a provider of superfoods, such as cacao and chia seeds, but also lesser-known native crops such as lucuma, a tropical fruit known as the "gold of the Incas", sacha inchi, also known as the "Inca peanuts", camu camu, a powerful source of vitamin C, and other Andean grains such as kiwicha and cañihua o kañiwa. Peru launched the Superfoods brand at the Fruit Logistica trade fair in Germany in February 2017 aimed at highlighting quality, variety and its benefits for consumers (Oxford Business Group, 2018).

According to Legal Team Peru (2019), Peru and Bolivia export quinoa, the health benefits of the superfood include high levels of protein and it contains all the essential amino acids.

The aguaymanto or *Physalis peruviana* (golden berries or Inca berries), are another superfood from Peru, the fruit is receiving worldwide attention for its high levels of antioxidants. In Peru, aguaymanto is produced in the Ancash, La Libertad, Cajamarca, Lambayeque, Ayacucho, Lima, Junín, Huánuco and Cusco regions and is exported to the European market and the United States, where demand is growing. Camu Camu or *Myrciaria dubia*, a fruit native to the Amazon rainforest located in Peru, is a promising super food in world markets, Peru is the largest exporter of camu camu, common export destinations include Japan, USA, USA, Italy and other European countries (Legal team Peru, 2019).

Higuchi and Dávalos (2016) identified two segments of consumers of organic products in Lima Metropolitana, central –level and midlevel who buy organic food because they are healthiers, for best flavor or cooler than the product standard is and the environmental safeguards, additionally the central level segment exhibits greater preferences for sensory, quality and learning of organic attributes; also evidence rum that educational attainment increases the probability of being an organic consumer midlevel .

In Peru, the boom in agricultural exports has changed from traditional crops (coffee and cotton) to agribusinesses non - traditional and has left room for small farmers to enter the sector traditional agro-industrial like the *Gossypium Barbadosense* native cotton on the north coast of Peru, part of the pre-Inca Moche indigenous culture supported by Law No. 29224 of 2008, affirming native cotton as the country's genetic, ethnic and cultural heritage. Pisani *et al.*, (2015) argue that the revival of the Peruvian native cotton is an opportunity to generate income for the small farmers.

Today, Peru has a high biodiversity, to develop various crops native of interest in the international market (Correa *et al.*, 2017).

Compared to international competitors Peru has had the fastest evolution in agro-exports of fruit and vegetables from 2004 to 2016, surpassing China and India and in the region to Mexico and Chile have grown much less (Zegarra, 2019), also found that a higher educational level of farmers in agro-export zones increases export survival capacity, that greater access to credit has a negative (unexpected) effect in increasing the risk of stopping exporting , in addition, agro- exports of the coast they have greater survival capacity (climatic advantages, agriculture under irrigation, transportation) than the mountains and jungle.

The native species of bio-commerce are being valued with innovative techniques that will improve their production and are friendly to the environment, in itself, has fostered good agricultural practices and the conservation of species and ecosystems (De la Cruz, 2015).

In recent years, organic products, many of them called superfoods, have become very important in the global consumer's diet.

Before exporting to Portugal, it must be ensured that organic certification is harmonized with EU legislation, otherwise the product will not be recognized as organic in Europe (MINCETUR, 2013).

According to the International Trade Center (ITC, 2015), Peru has managed to become the world's leading provider of asparagus and quinoa, and the world's third largest provider of fresh cranberries and avocado.

Asmat-Campos et al. (2019) propose to increase the agro export of dehydrated lucuma that would be processed using an innovative technique (equipment) of solar dehydration that preserves the organoleptic properties of the fruit, while reducing production costs and additionally reducing CO2 emissions.

From a human or national security perspective, environmental security is a concept intended to give greater importance to environmental change issues that already apparent in the politicization of nature inherent in the emergence of political ecology from the 1990s (Hough, 2019).

The desire to increase productivity and yields of agriculture has led historically to environmental degradation, reduced biodiversity and limitations to ecosystem services, with the greatest impacts on the poor. Food security must be increased in a sustainable way and resilient to climate change, while also reducing greenhouse gas emissions, alleviating poverty and conserving biodiversity (Poppy *et al.*, 2014).

Environmental security reflects the ability of a nation or a society to resist scarcity of environmental assets, environmental risks, or adverse changes related to the environment (Belluck *et al.*, 2006).

According to Miner (2019) it is possible to preserve forests through trees reforestation, minimizing the consumption of meat and palm oil, choosing sustainable coffee and cacao cultivation. Mountain ecosystems may be strengthened by replanting native grass and trees. The negative impacts of climate change in South America can be prevented by increasing the sustainability of human land use practices.

Sustainable coffee certification has been a hallmark of Peruvian coffee production, including certified organic coffee since 1989 with OCIA and since 1994 with Fair Trade. A significant proportion of Peruvian cocoa is also certified for export. A 2013 Rainforest Alliance survey found that certified farmers reported better management and organization, increased access to education and training, and improvements in soil and biodiversity (International Trade Center, 2015).

Justification and importance:

The topic is justified because since 10,000 years ago the ancient Peruvians accumulated important knowledge about the uses and properties of native species, and today, the world market demands healthy and nutritious food.

It is important to generate more currency pair to Peru exporting native organic products in green markets that contribute to the welfare of consumers in the world and also promote sustainable use of the resources native Peruvians and the (security) environmental sustainability.

General objective

Analyze the relationship between agro-exports of native organic products and environmental security in Peru

Specific objectives

Find out which native products have the highest international demand

Determine the status of the agricultural exports of the super - food and environmental safety (certification)

Methodology

Non-experimental, descriptive and explanatory research.

Temporal and spatial scope:

The study includes the agro-export of organic Peruvian native products and security environment in Peru (2000-2019)

Universe: agro-exports of organic products, unit of analysis: native product

Materials:

Information sources: Specialized magazines and journals on agro-exports and environmental impact.

Statistics of the Ministry of Foreign Trade and Tourism -MINCETUR, PROMPERÚ, INEI.

Software: Excel

Data collection techniques: Secondary information, PROMPERÚ, BCRP, PRODUCE

Process:

First, the characteristics of the agro-exportations of native Peruvian products and environmental security have been reviewed.

Second, the relationship between agro-exports of native organic products and environmental security in Peru is studied.

Third, the contribution of organic products to non-traditional agro-exports is analyzed. The certification of organic products, environmental security and Peruvian economic development are also addressed.

The polynomial curve and agro-export approaches are used.

Results

In this section, the main products of Peruvian agro-exports are comparatively analyzed and then we review the progress in the certification of organic products as an environmental safety factor.

4.1. Comparative analysis of Peruvian agro-exports

In 2017, 94% of traditional Peruvian agro-exports were Coffee (86%) and Sugar (8%), and more than 50% of Non-Traditional agro-exports were mainly Grape (13%), Avocado (12%), Asparagus (11%), Blueberry (7%), Mango (5%) and Cacao (5%) (PromPerú, 2017).

The exports of functional products and of the biocommerce in the year 2017 represented the 5% of the participation of the whole of the agricultural exports non-traditional with growth of 16%, compared to the 2016 by increasing the exports of quinoa grain, sauces quinoa, maca powder, giant corn snacks, and roasted sacha inchi to the United States and South Korea. Peru has been positioned in the exports of quinoa and maca (1st place at level worldwide) and nuts from Brazil without shell (2nd place at level worldwide). The main destinations of the products functional and of the biocommerce during the 2017 were the United States (33%), Korea of the South (14%), Spain (7%), Netherlands (5%) and Canada (5%); the which had one variation of -2%, + 1208%, + 18%, -16% and + 11%, respectively. At the highest increase in exports to South Korea stand out the nut of Brazil and the sacha inchi toasted (PromPeru, 2017).

For 2019 traditional agro-exports contributed 11% and non-traditional agro-exports 89% of total agro-exports (table 1), the main markets were the United States (35%), the Netherlands (15%), Spain (6%) and the United Kingdom (5%). They highlighted the increase in fresh blueberries, fresh grapes and fresh avocados. Of the functional products, quinoa in grains stands out (PromPerú, 2019).

Table 1. Agro-exports contribution of traditional and non-traditional products, Peru 2000-2019

Año	% traditional products agro-exports/Total Agro-exports	% non-traditional products agro-exports/Total Agro-exports
2000	38.7	61.3
2001	32.2	67.8
2002	28.2	71.8
2003	26.4	73.6
2004	28.9	71.1
2005	24.7	75.3
2006	32.0	68.0
2007	23.3	76.7
2008	26.4	73.6
2009	25.8	74.2
2010	30.7	69.3
2011	37.3	62.7
2012	26.2	73.8
2013	18.6	81.4
2014	16.7	83.3
2015	14.1	85.9
2016	15.7	84.3
2017	13.8	86.2
2018	11.4	88.6
2019	10.9	89.1

Source: BCRP, Prepared by the authors

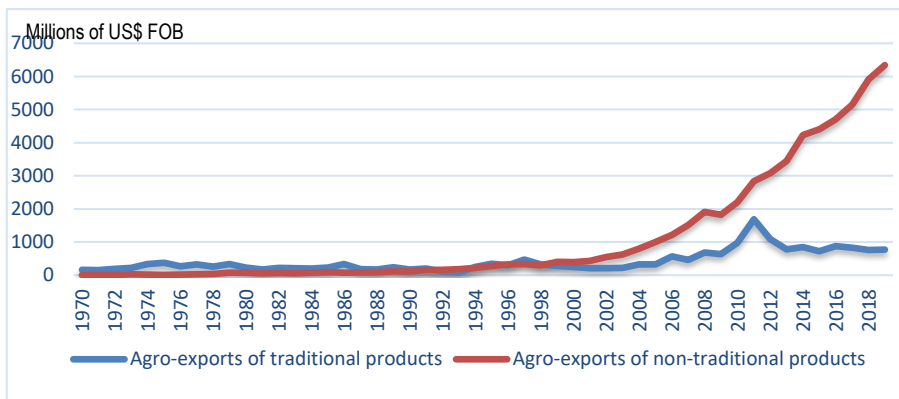
According to International Monetary Fund (2020: 38) in the last two decades, Peru has experienced an agro-export boom, while the exports of mining, oil and gas still accounts for about 2/3 of total exports and 22 percent of GDP, the agricultural exports have expanded dramatically, reaching US \$ 6 billion or 2.7 percent of GDP in 2019 from 0.4 percent in 2001.

Seasonal exports to the northern hemisphere of high-value fresh fruits and vegetables (mainly grapes, avocados, blueberries and asparagus) total \$ 2.5 billion or 1.2 percent of GDP. Exports

of other products (including citrus, bananas, cacao and pomegranates) are also increasing rapidly.

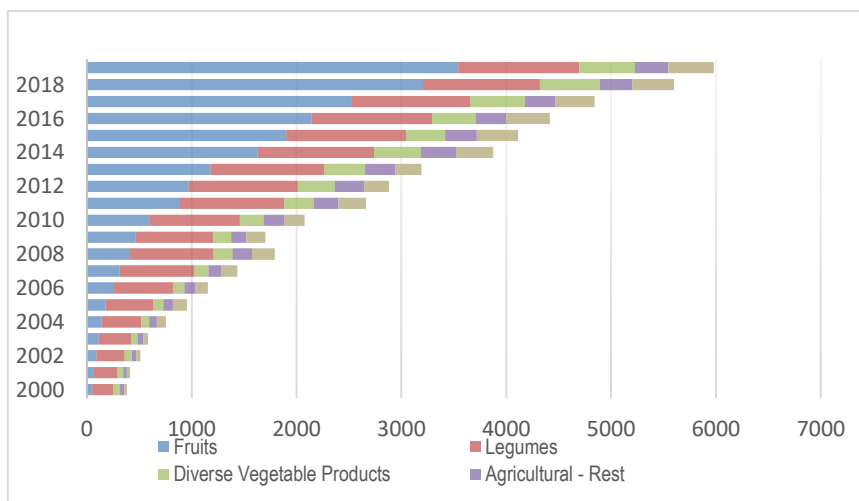
Traditional agriculture is labor-intensive characterized by low productivity, employing 4.5 million workers (25 percent of the workforce) mainly in non-salaried or informal jobs; whereas the agricultural sector agro-export provides 0.8 million formal agricultural employment, over 0.46 million in 2004, and indirectly supports 0.7 million in jobs, productivity and high incomes, while, poverty has fallen dramatically in rural areas (from 80 percent in 2004 to 36 percent in 2018), coastal poverty has fallen further (from 67 percent in 2004 to 19 percent in 2018) (International Monetary Fund 2020: 38).

Figure 1. Peruvian agro-exports of traditional and non-traditional products - FOB values (US\$ million), 1970-2019



Source: BCRP. Prepared by the authors

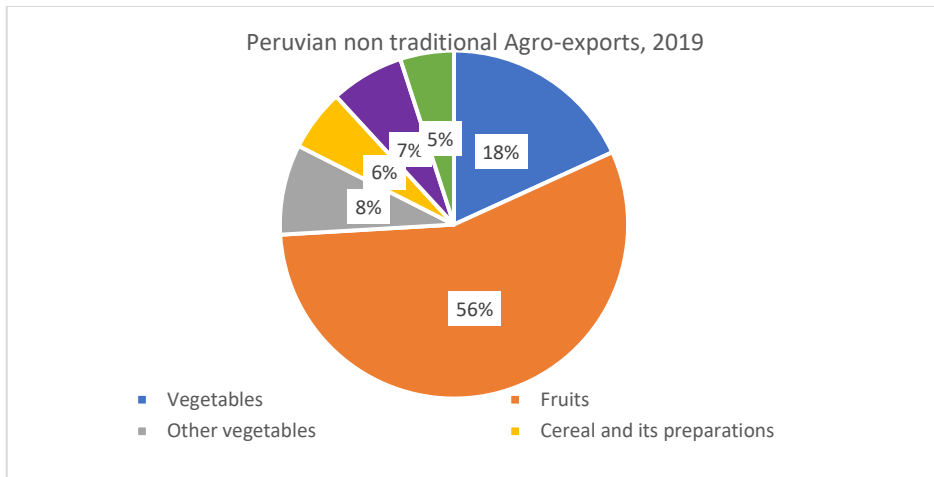
Figure 2. Agro exports of non-traditional products - FOB values (US \$ million), Peru, 2000-2019



Source: BCRP. Prepared by the authors

In the study period 2000-2019, there was a boom in non-traditional agro-exports led by fruits and vegetables with 56% and 18% respectively (figures 1 -3).

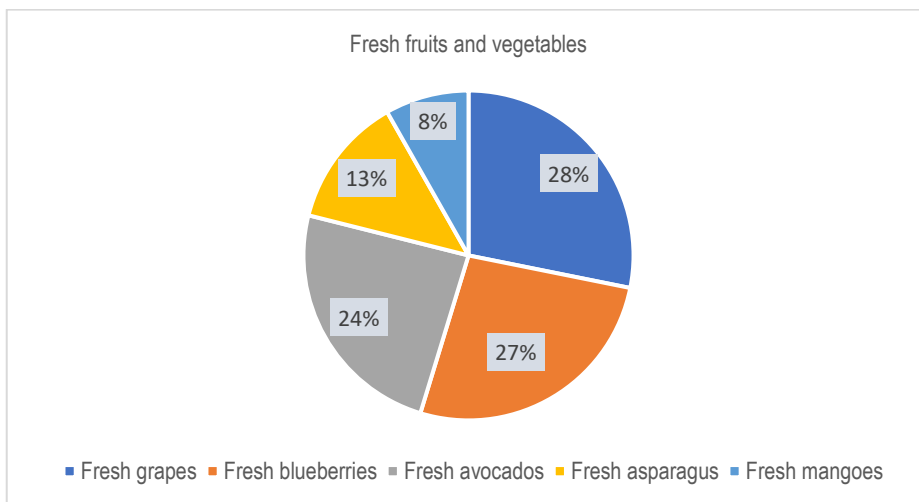
Figure 3. Non-traditional agro exports (FOB values in millions of US\$), Peru, 2019



Source: BCRP, SUNAT.

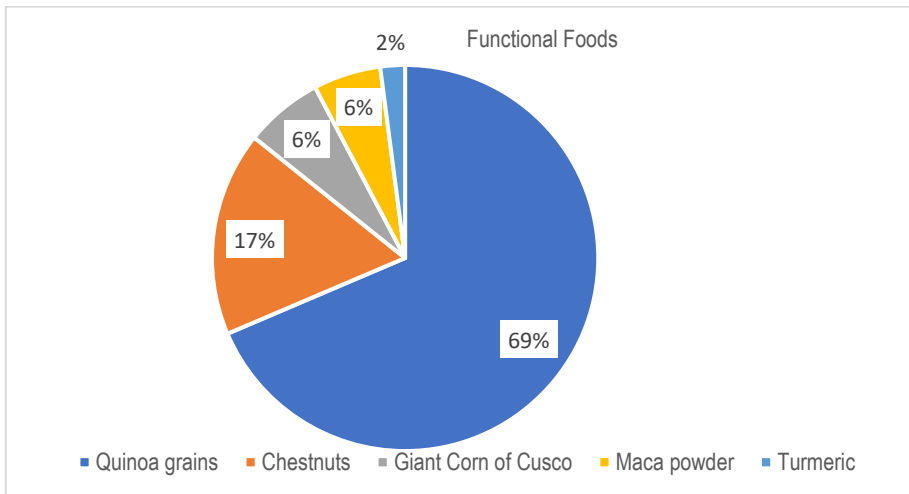
The main fresh fruits and vegetables exported in 2019 were found to be grapes and blueberries (figure 4). Likewise, the main native functional product exported is quinoa (figure 5).

Figure 4. Non-traditional Agro exports: Main fresh fruits and vegetables - FOB value US\$ million, Peru 2019



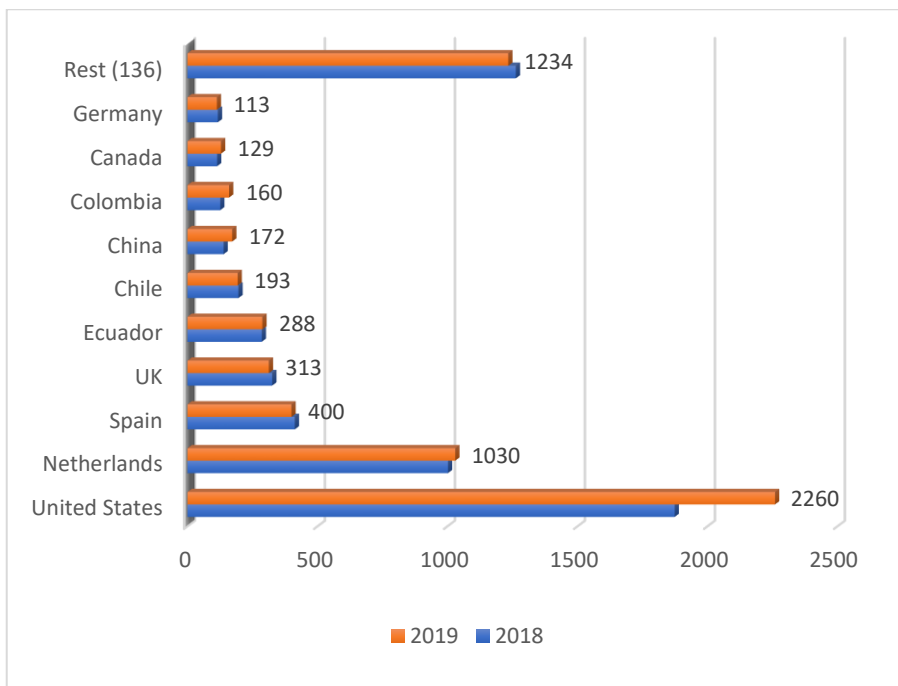
Source: PROMPERU

Figure 5. Non-traditional Agro exports: Main functional foods- FOB value US\$ million, Peru 2019



Source: PROMPERU

Figure 6. Main markets for non-traditional agro-exports - FOB US \$, Peru 2018- 2019



Source: PROMPERU

The main international buyers of Peruvian agro-exports are the United States and the Netherlands (figure 6).

In Peru, the area destined for organic production (INEI, 2019) is less than 2% of the total agricultural hectares (ha).

Table 2. National organic production statistics 2018

Region	Number of Operators (ha)	Number of Producers (2)	Area (ha) Transition	Organic Area	Total
Amazonas	28	7,337	4,784.23	12,626.96	17,411.19
Ancash	16	9	1.5	773.36	774.86
Apurímac	6	1,120	475.31	2,881.33	3,356.64
Arequipa	15	611	49.82	11,713.95	11,763.77
Ayacucho	28	3,910	6,221.44	9827.77	16,049.21
Cajamarca	89	20,013	14,252.27	35,294.65	49,546.92
Cusco	32	5,555	4,991.27	14,768.15	19,759.42
Huancavelica	2	3	0	0.76	0.76
Huánuco	13	2,553	2,195.31	6,413.12	8,608.43
Ica	21	118	225.86	928.57	1,154.43
Junín	144	15,246	23,019.87	43,625.70	66,645.57
La Libertad	27	2,801	1,352.26	1,750.62	3,102.88
Lambayeque	36	1,202	338.63	1,805.60	2,144.23
Lima	306	4,563	6,843.08	12,441.42	19,284.50
Loreto	1	22	30.5	46.54	77.04
Madre de Dios (3)	5	402	278.96	213,114.48	213,393.44
Moquegua (4)	0	0	0	0	0
Pasco	13	817	1,168.39	1,853.53	3,021.92
Piura	146	14,687	4,557.42	19,623.59	24,181.01
Puno	12	4,530	1,699.13	3,994.94	5,694.07
San Martín	68	16,187	17,399.73	30,379.05	47,778.78
Tacna	1	13	1.21	9.12	10.33
Tumbes	4	120	145.35	158.5	303.85
Ucayali	9	1,735	5,195.15	5,596.03	10,791.18
TOTAL	892 (1)	103,554	95,226.69	429,627.74	524,854.43

- (1) The number of operators is accounted for ignoring the operators that operate in 2 or more departments.
- (2) The data corresponds to the number of organic and transition producers.
- (3) Wild collection areas
- (4) In 2018, no information on organic production was recorded.

Source: SENASA

In Peru 2018, The Cajamarca region concentrates the largest number of organic producers with 20,013 ha. The regions of Madre de Dios, Junín and Cajamarca represent the largest certified organic areas with 213,114 ha, 43,626 ha and 35,295 ha respectively (table 2).

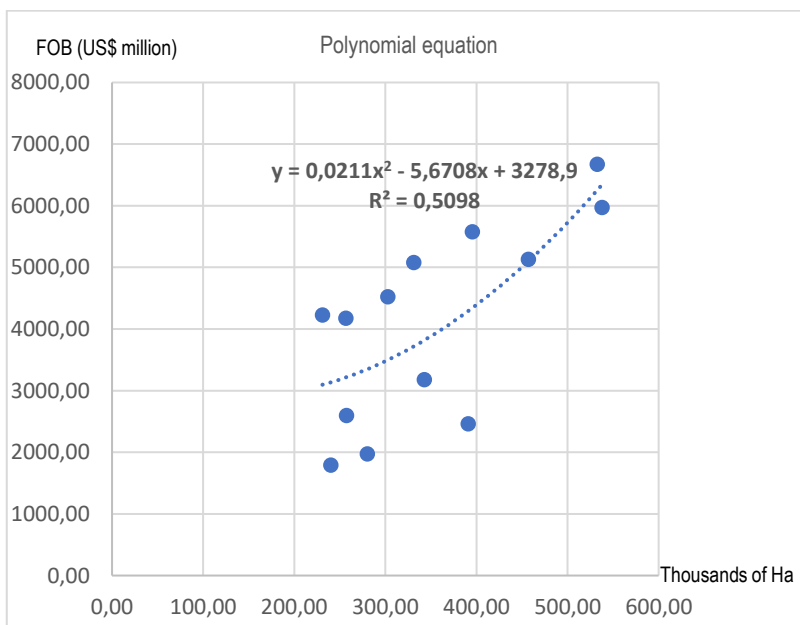
Table 3. Agro-exports and area for organic production, Peru 2006-2018

Año	Total Agro-exports FOB (US\$ million)	Area destined for organic production (Thousands of Ha)
2006	1793.79	240.17
2007	1972.58	280.24
2008	2598.58	257.44
2009	2461.97	390.95
2010	3177.65	342.70
2011	4524.88	302.60
2012	4177.51	256.84
2013	4230.25	230.94
2014	5078.74	331.29
2015	5131.39	457.04
2016	5580.27	395.56
2017	5972.61	537.75
2018	6675.75	532.66

Source: BCRP; INEI. Perú: Anuario de estadísticas Ambientales 2019

Table 3 shows the accelerated increase in Peruvian agro-exports, we assume the area for organic production as an indicator of environmental security.

Figure 7. Relationship between Agro-exports and area for organic production, Peru 2006-2018



Source: The authors

The X axis measures the area destined for organic production in thousands of hectares, the Y axis (dependent variable) measures total Peruvian agro-exports (millions of US\$). The polynomial curve fits the data better than a linear equation and Figure 7 shows that the area destined for organic production (indicator of environmental security) has an impact of 51% on Peruvian agro-exports.

4.2 Advancement of quality certifications of Peruvian agro-exports of native organic products and environmental Security

According to Supreme Decree No. 002-2020-MINAGRI, the National Agrarian Health Service - SENASA is the competent national authority to authorize and supervise the certification entities, which operate in Peru; and promotes and supports the certification of organic products directly to producers in order to guarantee the organic condition of products called organic, biological or ecological in the internal and external market, helping to promote the sustainable and competitive development of organic production in Peru, from the producer to the final consumer. SENASA also authorizes and controls the use of the National Seal of organic products, in the production, transformation and marketing processes according to the national organic production standards.

In Peru, advances in quality certifications guarantee the quality of agricultural production, the export process, and environmental safety. SENASA registers organic production certifiers such as Bio Latina Perú, BCS Peru, Control Unión, IMO Control Latinoamérica Peru, OCIA international PERU, CERES PERU among other. Organic certification helps to differentiate the product, to have visibility in national and international markets, to have environmental benefits: healthy natural resources, soil conservation and species biodiversity.

Conclusions

In the period 2000-2019, the main Peruvian non-traditional agro-export products are fruits and vegetables, which increased from 53 and 192 million FOB dollars in 2000 to 3,544 and 1,153 million FOB dollars in 2019, respectively.

For the year 2019, fruit agro-exports in terms of FOB value in millions of US\$ contribute 56% of total non-traditional agro-exports.

Quinoa known as functional food is the most demanded native agro-export product internationally.

Environmental security via the area destined for organic production has a 51% impact on total agro-exports.

Peru promotes organic production from the producer to the final consumer through SENASA, who authorizes and controls organic product certifiers and controls the use of the National Seal of organic products in production, transformation and marketing processes.

References

- Asmat-Campos, D., Carreño-Ortega, A. and Díaz-Pérez M. (2019). Recovering-Innovation-Exportation Triangle as an Instrument for Sustainable Development: Proposal for Peruvian Agro-Export Development. *Sustainability*, 11, 1149
- Belluck, D., Hull, R., Benjamin, S., Alcorn, J., Linkov, I. (2006). Environmental Security, Critical Infrastructure and Risk Assessment: Definitions and Current Trends. In: Morel B., Linkov I. (Eds) *Environmental Security and Environmental Management*:

- The Role of Risk Assessment. NATO Security through Science Series (Series C: Environmental Security), vol 5. Springer, Dordrecht.
- Blueberries Magazine (2020). Europe represents 37% of Peruvian fruit and vegetable exports. February.
- Correa et al. (2017). Nutrition - Sensitive Value Chains in Peru. Università degli Studi di Roma April.
- De la Cruz, T. (2015). Biocommerce in Peru: Challenges and development opportunities.
- Decreto supremo N° 002-2020-MINAGRI (2020). Modifica el Reglamento de la Ley N° 29196, Ley de Promoción de la Producción Orgánica o Ecológica, aprobado por Decreto Supremo N° 010-2012-AG y aprueban el Reglamento de Certificación y Fiscalización de la Producción Orgánica. February.
- Higuchi, A. and Dávalos, J. (2016). Unveiling Peruvian organic consumers demand for organics: A latent class approach. *Agricultural Sciences and Research* 43 (3): 408-417.
- Hough, P. (2019). Back to the future: environmental security in nineteenth century global politics. *Global Security: Health, Science and Policy*, 4(1): 1-13, DOI: 10.1080/23779497.2019.1663128
- INEI (2019). Perú: Anuario de Estadísticas Ambientales 2019. 607 p.
- International Monetary Fund (2020). MFI Country Report No. 20/3. January. 76 p.
- International Trade Center (ITC) (2015). Climate Change and the Agri-Food Trade: Perceptions of Exporters in Peru and Uganda. (Technical paper), Geneva. 53 p.
- Larrea H., Ugaz C. and Flórez M. (2018). The agribusiness system in Peru: From family farming to the agri-food business. Eighth Epoch. Year XXII Volume 43 July - December, 16 p.
- Lakkala, H., Birmoser, M., Ferreira-Aulu, Del Carpio, A., Kaskinen, J., Morales-Soriano, E. Ritva Repo-Carrasco-
- Valencia, R., Vargas, L., Vidaurre-Ruiz, J. & Vähäkari, N. (2019). A scenario for the desirable future of the Peruvian a gri-food sector 2030, focusing on Andean native crops. PECOLO Project. Finland futures research Center.
- Legal team Peru (2019). Peruvian superfoods waiting to be discovered by food companies. August 6.
- Mercado, W. and Ubillus, K. (2017). Characterization of producers and quinoa supply chains in the Peruvian regions of Puno and Junin. *Scientia Agropecuaria* 8 (3): 251 - 265
- MINCETUR (2013). Portugal Market Development Plan.
- Miner, K.R. (2019). Environmental Security Risks in South America: The Expectations and Implications of a Changing Climate. Latin American Program. November
- Oxford Business Gro up (2018). New brand launch set to stimulate Peru's agro-export performance
- Pisani, E., Masiero, M. and Scrocco, S. (2015). Reintroduction of native cotton (*Gossypium Barbadian*) on the North coast of Peru: Analysis of economic feasibility for small producers. *Journal of the Faculty of Agricultural Sciences* 47 (1): 209-232
- Poppy, G.M. Jepson, P.C., Pickett, J.A., Birkett, M.A. (2014). Achieving food and environmental security: new approaches to close the gap. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. B* 369: 20120272. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2012.0272>
- PromPerú (2017). Annual report 2017. D esvolvimiento foreign trade agroexportador

- PromPerú (2019). Bulletin January - December 2019 of the Agribusiness Department, 12 p.
- World Bank Group (2017). Gaining Momentum in Peruvian Agriculture. Opportunities to Increase Productivity and Enhance Competitiveness. 150 p.
- Zegarra, E. (2019). Agro-export boom in Peru: an analysis of the survival of products and companies. Final report, Development Analysis Group-GRADE, 60p.

The Effect of Corruption and FDI on the Economic Growth in Albania: An Empirical Analysis from 2002 to 2019

Teuta Xhindi

PhD, Head of the Informatics and Scientific Training Department, Mediterranean University of Albania

Kevin Shestani

MSc. University of Turin

Abstract

In the Transparency International report for 2019, Albania ranked 106th out of 180 countries in total, ranking last in Europe and the Balkans. Corruption is a relevant problem for all countries and political systems. Albania, in order to successfully follow its path towards European integration, must focus in solving the corruption problem, especially in the judicial system, healthcare sector and privatization agencies. The economic effect is also the most tangible effect of corruption, because it directly affects both the country's economy and life of the individual. On the other hand, foreign direct investment is an important part of national development strategies for developing and transition countries as foreign financial capital is seen as a way to meet the lack of domestic investment funds. But the level of corruption creates a great deal of uncertainty for foreign companies and investors. Potential investors must be secure about the validity of contracts and the value of their investments in the host country, by having clear rules and regulations and their implementation being systematic and transparent. The purpose of this study is to measure the impact of the level of corruption and FDI on the economic growth in Albania. Data on economic growth and FDI were obtained from the World Bank for the 2002-2019 period, while data on CPI were obtained from Transparency International for the same period. Main results: FDI has a negative impact on economic growth. In contrast, our analysis concluded that corruption appears to positively affect growth.

Keywords: Foreign Direct Investment, Corruption, Economic Growth, regression analysis.

Introduction

Transparency International (1998) has given the definition of corruption as *the abuse of public power for private benefit*. Also, corruption can be seen as a transaction between private and public sector actors through which collective goods are illegally converted into private goods (Heidenheimer *et al.*, 1989). Transparency International was established in 1993 and only two years after its creation (1995) it has calculated and published for the first time the corruption perception indexes, including 41 countries from around the world in the survey. In an effort to measure corruption, TI has developed several instruments such as the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) and the National Integrity System (NIS). In this paper, CPI will be used

to measure corruption. The measurement of corruption is done by experts in the public sector on the basis of:

1. The direct survey of citizens
2. Official requests and penalties for corruption taken from police statistics.

Albania was included in the survey conducted by TI in 2002 and since then CPI continues to be calculated and published to this day. The final scores were calculated as the average of the results of various surveys conducted in the respective countries. Until 2011, the CPI took values from zero, for highly corrupt countries, to 10 for uncorrupted countries. After 2011, the minimum and maximum points of this index are 0 and 100, respectively. The Corruption Perceptions Index ranks countries according to the perception of how corrupt the public sector is thought to be. The ranking of the country indicates the position of that country relative to other countries included in the study. The higher the ranking, the more corrupt that country is perceived to be.

Currently, the study is conducted in about 180 countries around the world, which are ranked according to the corruption index, enabling a comparative assessment for each country globally, continentally and regionally. According to TI, in the 2019 report, Albania had a corruption index of 35, ranking 106th out of 180 countries in the world, ranking last in Europe and in the Balkan region. This result shows that Albania, with a CPI score of 35, is still far from the average score of 50, not to mention almost a third of the way to a corruption-free country with good governance.

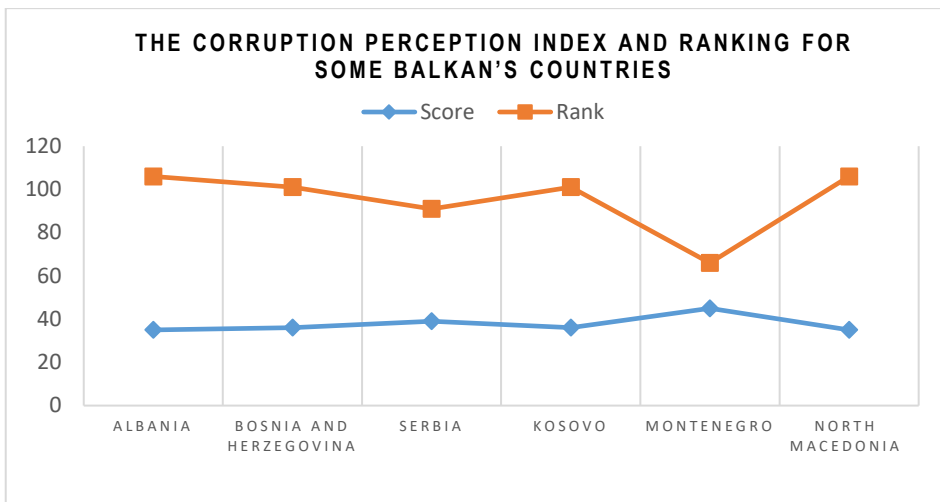
Table 1. The CPI and ranking for some Balkan's countries in 2019

Country	Score	Rank
Albania	35	106
Bosnia and Herzegovina	36	101
Serbia	39	91
Kosovo	36	101
Montenegro	45	66
North Macedonia	35	106

Source of data: Transparency International

As it can be clearly seen in the table above, Albania was one of the most corrupt countries in the region in 2019.

Graph 1: The graphic presentation of CPI and ranking for some Balkan's countries in 2019



Source: Graph presentation done by authors

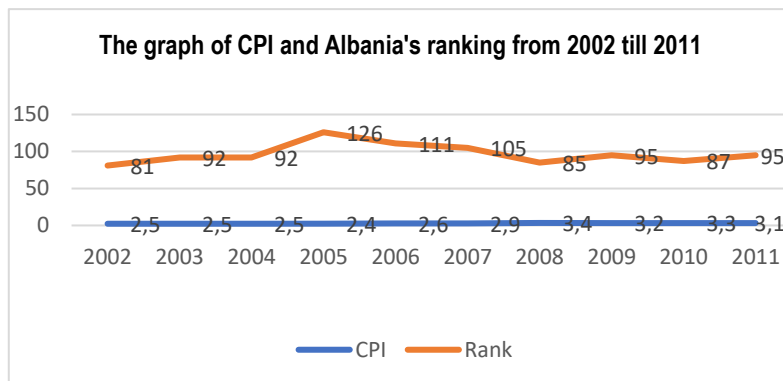
In the table below, the CPI and the ranking for Albania from 2002 (the year when Albania was first included in the study of International Transparency) till 2011.

Table 2: The values of CPI and Albania’s ranking from 2002 till 2011

Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
CPI 0-10	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.4	3.4	3.2	3.3	3.1
Rank	81	92	92	126	111	105	85	95	87	95

Source: Transparency International

Graph 2: The graphic presentation of the values of CPI and Albania’s ranking from 2002 till 2011



Source: Graph presentation done by authors

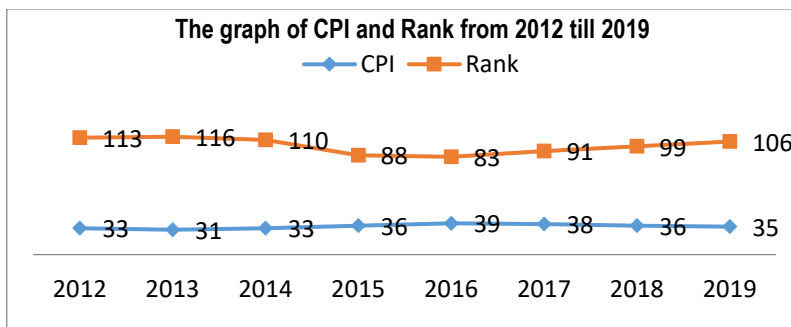
While below, the CPI and rank for Albania from 2012 (year when for the first time the maximal points for CPI became 100 from previously being 10) till 2019.

Table 3: The values of CPI and Albania's ranking from 2012 till 2019

Year	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
CPI 0-100	33	31	33	36	39	38	36	35
Rank	113	116	110	88	83	91	99	106

Source of data: Transparency International

Graph 3: The graphic presentation of the values of CPI and Albania's ranking from 2012 till 2019



Source: Graph presentation done by authors

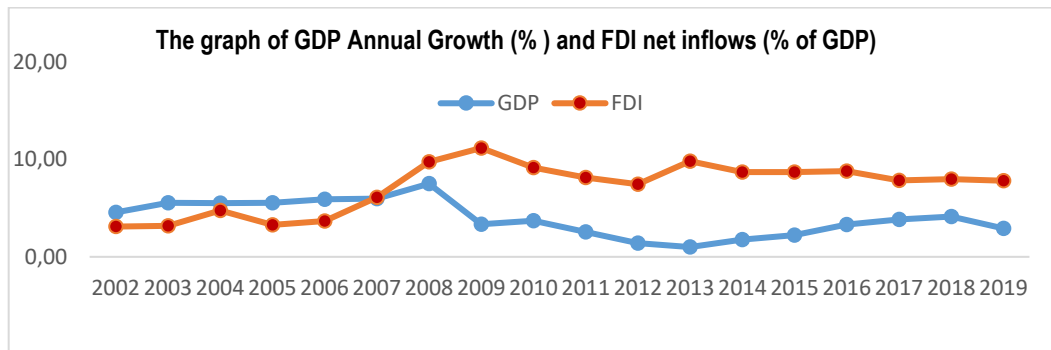
In order for Albania to follow the European integration path, the corruption issue, widespread especially in: the judiciary system, customs, privatization, property registration and compensation agencies, the healthcare sector, must be solved. The economic effect is also the most tangible effect of corruption, because it directly affects both the country's economy and the life of the individual.

Corruption promotes the formation of a privileged group of people, thus undermining the foundations of the free market economy. Accordingly, corruptive practices such as bribery to start a business, unjustified delays, lengthy bureaucratic procedures, and unfair privileges negatively affect free and fair competition among economic operators in the market. Furthermore, corruption weakens the tax administration and may lead to tax evasion and harmful tax exemptions. On the other hand, FDI have become an important part of the national development strategies for many different countries, especially for developing and transition countries. These countries tend to liberalize their investment policies to encourage FDI inflows (UNCTAD, 2017).

One of the main reasons that developing and transition countries manifest the necessity to accrue FDI flows is that these countries are characterized by the lack of an adequate amount of resources to finance investments, because their necessity for capital often exceeds their domestic savings. The shortage of investment funds triggers a high barrier to economic growth, so foreign capital is seen as a way to fill this gap (UNCTAD, 2015). By transferring capital and developed technology, as well as through the development of human capital in host countries, FDI is crucial for the economic growth in these countries.

Albania, like all developing countries, has the same need to finance investments through foreign sources, as it lacks the necessary capital. This is a consequence of the consumption-based growth model followed by Albania, conditioned by an undeveloped production sector. In order for countries to be able to have long-term economic growth, their economic growth model must focus on increasing investments and exports (World Bank, 2017). Albania needs FDI to generate positive effects on: the growth and sophistication of exports, employment, the development of human capital in the country, technological development, etc.

Graph 4: The graphic presentation of GDP annual growth (%) and FDI net inflows (% of GDP) in Albania from 2000 – 2019.



Source: World Bank

Research aim, objectives and limitations

Aim: The purpose of this article is to analyze the effect of Foreign Direct Investment and Corruption on the economic growth in Albania.

Objectives:

1. Analysis of the relevant theoretical and empirical literature concerning the effect of FDI on a country's economy.
2. Analysis of the relevant theoretical and empirical literature concerning the effect of corruption on a country's economy.
3. Empirical analysis to measure the effect of corruption and FDI in the economic growth in Albania using regression analysis and OLS estimates.

Hypothesis:

1. Foreign Direct Investments have negatively affected Albania's economic growth.
2. Corruption has had a positive impact on Albania's economic growth

Limitations: The restricted number of observations. Considering that Albania was included in the survey conducted by TI in 2002, our data covers only the 2002-2019 period.

Literature review

A great majority of empirical studies are testimonials of the expected theoretical effect of FDI in host economies, such as the transferring of technology and already developed knowledge, increased competition, increased quantitative and qualitative exports and increased

employment rates, by so playing an active role in generating economic growth for the benefiting country (Borenzstein & Lee, 1998). In a theoretical viewpoint, the influence of FDI has been proven to be positive, although a number of empirical studies have demonstrated that there are cases when foreign investments might not be generating the expected positive impact; on the contrary, they might have a negative impact on the economic growth of host economies.

The relevant literature indicates that the incompatibility between the results of different empirical studies is caused primarily by the vast variability of conditions in host economies, determining their ability to profit from the presence of FDI. The “materialization” of the positive effects of FDI depends on the absorbing capacity of the receiving country. A great number of studies show that the ability of the receiving country to profit as much as possible from the positive effects introduced by the presence of foreign investments is influenced by the degree of development of human capital, the difference between the technological development of the receiving country and that of developed countries, the scale of openness in trade and financial development.

Likewise, a number of different studies have shown that Albania has not been able to properly benefit from the presence of FDI, despite the constant growth of FDI fluxes over the years (Estrin & Uvalic, 2016; Zisi, 2014). The current human capital development in Albania, technological development, financial growth and trade liberalism might have negatively conditioned the impact of the FDI in Albania.

Whereas regarding corruption, empirical studies have clearly shown a negative correlation between corruption on one side and economic growth and investments on the other, (Mauro, 1995; Li et al., 2000). However, Jie Bai, Seema Jayachandran, Edmund J. Malesky and Benjamin A. Olken (2013) found out that economic growth leads to lower corruption. In their study, they used cross-industry heterogeneity in growth rates in Vietnam. Lisciandra and Millemaci (2016) brought up relevant evidence indicating that corruption has a negative impact on the Italian economic growth and that the relation between them is nonlinear: when economic growth decreases, corruption increases.

On the other hand, studies which claim corruption has a positive impact on economic growth exist. This occurs on the occasions in which the government has implemented an inefficient policy package and in consequently corruption helps the avoidance of these policies, thus, helping efficiency and economic development (Leff, 1964; Huntington, 1968; Friedrich, 1972). Also, Huang CJ (2016) concluded that in South Korea more corruption leads to more economic growth, as corruption in this case assist in the development of economic fortitude.

Even though corruption might obscure the failure of a government and assist in the development of the economy in the short-run, surely corruption is detrimental for the economy in the long-run. This occurs due to the fact that corruption diminishes competitiveness. The corrupt system permits that dealers who pay the highest amount of bribes win the contracts regardless of their level of efficiency (Kunieda et al, 2014), affects investments (Bryant & Javalgi, 2016), favors badly managed and oriented social programs, creates the necessary conditions for an unjust tax system which helps only the high income margin of society to thrive. In practice, economists care more about such long-term consequences of corruption than the short-term ones.

Methodology and Empirical Analysis

Data Source

The data used in our study for GDP growth (in %) and FDI (as % of GDP) were retrieved from the World Bank website, while the data for the CPI and rankings are retrieved from the Transparency International Website. The data span for the study is from 2000 to 2019.

The data are transformed into logarithmic form to ensure stability, the fulfillment of normality distribution and homoscedasticity assumptions of error term.

So, $(GDP1)_t = \ln(GDP)_t$

$$(FDI1)_t = \ln(FDI)_t$$

$$(CPI1)_t = \ln(CPI)_t$$

As the methodology for calculating CPI was changed in 2011, in our study a dummy variable for time is included, defined as below:

$$\text{Dummy Variable } D = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for the years from 2002 till 2011} \\ 1 & \text{for the years from 2012 till 2019} \end{cases}$$

Methodology

To empirically analyze the relationship between economic growth, FDI and CPI, the regression analysis is used. The equation of the multiple regression model is:

$$E(y_t | x_{1t}, x_{2t}, x_{3t}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \beta_3 x_{3t} + u_t, \text{ where } u_t \text{ is the error term.}$$

Under OLS assumptions, the OLS estimators $\hat{\beta}_i$ are unbiased, efficient and consistent estimators of populations parameters β_i . The coefficients $\hat{\beta}_i$ measure the estimated effect of each independent variable to dependent variable when other things remain constant.

Before performing the regression analysis, it is necessary to perform the unit root test. The problem with non-stationary series is that the regression analysis might be spurious. In this article, the stationarity for the series GDP growth and FDI are estimated by applying the Ng-Perron test, as this test is superior to the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test and the Phillips-Perron test in cases when the dataset contains a limited number of observations. The ADF and P-P unit root tests are known to suffer from size problems. Later, the results taken from Ng-Perron test were compared to the results taken from KPSS test.

Due to technical reasons, the methodology for measuring CPI was changed in 2011. Therefore, there is a break in 2011 in time series data for CPI. For that reason, to study the stationarity of CPI, the Zivot – Andrews Unit Root test for Structural Break (1992) is used. As shown by Perron (1989), in the presence of structural break, conventional unit root test methods may show a time series to be non-stationary, which in fact is a stationary series. In other words, a stationary series which has a structural break may be regarded as a non-stationary series by other well-known methods because these methods do not make adjustments for structural break.

Estimation Results

Table 1 presents some statistics for the variables $(GDP1)_t = \ln(GDP)_t$; $(FDI1)_t = \ln(FDI)_t$; and $(CPI1)_t = \ln(CPI)_t$

Statistics	$(GDP1)_t$	$(CPI1)_t$	$(FDI1)_t$
Mean	1.245474	2.155964	1.895130
Median	1.325364	1.208849	2.068241
Maximum	2.014899	3.663562	2.412351
Minimum	0.001987	0.875469	1.132958
Std. Dev.	0.545757	1.293456	0.429896
Skewness	-0.739051	0.211025	-0.836320
Kurtosis	2.774924	1.072681	2.161139
Jarque-Bera	1.676584	2.919515	2.626060
Probability	0.432449	0.232293	0.269004
Sum	22.41852	38.80735	34.11234
Sum Sq. Dev.	5.063456	28.44148	3.141785
Observations	18	18	18

Table 1. Some statistics for variables $(GDP1)_t$, $(FDI1)_t$ and $(CPI1)_t$

So, the mean and median values are between the minimum and maximum values and Probability J-B values ensure the normal distribution for all variables.

Table 2 presents the Correlation Matrix for the three variables.

Table 2. Correlation Matrix

	$(GDP1)_t$	$(CPI1)_t$	$(FDI1)_t$
$(GDP1)_t$	1	-0.67	-0.51
$(CPI1)_t$	-0.67	1	0.55
$(FDI1)_t$	-0.51	0.55	1

The static coefficients of correlation between GDP Growth and the two other variables have a negative sign.

Unit root tests

Table 3 presents the results computed by the Ng-Perron test, KPSS test for GDP growth and FDI series and Zivot – Andrews Unit Root test for Structural Break for CPI.

Table 3. The results from unit root tests

Ng-Perron test: Null Hypothesis: $(GDP1)_t$ has a unit root	Result
Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend	
MSB test statistic = 0.34501	Stationary
Asymptotic critical value 5% = 0.16800	
KPSS test: Null Hypothesis: $(GDP1)_t$ is stationary	
Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend	
LM-Stat = 0.106297	Stationary

Asymptotic critical value 5% =0.146000	
--	--

Ng-Perron test: Null Hypothesis: $(FDI1)_t$ has a unit root	Result
Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend	
MSB test statistic = 0.23711 Asymptotic critical value 5% =0.16800	Stationary
KPSS test: Null Hypothesis: $(FDI1)_t$ is stationary	
Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend	
LM-Stat = 0.155758 Asymptotic critical value 5% =0.146000	Stationary

Zivot - Andrews Unit Root test for Structural Break Null Hypothesis: $(CPI1)_t$ has a unit root	Result
Trend Specification: Trend and intercept Break Specification: Intercept only Break Date: 2011	
P -value < 0.01	Stationary

The results of table 3 indicate that all variables $(GDP1)_t$, $(FDI1)_t$ and $(CPI1)_t$ are stationary at 5% significance level.

Regression analysis in the structural break case

As in the time series data for CPI there is a break in 2011, a question is raised:

Is it better to use a pooled regression (Multiple Regression Model from 2002 till 2019) or 2 separate ones (one from 2002-2011 and another from 2012 till 2019)?

To decide, we have used the Chow test for structural break.

The null hypothesis in this case is:

H_0 : There is no significant improvement in fit running two regressions (Pooled regression is correct)

The Chow test is an F test with the following F statistic

$$F = \frac{(RSS - RSS_1 - RSS_2)/k}{(RSS_1 + RSS_2)/(n_1 + n_2 - 2k)}$$

Under H_0 , the F-statistic follows an F distribution with k and n-2k degrees of freedom where k is the number of parameters in the equation. In the equation:

RSS is the Residual Sum of Squares for Multiple Regression Model for period 2002-2019

RSS_1 is the Residual Sum of Squares for Multiple Regression Model for period 2002-2011

RSS_2 is the Residual Sum of Squares for Multiple Regression Model for period 2012-2019

These values are:

Residual Sum of Squares for period 2002-2011	Residual Sum of Squares for period 2012-2019	Residual Sum of Squares for period 2002-2019
15.71803	1.22971	28.45193

$$\text{So, } F = \frac{(RSS - RSS_1 - RSS_2)/k}{(RSS_1 + RSS_2)/(n_1 + n_2 - 2k)} = \frac{(28.45193 - 15.71803 - 1.22971)/3}{(15.71803 + 1.22971)/(18 - 2 \cdot 3)} = 2.715$$

The critical value for 5% level of significance with 3 and 12 degrees of freedom is 3.49.

The calculations for RSS, RSS_1 and RSS_2 are done considering $(GDP1)_t$ as a dependent variable and $(FDI1)_t$ and $(CPI1)_t$ as independent variables. Based on the Chow test for structural break, the employment of pooled regression is correct. However, for comparison reasons (between the 2002-2011 and 2012-2019 time periods), we have introduced in our analysis a dummy variable denoted as 0 - for time period 2002 to 2011 and 1 - for time period 2012 to 2019.

Table 4 reports the results from the regression analysis with GDP growth as a dependent variable and FDI, CPI and the dummy variable as predictors.

Also, some important statistics as D-W statistics, Adjusted R-Square, F-statistic and the results from some diagnostic tests including JB test for normality, BG LM test for serial correlation, BPG test for heteroscedasticity, RESET test for functional form are shown in this table.

Table 4. The results from the regression analysis and some diagnostic tests

Dependent variable $(GDP1)_t$			
Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	p(t value)
c	-0.65	0.799	0.4297
$(FDI1)_t$	-1.35	0.34	0.0013
$(CPI1)_t$	4.37	1.15	0.0020
Dummy	-11.18	2.79	0.0013
Some statistics	value	probability	
F statistic	14.39	0.000147	
Adjusted R Square	0.70		
DW stat	1.53		
Diagnostic Tests			
Normality: JB	0.25	0.88	
Serial Correlation BG LM test F - statistic	3.83	0.0516	
Heteroscedasticity Test BPG F - statistic	0.58	0.6360	
RESET Test: F stat (2,12)	0.96	0.4109	

The estimated equation is: $(GDP1)_t = -0.65 - 1.35(FDI1)_t + 4.37(CPI1)_t - 11.18 \text{ Dummy}_t$

Table 4 illustrates that all independent variables are statistically significant at 5% significance level. FDI has a negative effect on economic growth, while CPI has a positive effect on economic

growth. The estimated coefficients show that a 1% increase in FDI leads to approximately a 1.35% decrease in economic growth, *ceteris paribus*. Also, a 1% increase in CPI leads to approximately 4.37% increase in economic growth, *ceteris paribus*. The estimated coefficient before the dummy variable indicates that the growth rate in Albania was lower in 2012-2019 period compared to the 2002-2011 period.

All the diagnostic tests show that the regression model is appropriate for our data.

Conclusions

This study used the regression analysis to examine the effects of FDI and corruption on the economic growth of Albania. The results indicate that FDI and CPI are important in explaining growth in our country. According to our results, FDI has a negative impact on growth rates, confirming that FDI does not prompt growth in the Albanian context. This result is the same to that of Estrin and Uvalic (Estrin and Uvalic, 2016; Zisi, 2014). The current level of human capital development in Albania, technological development, financial system development and trade liberalization may have conditioned the outcome effect of FDI in Albania. Moreover, the positive effect of corruption on Albania's economic growth reveals that corruption has helped avoiding bureaucratic and inefficient rules by increasing efficiency and helping economic development.

Bibliography

- [1] Ajao OS, Samuel D, Samuel O (2013) Application of forensic accounting technique in effective investigation and detection of embezzlement to combat corruption in Nigeria. *Unique J Bus Manage Res* 1:65–70
- [2] Akai, N., Horiuchi, Y., & Sakata, M. (2005). Short-run and long-run effects of corruption on economic growth: evidence from state-level cross-section data for the United States. *Governance Working Paper*, pp. 1- 30.
- [3] Borensztein, E., De Gregorio, J. & J. W. Lee, (1998). "How does foreign direct investment affect economic growth?" *Journal of International Economics*, 45: 115-135.
- [4] Bryant CE, Javalgi RG (2016) Global economic integration in developing countries: the role of corruption and human capital investment. *J Bus Ethics* 136(3):1–14
- [5] Estrin, S. & Uvalic, M. (2014). FDI into Transition Economies: Are the Balkans Different? *Economics of Transition*, 22(2), 281-312.
- [6] Friedrich, C.J. (1972), *The Pathology of Politics, Violence, Betrayal, Corruption, Secrecy and Propaganda*. New York: Harper and Row.
- [7] Heidenheimer J.A. & Johnston M., (1989), *Political Corruption: Concepts and Contexts*, Transaction Publishers, New Brunswick, New Jersey, pp 6
- [8] Huang CJ (2016) Is corruption bad for economic growth? evidence from Asia-Pacific countries. *North Am J Econ Finance* 35:247–256
- [9] Huntington, Samuel P. (1968), *Political Order in Changing Societies*. *New Haven*: Yale University Press.
- [10] Iamsiraroj, S. & Ulubasoglu, M, (2015), Foreign direct investment and economic growth: A real relationship or wishful thinking? *Economic Modelling*, 51, issue C, p. 200-213.
- [11] Jie Bai Seema Jayachandran Edmund J. Malesky Benjamin A. Olken, (2013), DOES ECONOMIC GROWTH REDUCE CORRUPTION? THEORY AND EVIDENCE FROM VIETNAM

-
- [12] Working Paper 19483 <http://www.nber.org/papers/w19483>, NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH 1050 Massachusetts Avenue Cambridge, MA 02138.
- [13] Kunieda T, Okada K, Shibata A (2014) Corruption, capital account liberalization, and economic growth: theory and evidence. *Int Econ* 139(139):80–108
- [14] Leff, N. (1964), "Economic Development through Bureaucratic Corruption," *American Behavioral Scientist*, Vol. 8, No. 3:8-14.
- [15] Li, H., L. Colin, and H-F. Zou (2000), "Corruption, Income Distribution and Growth," *Economics and Politics*, Vol. 12, No.2: 155-181.
- [16] Lisciandra M, Millemaci E (2016) The economic effect of corruption in Italy: a regional panel analysis. *Regional Studies*, pp 1–12.
- [17] Lučić D, Radišić M, Dobromirov D (2016) Causality between corruption and the level of GDP. *Econ Res-Ekonomska Istraživanja* 29(1):360–379
- [18] Mauro, P. (1995), "Corruption and Growth," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 110, No. 3: 681-712.
- [19] Pellegrini, L., & Gerlagh, R. (2004). Corruption's effect on growth and its transmission channels. *Kyklos*, 57(3), pp. 429-456.
- [20] Zisi.A (2014). Ndikimii IHD-ve në rritjen ekonomike dhe faktorët nxitës në përthithjen e tyre: Rasti i Shqipërisë
- [21] UNCTAD – United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

A Combined Approach Intervention to Promote Foreign Language Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Karol Cubero Vásquez

National University, Costa Rica

Abstract

Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has gained an influential body of literature over the years. It has certainly been recognized as a necessary asset in today's world. In these increasingly challenging times, competences to work collaboratively as one global community is vital such a goal requires individuals to perform effectively during intercultural interactions while communicating in a foreign language. Nevertheless, foreign language students in the Costa Rican context seem to have deficient ICC. Therefore, it is vital to integrate effective formal teaching and learning practices to foster students' ICC in the foreign language classroom. In that sense, key guidelines are highlighted in this paper as a path to guide the implementation of the intercultural component to educate foreign language learners. It is the purpose of this paper to describe some guidelines to design a pedagogic intervention to foster ICC in the foreign language classroom and present some results gathered from a current intervention taking place at tertiary education in the Costa Rican context, preliminary qualitative data, observation, and journals have evidenced some positive insights in the language classroom.

Keywords: ICC- intervention- CLIL -PBL- foreign language learning

Introduction

We are not alone, we have each other

Do not be afraid,

differences strengthen our hearts

come, sit with us

Because we will build a better world

Karol Cubero

The world has been experiencing drastic and significant changes. The future has arrived with a number of challenges demanding individuals and institutions to adapt, to change, to integrate other teaching practices. Many areas of life are tremendously influenced by two major agents dictating paths for the present and certainly for the future. Globalization, communication and digital technologies have transformed daily life, interactions, communication, and relationships. Technological advances have enabled people to shorten geographical distances, having the possibility to communicate with others in real-time. It only takes a look around to see how interconnected the world is. Added to that, waves of

immigration and the growth of international tourism have increased intercultural encounters between individuals almost everywhere in the world. Then, there is a need to foster or reinforce healthy and effective dialogic practices in a frame of positive attitudes and behaviors to learn from one another, globally or locally in the context of dynamic diverse interactions.

Education in its social role, as an agent of change, should respond to current challenges taking a more active role in the matter. Educational systems must adapt their resources, means, and mission to prepare individuals towards the development of ICC. Developing ICC is a critical issue to reinforce in formal education settings. The need to learn, promote, and boost attitudes linked to interculturality is critical more than ever. Today, the world is facing tremendous difficult times both sanitary and economically. Individuals are witnessing how nations instead of approaching a global outlook of the emergency turn to individualistic modes. Global collaboration, cooperation, understanding, dialogue, respect, and empathy can outline a more fruitful path to face emergencies that threaten human life on a global scale. It is education as a social promoter of change that must offer a manifesto to provide societies with tools to face challenges. Intercultural communicative competence can be a tool to approach that golden goal.

The idea of interculturality has gained more attention over the years since nations and individuals from diverse cultures are simply more connected. There is a need to contribute to the formation of integral, active, and mindful citizens aware of their possibility to promote change towards a healthy coexistence in this global community. As inhabitants of planet earth and intercultural outlook can enhance chances for building a better world framed in mutual understanding, empathy, justice, and respect.

Today, this call becomes more urgent than ever. Moving toward that goal can be encouraged in the field of language learning. Language learners should be able to maintain appropriate and effective communication practices with others. Hence, moving from communicative competence to Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) seem the most adequate path not only to facilitate foreign language learning but to promote a long-life learning process where a profound change in students' perception of life and others can occur. Furthermore, the concept of intercultural communicative competence effectively responds to the need to favor the integration of language and culture in language teaching since the traditional view of language learning, neglects, or fails to integrate the cultural component.

ICC can be seen as an integral framework that taught and developed explicitly in formal education settings can train individuals to self-monitor their attitudes and behaviors to effectively deal with culturally diverse people or even in one's own culture at the time linguistic competence is also developed. The role of education is fundamental to motion reforms and change, recognizing challenges for the future. As the world becomes increasingly diverse, individuals should acknowledge the need to develop ICC. Therefore, it is the purpose of this paper to describe some guidelines and recommendations to design a pedagogic intervention to foster ICC in the foreign language classroom.

Literature Review

Overview of constructs and models of intercultural communicative competence (ICC)

Intercultural communication was first conceived many decades ago, many scholars identify Edward T. Hall as the one that promoted the concept from which many models emerged and have been applied to diverse fields of knowledge. Since there working over a definition for ICC

seems problematic, many scholars warn over the danger of misleading the concept as too broad or too limited. In an attempt to study the term, the literature highlights that intercultural communicative competence takes as core theory from intercultural competence and communicative competence. To address the concept of Intercultural Communicative Competence, the work from Byram is considered. In words of Byram, the term emphasizes the development of critical cultural awareness, knowledge, skills, and attitudes while developing linguistic competence. He suggests that developing ICC means developing the ability to decentre, to engage with complexity and multiple identities and avoid stereotyping (Byram *et al.* 2002:12)

Developing ICC means learning how to step out of one's bubble of reference mostly full of familiar "air" discourses, practices, modes, behaviors to engage with other bubbles full of unfamiliar "air" different modes, values, practices to establish healthy, productive encounters while communicating. Since language and culture are so intrinsically related to each other, language learning and target culture learning cannot realistically be separated (Kramsch 1993). In this regard, Byram (1997) also believes that the acquisition of a foreign language implies the acquisition of cultural practices and beliefs this language embodies since language is one mean of embodying the complexity of those practices and beliefs.

Learning a foreign language can be a tool to provide learners with a more holistic formation where the learning environment is not limited to the study of the language itself but as an opportunity that opens doors and windows to an integrative model including other key components that play an important role during the acquisition of a foreign language. Learning a language from an intercultural perspective requires learners to explicitly see its relevance. In teaching a foreign language from an intercultural perspective, the student can appreciate and preserve his/her own culture. Subsequently, one's native culture has a key functional role in the English learning process, students can extract useful content while using the foreign language. Liddicoat and Scarino (2013, 46) suggest that intercultural language learning involves developing in learners an understanding of their own language(s) and culture(s) concerning other cultures.

According to Spitzberg and Changnon (2009), there is a significant body of theoretical conceptualization from which many ICC models are framed. To simplify one of the most influential theories, a general description of Byram's ICC model will be discussed. Byram and his colleagues present a model that involves key components required for the development of ICC. (Byram, 1997 Byram *et al.*, 2002).

	Skill: interpreting and relating -Interpreting things from other cultures -Comparing them to own culture -Developing new perspectives through comparison and contrast	
--	--	--

<p>Knowledge -of self and other -awareness of the relationship of the individual to society</p>	<p>Education -Evaluating political education -Developing critical cultural awareness</p>	<p>Intercultural Attitudes -Decentering self -Exhibiting curiosity and openness -Approaching the unfamiliar with imagination -Valuing the attitudes and beliefs of others</p>
	<p>Skills: discover and interaction -developing ethnographic and research skills -exploring cultures</p>	

Table 1. Intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 2008, p. 230)

Byram describes his model outlining attitudes that refer to curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures, and belief about one's own. To knowledge, he refers to knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country. For skills, he considers essential to develop (1) skills of interpreting and relating, that is, the ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own; (2) skills of discovery and interaction, in other words, the ability to learn new knowledge of culture and the ability to apply it, to then develop (3) skills of communication and interaction. Underlying the process is the development of critical cultural awareness described as the ability to evaluate, critically, perspectives, practices, and products in one's own culture and other cultures. (Byram, 2008)

Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence seems useful and practical because it gives special emphasis to the pedagogical goals in the specific field of foreign language teaching in dynamic interaction with key components where critical cultural awareness is central and significant to the whole process. As he asserts, one important goal is to encourage students to reflect critically on values, beliefs, and behaviors of their own culture, this exercise allows learners to take part in an inner reflection about one's own identity, national history, and practices. Another attractive notion is that of the intercultural speaker, promoting a shift from the goal of the native speaker. (Byram, 1997, p. 70)

This model is useful to draw a line of work for implementing the ICC component because it was specifically designed for formal educational settings in the field of foreign language teaching where specifications for roles for the teacher and learner in according to educational and language objectives.

Research Methodology

This study is framed as a quasi-experimental design. According to Kahn (1998), A quasi-experimental design is usually used in educational settings when experimental and control groups are naturally assembled groups (p. 175). In this study, participants were two groups (one an experimental group and the other a control/non-intervention group). The students were 102 first-year university students from the National University of Costa Rica taking the course Integrated English I. They all had similar English levels A1 based on their scores in a pre-intervention language performance assessment. The research method employed various instruments, a pedagogical intervention, currently taking place throughout the first semester in 2020. English language participants were given, at the beginning of the semester a pretest questionnaire designed to identify students' English language and intercultural

communicative competence perceptions, 5-item Likert scale to self-assess their ICC, and an intercultural test. The students will take a post-test at the end of the semester. Data from qualitative instruments such as observations, interviews, and teacher and students' journals are gathered.

ICC intervention guidelines: a combined approach

In the context of ICC, the literature is clear to pinpoint that there is no suitable, instructional, perfect model to be applied in general settings due to the complex characteristics of culture. Even though, culture emerges from complexity this idea should not discourage the integration of culture in the language classroom. There is extensive literature exposing widely accepted models that can serve as a foundation for researchers, practitioners, and educators to consult, combine, adapt, or build from to propose ICC pedagogical practices or interventions in their specific teaching contexts. For this study, the intervention proposal was built upon Byram's work, one of the most influential models of ICC. The pedagogic proposal considered insights, components, guidelines, and practical implications for language educators willing to add a more integral foreign language teaching and learning.

Before designing the proposal, students' needs were identified by conducting a diagnostic questionnaire. This instrument showed students had a positive perception of the integration of ICC in language learning. Besides, students believed they had a deficient ICC. The proposed pedagogical intervention for this study is framed under a combined approach of two popular language approaches CLIL and PBL (content and language integrated learning and project-based learning) that would serve as a platform to facilitate contextualized language opportunities outline with general and specific language objectives.

When it comes to developing intercultural communication skills in students using a combined approach, teachers must be clear about the objectives they pursue. For example, in the specific intervention described here general objectives intent to ensure students are given sufficient target language input, are given enough opportunities for students to think critically, prepare students to develop collaborative work, develop skills to present projects addressing global or communities issues, are prepared to establish empathetic relationships; help them appreciate their own culture; guide them to rediscover their own culture in comparison to others; help them to understand the relationship between language and culture; encourage their curiosity about their own culture as a way to enrich their learning and guide students to learn intercultural key concepts.

(Byram, Gribkova and Starkey, 2002) propose following objectives; establish relations with people from other cultures and to accept them as individuals with different points of view, values, and behavior; help them to appreciate the enriching nature of these experiences and relationships; help them to understand the relationship between their own culture and other cultures; stimulate their interest and curiosity about otherness, and help them to become aware of how others perceive themselves and their culture

The units designed for the intervention consider theoretical constructs and key principals from the mentioned approaches. The pedagogic intervention titled "*ICC through CLIL-PBL*" (*Intercultural communicative competence through Content and language integrated learning combined with Project-based learning*) was designed to make students feel connected, interested, and identified with the essential idea of integrating ICC in the language learning while reinforcing foreign language skills. Content, language, and project tasks are used to

boost their exposure to the language and the development of skills essential today. To mediate those objectives, a wide range of teaching resources are being used. For instance, videos, photos, quotes, idioms, stories, songs, language exercises, vocabulary, cognitive activations, diagrams, journals, content analysis, debates, case-studies, role-plays, infographics, advertisement story writing, group-work, apps, movies, and projects and homework. They are used regularly to facilitate reflection, self-discovery, or rediscovery of the learner's own culture in the process.

The content selected intended to favor not only ICC mediation but an integral student's academic formation, critical cultural awareness, and global citizenship.

Table 2. ICC intervention indicators guiding the experiment

Dimensions		
Knowledge	<p>Concepts of culture, interculturality, and global citizenship.</p> <p>Key aspects of one's own culture (e.g. Costa Rican identity trajectory, historical and socio-political moments).</p> <p>Similarities and differences in values, among one's own culture and other cultures (e.g., economy, living conditions, educational system, behaviors, social interactions, basic routines, family, work, and time orientation).</p> <p>Knowledge about Costa Rican heritage, folklore, celebrations, and traditions.</p> <p>Knowledge about some social norms, business etiquette, lifestyle, blue zones, happiness, achievement success.</p> <p>Reflecting about stereotypes associated with other cultures.</p> <p>Aspects of verbal and non-verbal communication styles in different cultures.</p> <p>The cultural dimension of individualism and collectivism, the low and high context culture.</p>	<p>Cultural Critical Awareness</p> <p>Aware of the cultural diversity in one's country.</p> <p>Willingness to learn about cultures.</p> <p>Understanding differences in behavior, values, attitudes, and lifestyle between cultures.</p> <p>Adapting English communication skills when interacting with culturally diverse people.</p> <p>Aware of highlighting differences and similarities between my own Costa Rican and that of others for positive purposes.</p> <p>Recognizing the risks of overgeneralizations.</p>
Attitudes	<p>Interested in learning the English language while reflecting and reinforcing knowledge of Costa Rican or native culture and of others.</p> <p>Interested in interacting in English with other culturally different people to discover other cultural perspectives and develop intercultural communicative competence.</p> <p>Recognizing the importance of learning about similarities and differences between other countries' cultures while learning English.</p> <p>Interested in understanding differences in behavior, values, attitudes, and lifestyles of culturally different people to communicate effectively.</p> <p>Maintaining an open, positive, and flexible attitude towards different points of view in favor of tolerance and empathy and to avoid prejudice.</p> <p>Adapting my behavior to communicate appropriately with people from different cultures to ensure peaceful communication and coexistence with others.</p>	

Skills	<p>Demonstrating confidence and flexibility when interacting with people from different cultures, by using intercultural knowledge (verbal, non-verbal communication, proxemics, time orientation). Showing respect and empathy for people who have different values and behaviors.</p> <p>Using strategies to support my process of learning English and that of my native culture.</p> <p>Interpreting foreign cultural aspects and manifestations without making judgments.</p> <p>Promoting a multicultural society based on respect, empathy, and global citizenship.</p> <p>Comparing different cultural practices, behaviors, and traditions with those of my own culture.</p> <p>Analyzing content and situations from different cultural perspectives to learn and grow.</p> <p>communicate aspects of my Costa Rican culture in the English language.</p> <p>Proposing and develop projects that help me understand cultural aspects in one's community.</p>	
--------	--	--

Source: Designed based on Byram, 1997 literature.

Guidelines

During the previous phases in the design, a diagnostic instrument was applied to identify students' perceptions and needs towards ICC. and should also lead to cognitive activation.

An analysis was conducted to establish the goals and intercultural learning, culture theories that would outline the intervention. It means deciding the type of cultural knowledge based on objectives that could be related to Big C or small c which means addressing the concept from a general viewpoint of culture or a specific one. Culture-specific and culture general refer to the kind of knowledge and skills that help people understand other cultures. A specific lens revises a deep understanding of one cultural context through detailed cultural knowledge. On the other hand, the general perspective organizes intercultural information and concepts that look at the general principles of culture.

Consider one of the principals in any learning process, start by introducing simple, basic concepts and tasks to later move to the most complex.

Provide students an active role by making them participate in their learning; proposing topics for learning or a selection of tasks to approach.

Keep in mind the dialogic, interactional aspect of ICC. Content should build from students' context, lifestyle, culture, and interest.

Select the pedagogical framework that would serve the specific group's characteristics as well as the educator's style to mediate the process. In this specific study, the researcher combines two language approaches CLIL and PBL.

A balance between the core ICC components is necessary. In this regard, Guykunst et al.,(1991) believes that a balance between affective and behaviors even in introductory courses should

be integrated. Interactive, sequential and a holistic vision to ICC is to be kept throughout the course without neglecting emphasis on language skills.

A selection of techniques, activities, and exercises should be varied to keep students interested

The role of the facilitator should be as a coach mediating and facilitating multi-varied opportunities for learners to become lifelong learners, mindful citizens, emphatic, and able to see diversity as a strength.

Educators themselves should be constantly learning and interested in developing ICC to transmit it as a vital competence.

Assess the effectiveness of the ICC process to draw lines for future research or pedagogical practice.

Results and Discussion

This paper intended to direct some reflection towards designing a pedagogical intercultural intervention at tertiary education with elementary English learners. Intercultural learning in the language classroom seems an effective teaching way not only to reinforce language skills and intercultural communicative competence but also as an opportunity for learners to get an integral education. Setting language objectives to explicitly develop ICC can be a platform to educate new generations of citizens better equipped with abilities and competencies like learning to learn, active social participation and collaboration in multicultural settings with an open mind, able to adapt, negotiate and most importantly to respond to present and future global challenges.

For this intervention, some data has been collected through qualitative instruments. Direct observation facilitates an understanding of the phenomena under study and the contexts in which it occurs (Hatch, 2002). In preliminary observations, some insights are being registered about the students and the process. There is evidence that contextualized tasks elicit in students a higher level of confidence but as the language tasks become more complex in analysis and reflection learners tend to hesitate more to participate. Fast learners lead discussions and are always willing to participate to give their opinions. It has been observed a generalized perception of interest and curiosity portrayed in students' focus and concentration while working in groups. They show a positive attitude towards learning about their own culture, new content, and vocabulary through the language tasks and projects proposed. There seems to be a sense of wonder and rediscovery when students realize that other cultures are so different but at the same time very similar to their own.

During speaking activities, they are willing to listen to and respect their classmates' opinions even if they disagree. In this sense, they seem open to change certain ideas if the information is factual, real, and truthful. As the intervention continues students seem more confident to ask questions about cultural topics, which shows their curiosity is increasing. Another important aspect observed during the observations is that students seem surprised when they learn about their own culture, in such moments some students expressed not thinking about it in such a way before. This says a lot about the self-reflection and rediscovery of their own culture an element not usually brought to reflection.

Concerning the project, students have demonstrated a positive learning outcome, the quality of material and resources used in their products showed students commitment to carried out the project, and the willingness to present a good product collaboratively. Regarding language

use, students seem to ask for clarification and some of them try to use new words learned from the intercultural content. The varied activities mediated in the intervention seem to provide opportunities for students to feel more active and independent in their learning. They looked interested and more confident as weeks move on to express ideas about their own culture. Tasks incited their effort to speak in the foreign language even slow learners felt they had something to say and add to class conversations. Additionally, students reinforced respect by expressing ideas and listening to those of others. There was a dynamic learning environment encouraging the learner's cultural context.

Participants are also completing journals every week after studying and reflecting on each intercultural unit mediated by two language approaches CLIL and PBL So far, students have completed 6 units from which they keep a journal to reflect on what they have learned. This is an effective instrument to record students' progress, understanding, and transformation. The varied language opportunities framed by the two influential language approaches mentioned seem to present students with a dynamic view of intercultural learning. The preliminary data is showing some positive insights since students' interests are observed to be higher. Their journals' comments seem to resonate with the findings in the observation. Positive reflections towards the acceptance of studying culture in the language classroom. There is a common understanding that the concept of culture is dynamic.


Journal writing

1. Write ideas about what you have learnt and consider some important aspects to remember when working with culturally different people in the workplace.

This topic has taught me to know more about the appropriate treatment that we should give to different people from other cultures, as well as respect every act that they want to share.

2. Investigate about common communication problems that happen in the workplace between Costa Rican workers and other people from diverse cultures

Some of the problems presented are the type of language used, as well as the difference that exists when mentioning a word that perhaps in the Costa Rican culture has another meaning and that for another culture is different.

 13 may.

Write your reaction about the content, cultural insights discussed in today's lesson: How Costa Ricans and other cultures view time and the idea of time and HAPPINESS.

The meaning of happiness has changed over time, and people appreciate time differently. The United States is one of the fastest paced countries in the world, perhaps partly because many Americans are always looking to the future, for the "American Dream". It is a culture that values busy-ness, a life-style with success, status and importance. Japan is extremely time-conscious culture, giving emphasis on time management and efficient lifestyles. Increasingly, Brazil. past

How can hapiness differ around the world? Look the photos... What comes to your mind?
That happiness does not depend on what we have but on how we react and that we are happier if we have company.

difference between the two. Also I've learnt that being polite is such a hard thing to do when you are trying to communicate with other cultures and that make me feel a little bit annoyed because, unless you have made your homework and have studied the other person's culture on beforehand, you would never guess all the different mistakes and misunderstandings you could commit in an interaction.

Write some differences about nonverbal communication gestures of body language between Costa Rican culture and any other culture you might be interested about.

Well I'm interested in Japanese culture and this culture is heavily respectful so much so that sometimes it could be even consider a cold one in comparison to Costa Rica's culture. Japanese have a way of thinking which states that you must try to not bother other people, that your feelings are yours and you're the only one who should deal with them, so if you're sad you are not going to make other people sad, in Costa Rica that's a big difference, because we are too much expressive sometimes, even with strangers we tend to express our emotions and feelings with easiness.

Know about cultural misunderstandings in the different countries can be very helpful to me to avoid mistakes when I'm talking to foreigners.

Know about culture is always important to learn any language.

be Brespectful and tolerant, each culture has its own set of values and prejudices.
be patient we must speak clearly, respect personal space, all cultures have different forms of verbal or non-verbal communication, we must respect them so as not to cause discomfort or problems.

Table 3..Students' Journal samples

The previous comments in the journals show positive and receptive attitudes towards other cultures and, at the same time, lead them to autonomous learning in a integral process of learning intercultural knowledge and a rediscovery of one's own culture. Providing opportunities to practice the target language in context for meaningful intercultural communication may guide participants to become aware of the varied world visions linked to cultures. Language learners need help understanding that reflecting about these issues may add meaning to their learning process.

Many studies support the positive outcomes that can emerge in formal educational environments when merging language and culture during the foreign language learning. Therefore, practitioners should be willing to research, integrate, and implement ICC in the foreign learning process. It is critical to promote student's intercultural communitive competence at tertiary education taking into consideration certain practical guidelines and influential ICC models to design a suitable integration for particular contexts.

References

- [1] Byram, M. (1997). Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence. New York, NY: Multilingual Matters.
- [2] Byram, M., Gribkova, B., & Starkey, H. (2002). Developing the intercultural dimension on language teaching: a practical introduction for teachers. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- [3] Byram, M. (2008). From foreign language education to education from intercultural citizenship: Essays and reflections. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- [4] Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of Studies in Intercultural Education*, 10, 241-266.
- [5] Fried-Booth, D., L. (2002). Project work (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- [6] Gudykunst, W. B. (1991). Bridging differences: Effective intergroup communication. London: SAGE.
- [7] Hatch, J. A. (2002). Doing qualitative research in education settings. Albany: the State University of New York Press
- [8] Kramsch, C. (1998). Language and culture. Oxford, MA: Oxford University Press.
- [9] Liddicoat, A. J., & Scarino, A. (2013). Intercultural language teaching and learning. West Sussex, UK: Blackwell Publishing, John Wiley & Sons.
- [10] Spitzberg, B. H., & Changnon, G. (2009). Conceptualizing Intercultural Competence. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence* (pp. 2-52). California: Sage Publications

Competitiveness of Tourist Destinations Theoretical Study of the Main Models

Diamantino Ribeiro

Universidade de Évora; CEFAGE-UÉ,

Pedro Henriques

Universidade de Évora; CEFAGE-UÉ

Luiz Pinto Machado

Universidade da Madeira, CEFAGE-UÉ

Abstract

Since the early 1990s, several models have been developed to study and analyze the Competitiveness of Tourist Destinations (CTD). The importance of using models that allow results focused on destination performance and real-time access to results by decision makers and managers is fundamental; this premise has motivated us to study in depth the scope and applicability in time and space of each of the 9 models analyzed (1. Crouch e Ritchie (1999); 2. Dwyer e Kim (2003); 3. Enright e Newton (2004); 4. Gooroochurn e Sugiyarto (2005); 5. Fórum Mundial (2007); 6. Mazanec, Wöber e Zins (2007); 7. Hong (2008); 8. Kim (2012); 9. Cvelbar e al. (2016). The study made it possible to understand the virtue and usefulness of each model, which helped to systematize the advantages and disadvantages pointed out to each one and their eventual complementarity, and in this way we started the theoretical construction of a new CTD base model aligned with current needs, which will be the object of specific study in another article. This review of the literature led to the conclusion that, although there is a wide range of approaches, the various authors end up drawing an ideological line in terms of objectives and results for tourist destinations: the Competitiveness of the Tourist Destination should aim at the socio-economic prosperity of the destination and contribute to increase the well-being of the local population.

Keywords: Competitiveness; Tourist destination; Economy; Models; Tourism.

Introduction

As a result of the exponential growth of tourism, particularly in the years following the global financial crisis, there has been an almost unlimited expansion of tourism supply, which has consequently led to increased competition between tourist destinations, fostering creativity, innovation and continuous improvement. Other factors such as the ability to meet the expectations of modern tourists, the creation of new products and experiences, and the increase in the quality of services and products, contribute to greater competitive pressure from the organizations involved in the sector in general, and in each destination in particular.

It is therefore increasingly important to develop models that contribute to the assessment of the competitiveness of tourist destinations (CTD).

In this study, a theoretical review of the models most commonly used in the study of tourist destination competitiveness is carried out; this synthesis is part of a broader study on the competitiveness of tourist destinations and on the importance of using models that allow results focused on performance and real-time access to results by decision-makers and managers, so that their intervention and decision is focused, effective and agile.

To this end, it is particularly important to understand to what extent CTD models can contribute to creating a real competitive advantage and how their approach is simply analytical or whether they can somehow be implemented as a management tool, contributing to good governance and results-oriented management of the member organisations of a tourist destination.

Some models of Tourist Destination Competitiveness

One of the major problematic issues of this subject is related to the conceptual approach. There are many definitions of tourist destination and competitiveness of tourist destination. It is not intended to carry out a study on the different approaches, some aspects of these two concepts are highlighted.

First of all, the presence of attraction factors (physical, resources, natural landscape or social factors, such as the spoken language and the sympathy of the local population) are considered necessary conditions, but not sufficient to transform a territory into a tourist destination. The key factor for the rise and continued development of a tourist destination lies in the quality and effectiveness of relations between service providers and, between them and the environment of the destination. Effective relations can offer the tourist destination the basis for agility in dynamic and turbulent market conditions. Offering an ever more demanding tourist an integral, flexible and personal experience, as a result of interactions between specialized service providers, can be a winning strategy for the tourist destination to develop in a sustainable way and emerge in global competition (Ammirato, 2014; Dunn Ross, E., Iso-Ahola, 1991; Buckley, 1994).

Tourism competitiveness is based on the level of productivity determined by the set of tourist product destinations, policies, environmental factors and competitive advantage (Cucculelli, M., & Goffi, 2016; Koo, C., Shin, S., Gretzel, U., Hunter, W. C., & Chung, 2016).

Additionally, the level of competitiveness is the main determinant of a destination's performance in the global tourism sector (Hanafiah, M., Hemdi, M., & Ahmad, 2016b).

In short, a destination must remain competitive to optimize its full potential and sustain and control a large part of the rapidly growing tourism market (Hanafiah, M., Hemdi, M., & Ahmad, 2016a). The competitiveness applied to Tourism and in particular to Tourist Destinations refers to the ability of a given destination to provide goods and services considered by Tourists superior to other competing destinations (Abrham, 2014).

To maintain the competitiveness of a destination, stakeholders need to continuously improve tourism offers by developing new services and products. This is a key challenge for tourist destinations to strengthen and even maintain their competitive positions in an increasingly competitive global market (Forum, 2013). Also, the assessment of the competitiveness of a destination depends directly on the policies adopted, especially with regard to resource

management. For this reason, the issue of tourist destination competitiveness has become essential for strategic planning and for researchers of tourist destination issues (Mendola, D., & Volo, 2017).

We now present the CTD models that in our opinion have stood out in scientific literature in recent years.

Calgary model from Ritchie and Crouch (1999)

One of the most recognised contributions in this area is undoubtedly the model proposed by Ritchie e Crouch (1999). Its main objective is to identify and consider the important factors that characterize the competitiveness of a destination (Duarte, Simões, & Crespo, 2016)

The authors were pioneers in developing conceptual contributions on the competitiveness of tourist destinations (CTD), developing the well-known Calgary competitiveness model (Garau, 2006; Hanafiah, M. & Zulkifly, 2019).

With the Calgary model, the authors offer a frame of reference to help the destination compete more efficiently and argue that one of the goals of a competitive tourist destination is to increase the well-being of the local population. The authors establish that in order to understand the long-term competitiveness of a destination, two elements must be taken into account:

- comparative advantage (endogenous resources) which are the resources of the destination (human resources, physical resources, knowledge of resources, availability of capital, tourism infrastructure, historical and cultural resources and size of the economy) and
- competitive advantage (deployed resources) that concern the ability to use these resources effectively in the long term (auditing and inventory, maintenance, growth and development, and efficiency).

Ritchie e Crouch (1999) consider that the competitiveness of tourism is always conditioned by factors external to the system itself.

They identify as macroenvironmental:

- economic, technological, environmental, political, legal, socio-cultural and demographic factors.

On the other hand, the authors take into consideration the competitiveness of the microenvironment:

- residents, employees, social circles, financial institutions, tourists, tourism enterprises, etc..

Ritchie e Crouch propose a model whose key are the resources, since they work as attraction factors and attract tourists to the destination. According to the authors, competitiveness depends essentially on resources and basic attractions and on factors supporting the destination itself.

They also contemplate the existence of a policy of planning and development of destinations, in addition to limiting and/or amplifying determining factors that influence competitiveness.

Crouch and Ritchie's conceptual model is not a "predictive or causal" model, but only explanatory.

In addition to the elements indicated, the authors state that the following aspects should also be considered:

- Determinants and sustainability of the destination (location, interdependencies, security, awareness/image, cost/value).
- Policy, Planning and Development of the Destination (definition of the system, philosophy/values, vision, audit, positioning/branding, development, competitive/collaborative analysis, monitoring and evaluation).
- Destination Management (resources, marketing, financing, organization, human resources development, information/research, quality of service/experience, visitor management, crisis management).
- Resources and Basic Attractions (climate, culture, history, market links, mix of activities, special events, entertainment and structure).
- Support Factors and Resources (infrastructure, accessibility, facilitating resources, hospitality, business, political willingness).

The Calgary model has been improved several times by other tourism researchers and continues to be constantly tested, strengthened, and challenged. For example, Kim (2012), criticised the structure of Ritchie and Crouch for failing to recognise the role of the economy and globalisation in the competitiveness of destinations. Heath (2003), also criticized the model for ignoring the impact of environmental factors on the competitiveness of fate. In turn, Beeton (2005), expresses concern that the Calgary model of Ritchie and Crouch focuses on a specific tourism model that seems to come mainly from research in developed countries rather than including undeveloped countries. In addition, there is concern that the Calgary model of Ritchie and Crouch will focus on a specific tourism model that seems to come mainly from research carried out in developed countries rather than including undeveloped countries, Dwyer e Kim (2003) They argued that the Ritchie and Crouch model was not sufficient to account for the competitiveness of the tourist destination, since only tourism supply factors were used, while demand factors were neglected. Another limitation is that some of the indices proposed by the authors could not be calculated, apart from excluding ecological quality (Duarte et al., 2016).

However, the studies developed by Crouch and Richie served as a basis for several studies and authors that complemented the model, alerting however the need for constant comparisons between the various competitors (destinations) for a certain set of indicators representative of their competitiveness (Hong, 2008; Ivars-Baidal, Celdrán-Bernabeu, Mazón, & Perles-Ivars, 2019; Mendola, D., & Volo, 2017).

In 2003, Heath presents a model for South Africa's competitiveness that manages to encompass elements from the more generalist literature, but also indicators of competitiveness in tourism defined by authors such as Crouch and Ritchie.

According to Hong (2008), the Calgary model, although adequate and precise to explain the phenomenon of tourism competitiveness, has some limitations in terms of its transposition into measurement exercises, therefore, it does not define any order of importance of the factors, nor does it reflect on the interaction between comparative advantages, competitive advantages and tourism competitiveness and, finally, it uses a qualitative rather than quantitative approach (Hong, 2008).

Dwyer and Kim model (2003)

Dwyer e Kim (2003) complement the CTD model of Crouch e Ritchie (1999) adding several variables.

Dwyer and Kim's model establishes a clearer relationship between the dimensions, allowing the identification of those that directly or indirectly influence competitiveness; moreover, it proposes new indicators, complementing some limitations that some authors pointed out to the model of Crouch e Ritchie (1999).

Dwyer e Kim (2003), in line with Crouch and Ritchie (1999), argue that the competitiveness of fate is an objective for socio-economic prosperity.

Although the Dwyer and Kim model has several variables to evaluate competitiveness, it is not easy to apply as it lacks information that allows comparing different destinations (Domareski-Ruiz, Akel, & Gonçalves Gândara, 2015).

The set of indicators developed by Dwyer and Kim are important for the definition of the CTD. The model proposed by Dwyer e Kim (2003) considers four main determinants distributed in four blocks:

- Resources
- Tourism destination management
- Situational conditions
- Demand

These determinants complement each other in order to achieve tourism competitiveness. They therefore argue that the results of competitiveness should be visible in the socio-economic prosperity of the tourist destination and in increasing the quality of life of its population (Domareski-Ruiz et al., 2015).

Dwyer and Kim's Model identifies six main factors:

1. Main resources (resources endowed and created);
2. Support factors and resources (general infrastructure, quality of services and accessibility);
3. Destination management factors (activities and functions);
4. Conditions of demand (consciousness, perception and preferences);
5. Situational conditions (economic, social, cultural, demographic, environmental, political, etc.)
6. Market performance indicators.

Dwyer and Kim's model objectively suggests links between the various elements of the CTD when compared to Calgary's model, (Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, 2003). In addition, Dwyer and Kim's model recognises supply and demand conditions as essential determinants of CTD, which is in line with the concept that a competitive destination must constantly seek to increase demand by continuously developing tourism products.

Domareski e Ruiz (2015) mention some limitations of the model, including its practical application, since the collection of information on each destination, although it considers it

useful, may become impractical in terms of cost and also due to the lack of available data that allow comparison between destinations (Domareski-Ruiz et al., 2015).

The model built by Dwyer and Kim was used to measure the competitiveness of destinations like South Korea and Australia. The authors consider several indicators to quantify the competitiveness of destinations, but recognize that they could have added or adjusted the basis of the research (Dwyer, L., & Kim, 2003).

Furthermore, according to Kim and Dwyer, it would be interesting to evaluate the indicators according to their degree of importance for tourism in South Korea or Australia; but such action would be complicated as it would require a very disaggregated examination of the reasons for visitors to each destination and continuous monitoring of changes in their preferences.

The model was applied by Dwyer e Kim, (2003) first in Australia and then in Korea; then Gomezelj (2006) used in Slovenia followed by several other researchers such as Omerzel and Mihalic (2008), Armenski et al (2011), Khoshkhou et al (2015).

Lee and King (2009) developed a study on the determinants of Taiwan's competitiveness as a tourist destination using the Delphi method; building on earlier research by Dwer and Kim, Ritchie e Crouch (2003) e Enright e Newton (2004) The authors identified in a pilot study a total of 69 determinants separated into three dimensions and nineteen topics of analysis.

In the year 2011, Crouch sought to assess the importance and impact of a set of attributes of competitiveness, which were analyzed by a panel of experts using the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP); this study concluded that of the 36 attributes analyzed, 10 attributes were identified whose importance was recognized, being the physiography and climate, mix of activities, culture and history, tourist superstructure, security, value/cost, accessibility, special events, recognition and image and also location.

Enright and Newton model (2004)

Enright e Newton (2004) argue that the CTD is related to the capacity of attraction and satisfaction of tourists. The authors present a simple CTD model, aimed at empirical application. For them, the competitiveness of the tourist destination should not be seen as an abstract element, being necessary to define measurement parameters that allow an evolutionary and comparative evaluation between destinations.

In the model developed, the perspective of importance-performance analysis is adopted, presenting results based on the combination of the importance of each question of the tourist destination's competitiveness with the destination's performance in each of these aspects.

In this way, Enright and Newton improve the previous theoretical perspectives by distinguishing the determinants of the tourist destination's competitiveness by degree of importance. The model consists of a long list of determinants of tourist destination competitiveness, separated into two categories: tourism-specific factors and business factors in general (Enright, M. & Newton, 2004).

The list of specific factors has been drawn up based on the key and attractive resources of Ritchie e Crouch (1999), Some adaptations and the addition of specific items of urban destinations are made based on previous studies on the subject. For the definition of business factors in general, it has expanded the research beyond the area of tourism, taking as reference

the literature on competitiveness in a broader way. Altogether, 52 variables were listed, 14 being related to tourism specific factors and 37 to business factors in general.

Enright e Newton, (2004) study the competitiveness of tourist destinations from the perspective of supply, specifically conducted surveys of professionals in the tourism sector in Hong Kong. They first inquire about the importance of attractive and business factors in the competitiveness of urban tourism in the Asia-Pacific area. They then compare Hong Kong with its main competitors and estimate the relative competitiveness of each country in relation to these factors. The authors use the IPA grid, a method of frequent analysis in tourist destination research, but not in the literature in general, which allows them to prioritize among the determinants of competitiveness and of Hong Kong's relative position relative to its main competing destinations (Garau, 2006). The model also shows the result of the analysis in a more accessible and practical way for decision making (Enright, M. & Newton, 2004).

It allows the identification of the key factors of the destination represented in four quadrants:

Q1- Attributes to maintain: the destination is in a better position than its competitors.

Q2- Useless efforts: the destination has a good relative position, but they are not important factors for competitiveness.

Q3- Non-Determinants: elements which, although they do not have a good relative position, are also not decisive in their competitiveness.

Q4-Fundamentals: attributes where fate has to concentrate, as these are important elements and fate does not yet have a good relative situation.

The authors intend to contribute with a quantitative analysis and an empirical methodology that is able to provide a basis for management and political decision-making in the tourism sector. In addition, this study identifies a number of competitors in urban tourism in the Asia-Pacific region and proposes a classification of the importance of attractions and factors related to the tourism industry in the region. However, they are unable to achieve a ranking of destinations' competitiveness and do not take into account the motivations of visitors (Garau, 2006).

The contribution of Enright e Newton, (2004) makes it possible to compare the competitiveness of one destination against another or other competing destinations. For this reason, it is impossible to establish a ranking of competitiveness of destinations. In some cases, the data are processed only in the country being studied and not in that of its competitors. In addition, they sometimes identify countries that they consider to be major competitors without comparing them.

Gooroochurn e Sugiyarto Model (2005)

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), in collaboration with the Christel DeHaan Travel Research Institute (TTRI) at the University of Nottingham, has created the "Competitiveness Monitor (CM)" for tourism in order to develop benchmarks between countries (Gooroochurn, N., & Sugiyarto, 2005).

Gooroochurn e Sugiyarto, (2005) believe that not all factors have equal impact on the competitiveness of the tourist destination. The weights, from zero to one, granted to each of the eight indicators, are as follows:

1. Technology (0,220).
2. Social Index (0,217).
3. Human Resources (0,153).
4. Price (0,147).
5. Openness (0,126).
6. Infrastructure (0,101).
7. Human Factor (0,033).
8. Environment (0,003).

After calculating the competitiveness index, a classification is assigned which makes it possible to establish the degree of CTD of the respective countries (Garau, 2006).

From the application of the model, it is concluded that the most competitive tourist destinations are: United States, Sweden, Norway, Finland, and Australia. The less competitive ones are: Burkina Faso, Chad, Benin, Ethiopia and Cambodia (Gooroochurn, N., & Sugiyarto, 2005).

Gooroochurn e Sugiyarto, (2005), try to solve the issue of lack of data and thus manage to compare the competitiveness of several countries (Garau, 2006). Meanwhile, Garau, (2006), states that the model reports some visible disadvantages in the results. They reveal that, except for the United States, none of the other countries mentioned above as more competitive appears in the ranking of the most visited countries in the world (according to the world ranking of the main tourist destinations in millions of tourist arrivals) such as France, Spain, China and Italy. In addition, the weight given to the indicators may be questionable (for example, the indicator with the greatest weight is Technology, while the Environment is considered the lowest weight factor).

Authors, such as Ritchie e Crouch, (2003), and others, emphasize that natural and environmental resources are one of the main attractions of a destination (Garau, 2006).

The indicators presented refer to social, human, economic and environmental aspects. However, they do not take into account the business structure of tourist destinations and therefore deviate from the structural approach that considers the company as an essential part of the competitiveness of destinations (Flores, D. & Barroso, 2009).

Navickas (2009), based on the Competitiveness Monitor described above, has modified some of the indicators used in this model to assess the competitiveness of tourist destinations and included additional indicators to reflect the conditions necessary for a contemporary tourism system. For example, the price competitiveness indicator was complemented with the restaurant price indicator and the prices of tourism supply of goods and services (souvenirs, etc.). Regarding infrastructure development indicators, they propose to improve the competitiveness of tourist destinations by aggregating more transport-related indicators: rail network, quality of the telecommunications system and airlines. Regarding the human dimension of the tourism sector, they add the population indicator; finally, in terms of social development indicators, they replace the "personal computers" indicator with "number of cafés with Internet".

Some authors such as Taberner, (2007) indicate that the results of the Competitiveness Monitor deviate from reality, since countries considered to be more competitive do not end up appearing among the main international destinations (Vieira, D., Hoffmann, V., Dias, C., & Carvalho, 2009).

World Economic Forum Models (2007)

The World Economic Forum was established in 1971 as a non-profit foundation and is based in Geneva, Switzerland. Its activities are based on an institutional culture founded on the interest of the parties, stating that organizations are responsible for themselves and all parts of society (Aguillar, 2017).

Its main mission is the commitment to improving the state of the world. The Forum brings together the world's leading political leaders, businesses, and other members of society at large who define regional and global agendas and their own. The main elements of the World Economic Forum are independence, impartiality and detachment from any special interest (Aguillar, 2017).

The World Economic Forum defines competitiveness as the set of institutions, policies and factors that determine the level of productivity of an economy. This definition has evolved since 2000, where it is added that a competitive country enables a high standard of living, employment, and economic growth in the medium and long term. It may be implied that, since then, economic and geopolitical issues are changing and economies are moving forward and forward very rapidly, and the competitive concept must also be reworked (Aguillar, 2017).

O Fórum Económico Mundial publicou o Índice de Competitividade Global (ICG), desenvolvido por Xavier Sala-Martín em colaboração com o Fórum. O ICG combina 114 indicadores que capturam conceitos importantes para a produtividade e a prosperidade a longo prazo e que se agrupam em 12 pilares:

1. Institutions
2. Infrastructures
3. Macroeconomic environment
4. Health and primary education
5. Higher education and training
6. Efficiency of the goods market
7. Efficient labour market development
8. Technological Rapidity
9. Market size
- 10 Sophistication
11. Innovation
12. Business

These pillars are organized within three sub-indices: basic requirements, increased efficiency and factors of sophistication and innovation.

Almost thirty years after the start of work in the field of competitiveness, the World Economic Forum created in 2007 the "Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index" (TTCI) due to the great importance of the sector for the world economy.

At the World Economic Forum, the TTCI is defined as measuring the set of factors and policies that enable the sustainable development of the travel and tourism sector, which in turn contributes to the development and competitiveness of the country (World Economic Forum, 2015).

In the last edition of the CTD, published in 2015, data from 141 countries were presented. The methodology developed has undergone some adaptations since its creation in 2007, but has maintained the same logical structure. Currently, the TTCI is composed of four sub-indices; each sub-indices is composed of different pillars. Finally, each pillar is made up of a series of measurable indicators. The TTCI is made up of the successive aggregation of scores, from the indicator level to the sub-indices level, by means of arithmetic mean. Thus, all indicators have the same weight in the formation of the pillars, all pillars have the same weight in the formation of the sub-indices, and all sub-indices are equally important in the formation of the final index (World Economic Forum, 2015).

The TTCI has been specially designed for application in countries; for this reason it becomes difficult to use in regions or destinations (G. I. Crouch, 2011); since tourism is a local economic activity, an analysis at country level cannot distinguish between local or regional realities (Rodrigues, L., & Carrasqueira, 2011).

Mazanec, Wöber and Zins Model (2007)

Mazanec, Wöber e Zins (2007) present a theoretical model of Tourist Destination Competitiveness distinguishing causes and consequences. According to the authors, the previously published models confuse these two categories of variables both in theoretical terms and in their empirical applications.

In their theoretical model, they consider that the CTD results from 8 factors that can be estimated based on 25 measurable indicators; the 8 factors, are:

- 1) Openness: visa requirement for foreigners, openness to tourism, openness to trade, taxation on international trade.
- 2) Culture and heritage: World Heritage Sites.
- 3) Infrastructure: roads, public health structures, access to drinking water.
- 4) Communication structure: Internet hosts, fixed telephone lines, mobile telephony.
- 5) Social competitiveness: GDP per capita, life expectancy, newspapers, television sets.
- 6) Price competitiveness: hotel rates, purchasing power parity.
- 7) Environmental preservation: population density, carbon dioxide emissions, ratified environmental treaties.
- 8) Education: adult literacy rate, schooling.

In addition, they state that the CTD has as a consequence the market share and the growth rate of tourism demand of the destination. Market share is measured in two different ways, in a common way and in such a way as to deduct the effect of the distances between the receiving

countries and the main tourist issuing markets. This set of consequences is used as a way of measuring the CTD.

The model developed was empirically tested in a sample of 169 countries. The parameters were estimated using a model of structural equations with treatment for missing data. The results led to the conclusion that the factors "culture and heritage", "social competitiveness" and "education" contribute to the CTD. On the other hand, the communication structure revealed a negligible influence on CTD, while the influences of price competitiveness, infrastructure, environmental preservation and openness were not confirmed (Mazanec, J. A., Wöber, K., & Zins, 2007).

Hong Model (2008)

Hong (2008) identifies two main approaches to competitiveness measurement issues:

- In a first topic, the competitiveness of a given industry is assessed from the point of view of cost-benefit analyses, the most common being those related to productivity or prices.
- Another approach focuses on the resources of a given organization, such as assets, organizational processes, information or knowledge.

The recognition of the polemic related to the identification of a factor as determining the competitiveness of an industry has led to the development of several approaches to measuring competitiveness that consider numerous factors and that, following this observation, establish relative rankings (Hong, 2008).

Hong refers to tourism competitiveness as "the ability of a destination to create, integrate and offer tourist experiences, including value-added products and services considered important by tourists". (Hong, 2009, p. 109).

According to the author, these tourist experiences support the resources of a destination and contribute to maintaining a good market position in relation to other competitors.

The author suggests a model for analyzing the competitiveness of a tourist destination that takes into account the comparative advantages of Ricardo:

- natural resource conditions (exogenous comparative advantages)
- degree of technological change (endogenous comparative advantages)

and Porter's competitive advantages, which explain the increase in trade between countries with similar allocations of factors; tourism management, offering quality education and training to improve comparative and competitive advantages; and, finally, environmental conditions, both domestic and global (Hong, 2009).

Hong refers to the Ritchie and Crouch model as the most important work in assessing the competitiveness of tourism. However, it states that there are certain issues to be improved. With his model, he wants to address some of the gaps he identifies in the Calgary model.

- First, the author clarifies that the order of factors and categories of variables should be treated more strictly, according to their relevance.
- Second, he states that the Calgary model does not evaluate the interaction between comparative and competitive advantages and tourism competitiveness.

• Finally, it points out that many of the factors present in the Ritchie and Crouch model are evaluated in a qualitative rather than quantitative manner.

The model and methodology proposed by Hong allow us to weigh and prioritize the importance of each factor and indicator in terms of their contribution to the competitiveness of the tourist destination.

1. Exogenous comparative advantages are the most important factor (49.18%) for improving the competitiveness of a tourist destination and, more specifically, the cultural and natural resources;
2. Other important factors are competitive advantages (17.27%);
3. Tourism management (12.01%);
4. Endogenous comparative advantages (10.62%)
5. Overall environmental conditions (6.03%);
6. The least relevant factor is the domestic environment conditions (4.89%)

Modelo de Kim (2012)

Kim (2012) suggests the tourist destination as a model of competitiveness divided into two groups of countries (high and low income) in order to identify the most significant factors of this competitiveness. The degree of impact of the factors is different between the two groups of countries analyzed: for countries with higher incomes, the most important factor is the main resources; while for countries with low incomes, it is the globalization of the economy (Kim, 2012).

Thus, Kim applied his competitiveness model to the study of a set of countries, and used as determining questions:

- The main features and attractions.
- Complementary conditions (tourist infrastructure and destination infrastructure in general terms).
- Destination management.
- Demand conditions.

The indicators used are part of the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index of the World Economic Forum.

Among the main features and attractions are the variables:

- natural resources (sites classified as natural heritage by UNESCO, protected areas and environmental quality);
- cultural resources (sites classified as cultural heritage by UNESCO);
- created resources (sports stadiums per capita, average number of fairs and exhibitions and percentage of exports of creative industries).

Complementary conditions include the following variables:

- tourism infrastructure.
- air infrastructure.
- ground infrastructure.
- information and communication technology infrastructure, hospitality and accessibility.

The management of the destination includes:

- the prioritization of tourism policy (TTCI score);
- the quality of the education system;
- the availability of educational and training services;
- the degree of training of human resources and;
- environmental management (sustainability of tourism development, CO2 emissions per capita and number of environmental treaties ratified).

Finally, demand conditions include:

- price competitiveness (cost of access to destination, prices in purchasing power parity, taxation, fuel prices, average price of rooms),
- tourism receipts as a percentage of GDP and the recommendation of business trips.

Model of Cvelbar et al (2016).

According to Cvelbar et al (2016), The competitiveness of the tourist destination indicates the level of productivity of this activity, that is, the ratio between the tourist product and the amount of resources used in production.

In operational terms, the authors measure this variable based on the total contribution of tourism to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the country and on the number of workers in the tourism sector.

The model, places CTD as an intermediate objective, the final objective being the socio-economic prosperity of residents.

The CTD is then:

- a set of tourism factors (original resources, destination management and tourism infrastructure), and of
- a set of economic factors based on the economy (macro-environment, general infrastructure and the business environment)

Each factor was experimentally evaluated according to a series of indicators. 55 indicators were selected from 8 data sources, including: World Economic Forum, World Tourism Organization, World Travel and Tourism Council, United Nations Development Programme, International Living, Future Brand and Lonely Planet. The influence of each factor on the CDT was calculated from annual data from 139 countries for the period 2007 to 2011. The parameters were calculated using a statistical regression model.

Since the data used is a panel, the regression included fixed effects in order to address the interdependence of the data. The model was estimated for the total sample and also for partial samples, according to the level of development of the country. Thus, it was possible to evaluate the effect of each factor on CTD by distinguishing between developed and developing countries.

The results found showed that the main determinants of CTD are:

- the macroenvironment.
- the business environment.
- the general infrastructure.

It should be noted that these factors are part of the overall economic set of factors, not the tourism factors. The main determinant of the CDT in developing countries is the tourist infrastructure.

The influence of destination management on the CDT is small, especially in developing countries.

Finally, in the study, there are no compelling results on the effect of the original resources on the CDT.

Systematization of Models

Table 1 below summarizes the main advantages and disadvantages pointed out for each of the models described:

Table 1 - Advantages of disadvantages pointed to the models

<p>1. Crouch e Ritchie (1999)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It presents a wide variety of indicators and determinants of competitiveness. - It establishes an initial categorization of the importance of factors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It establishes an initial categorization of the importance of factors. - Establishes an initial categorization of the importance of the factors. - It presents a problem in its practical application, because although the collection of all the information about the destination in relation to the proposed factors would be very useful, it would also be very complicated at the same time. - In most cases, it is unfeasible due to the small number of existing and comparable data between destinations. - Variables and indicators to measure the environment and natural resources of the destinations are missing.
<p>2. Dwyer e Kim (2003)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It makes the difference between the competitiveness base and the local conditions of 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The same importance is given to all indicators. - In most cases, it is not feasible due

	<p>the destination.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It proposes quantitative and qualitative indicators of tourism competitiveness. 	<p>to the small number of data available and comparable between destinations.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Variables and indicators to measure the environment and natural resources of destinations are missing.
3. Enright e Newton (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It studies the competitiveness of tourist destinations from the perspective of supply. - Contribution of a quantitative analysis and an empirical methodology capable of providing a basis for management and political decisions in the tourism sector. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It only allows you to compare the competitiveness of a destination against other competitors. - In some cases, the data are only processed in the country being studied and not in that of its competitors.
4. Gooroochurn e Sugiyarto (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Each indicator is given a different importance. - It allows the competitiveness of different tourist destinations to be compared and a ranking to be drawn up according to their degree of competitiveness. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The results are not consistent with the reality of destinations. - The weight given to the indicators may be questionable.
5. Fórum Mundial (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Range of issues and areas of analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Difficulty in using the methodology, given its competition
6. Mazanec, Wöber e Zins (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - CDT is the result of 8 factors that can be estimated based on 25 measurable indicators. - In addition, the CDT results in market share and the rate of growth of tourism demand of the destination. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The communication structure revealed little influence on the CTD, while the influences of price competitiveness, infrastructure, environmental preservation and openness were not confirmed.
7. Hong (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It uses indicators and variables proposed by other authors in their models, which provides reliability. - It considers and classifies the importance of each factor and indicator in relation to the relevance of its contribution to the competitiveness of the tourist destination. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The questionnaires were sent to academic researchers with experience in the subject and to government officials working in tourism. It would be interesting to compare the study with all agents involved in the tourism sector to complete the perspective.
8. Kim (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Divides the destinations into High and Low Income Countries which can be interesting in terms of comparison and specification of the dimensions to analyze. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Essentially macro-economical model - There are no application studies of the model.
9. Cvelbar e al. (2016)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Model that allows to relate the tourist product and the recruits used. - A different approach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Model with complexity in its use

Final considerations

In recent years tourism has been one of the factors that has contributed most to the economic growth of many countries. A country can be as a whole as a tourist destination or contain several tourist destinations.

Although several concurrent approaches are admitted, several models of analysis of the competitiveness of tourist destinations have been developed over the years. Competitiveness has been associated in the tourism literature as a critical element for the success of tourist destinations. Therefore, in the analysis models particular emphasis is given to the identification and analysis of the various factors that influence the competitiveness of tourist destinations. As described in Table 1, the most representative models of CTD analysis have advantages and disadvantages. On the side of the disadvantages, for example, it can be seen that the issue of exclusion of the environmental protection factor is one of the most common to the models analysed, although in the conceptualisation of tourist destinations, the attraction factors (physical, resources, natural landscape) are highly predominant. The interaction of physical factors with social ones, etc. results in the attractiveness and competitiveness of the tourist destination, as they defend (Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991); (Ammirato, 2014); (Buckley, 1994).

From our point of view, this study highlights the need to understand to what extent CTD models can contribute to really create a competitive advantage and how their approach is simply analytical or if, in any way, they can be implemented as a management tool, contributing to good governance and a results-oriented management of the organizations integrating a tourist destination.

The study of the models presented in this work allows us to infer that they are mostly analytical and lack the agility and capacity to promote rapid reaction with the aim of correcting weaknesses or producing indicators that promote the creation and implementation of services or products that are facilitators of the success of organizations and their tourist destination.

It is important that research is adjusted to new realities and new needs in terms of time and space. From the perspective of the analysis of the CDT, it is necessary, in our opinion, to include key current factors such as the level of digital transformation and its impact on the competitiveness of the tourist destination, as well as the comparison between destinations.

Finally, one of the factors that we consider fundamental is the crossing of the opinions of Tourists, Residents and managers and policy makers, basically to ensure that the Pyramid, Tourist, Resident, Manager remains sustainable both for the tourist, for the destination and naturally for the resident, because as several authors argue, namely Ritchie & Crouch (1999) e Dwyer e Kim (2003), the Competitiveness of the Tourist Destination should aim at the socio-economic prosperity of the destination and contribute to increase the well-being of the local population.

References

- [1] Ahrham, J. (2014). Competitiveness of the Tourism Destination in the Global Economy. In Paper presented at the 8th International Days of Statistics and Economics. Prague.

- [2] Aguillar, F. (2017). Correlation between the World Economic Forum and the World Bank: Competitiveness in Switzerland in the Mechanical, Electrical and Metal Industry. University of Guadalajara.
- [3] Ammirato, S. A. M. F. M. D. G. (2014). Tourism Destination Management: A Collaborative Approach. *IFIP Advances in Information and Communication Technology*, (434), 208–216.
- [4] Armenski, T., Omerzel Gomezelj, D., Djurdjev, B., Đeri, L., & Dragin, A. (2011). Destination Competitiveness: A Challenging Process for Serbia. *Journal of Studies and Research in Human Geography*, (5 (1)), 19–33.
- [5] Beeton, S. (2005). *Film-induced tourism*. Channel View Publications.
- [6] Buckley, R. (1994). Framework for ecotourism, *Annals of*(21(3)), 661–669.
- [7] Crouch, G. I. (2011). Destination Competitiveness: An Analysis of Determinant Attributes. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(1), 27–45.
- [8] Crouch, Geoffrey I., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1999). Tourism, competitiveness, and societal prosperity. *Journal of Business Research*, 44(3), 137–152.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963\(97\)00196-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(97)00196-3)
- [9] Cucculelli, M., & Goffi, G. (2016). Does sustainability enhance tourism destination competitiveness? Evidence from Italian Destinations of Excellence. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 111, 370–382.
- [10] Domareski-Ruiz, T. C., Akel, G. M., & Gonçalves Gândara, J. M. (2015). Estudos de Competitividade Turística – Comparativo do Modelo de Dwyer e Kim e do Estudo de Competitividade dos 65 Destinos Indutores do Brasil. *Turismo e Sociedade*, 8(1).
<https://doi.org/10.5380/tes.v8i1.34299>
- [11] Duarte, J., Simões, N., & Crespo, N. (2016). Competition in Tourism Arrivals: A Multidimensional Index of Geographical Structural Similarity. *Tourism Analysis*, 21, 29–45.
- [12] Dunn Ross, E., & Iso-Ahola, S. (1991). Sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(2), 226–237.
- [13] Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination Competitiveness: Determinants and Indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6(5), 369–414.
- [14] Enright, M. & Newton, J. (2004). Tourism destination competitiveness: a quantitative approach. *Tourism Management - Volume 2*, 25, 777–788. Retrieved from *Tourism Management*%0AVolume 25, Issue 6, December 2004, Pages 777-788%0A
- [15] Flores, D. & Barroso, G. (2009). *Análisis de la competencia en la actividad turística* (Septem Edi). Oviedo.
- [16] Forum, W. E. (2013). *The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2013*.
- [17] Garau, J. (2006). Propuesta de dos índices para la mediación de la competitividad de los destinos de sol y playa del Mediterráneo: avance de resultados desde el punto de vista de la demanda. In E.-F. Barcelon (Ed.), *XV Simposio Internacional de turismo y ocio*. Bcelona.
- [18] Gomezelj, D. O. (2006). Competitiveness of Slovenia as a touristic destination. *Managing Global Transition*, 4(2), 167–189.
- [19] Gooroochurn, N., & Sugiyarto, G. (2005). Competitiveness indicators in the travel and tourism industry. *Tourism Economics*, 11(1), 25–40.
- [20] Hanafiah, M., Hemdi, M., & Ahmad, I. (2016a). Competitiveness indicators in the travel and tourism industry. A case of ASEAN region. *Turizam: Međunarodni Znanstveno-Stručni Časopis*, 64(3), 251–260.

- [21] Hanafiah, M., Hemdi, M., & Ahmad, I. (2016b). Tourism destination competitiveness: Towards a performance-based approach. *Tourism Economics*, 22(3), 629–636.
- [22] Hanafiah, M. & Zulkifly, M. (2019). The Evolution of Tourism Destination Competitiveness (TDC) Models. In . A. Hanafiah & M. I. Zulkifly (Ed.), *Positioning and Branding Tourism Destinations for Global Competitiveness* (IGI Global, pp. 23–48). USA.
- [23] Heath, E. (2003). Towards a model to enhance destination competitiveness. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 12(4), 141. Retrieved from [https://books.google.pt/books?id=ALQ0CwAAQBAJ&pg=PA59&dq=Heath,+E.++\(2003\)+Towards+a+model+to+enhance+destinations+competitiveness&hl=pt-PT&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj14uPg6anpAhWJnxQKHR_2CR8Q6AEIKjAA#v=onepage&q=Heath%2CE.\(2003\)Towardsamodeltoenhancedesti](https://books.google.pt/books?id=ALQ0CwAAQBAJ&pg=PA59&dq=Heath,+E.++(2003)+Towards+a+model+to+enhance+destinations+competitiveness&hl=pt-PT&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwj14uPg6anpAhWJnxQKHR_2CR8Q6AEIKjAA#v=onepage&q=Heath%2CE.(2003)Towardsamodeltoenhancedesti)
- [24] Hong, W. C. (2008). *Competitiveness in the Tourism Sector. A Comprehensive Approach from Economic and Management Points* (Physica). Verlag.
- [25] Hong, W. C. (2009). Global competitiveness measurement for the tourism sector. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 12(2), 105–132.
- [26] Ivars-Baidal, J. A., Celdrán-Bernabeu, M. A., Mazón, J. N., & Perles-Ivars, Á. F. (2019). Smart destinations and the evolution of ICTs: a new scenario for destination management? *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(13), 1581–1600. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2017.1388771>
- [27] Khoshkhou, M., Nadalipour, Z., & Pourjam, A. (2015). Global Travel and Tourism Competitiveness: An Evaluation of Iran Tourism industry in the world. *International Conference on Management, Economics and Humanities*.
- [28] Kim, N. (2012). Tourism destination competitiveness, globalization, and strategic development from a development economics perspective. *University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign*.
- [29] Knežević Cvelbar, L., Dwyer, L., Koman, M., & Mihalič, T. (2016). Drivers of Destination Competitiveness in Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(8), 1041–1050. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287515617299>
- [30] Koo, C., Shin, S., Gretzel, U., Hunter, W. C., & Chung, N. (2016). Conceptualization of smart tourism destination competitiveness. *Asia Pacific Journal of Information Systems*, 26(4), 561–576.
- [31] Lee, C. F., & King, B. (2009). A determination of destination competitiveness for Taiwan's hot springs tourism sector using the Delphi technique. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 15(3), 243–257.
- [32] Mazanec, J. A., Wöber, K., & Zins, A. H. (2007). Tourism Destination Competitiveness: From Definition to Explanation? *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(1), 86–95.
- [33] Mendola, D., & Volo, S. (2017). Building composite indicators in tourism studies: Measurements and applications in tourism destination competitiveness. *Tourism Management*, 59, 541–553.
- [34] Navickas, V. & M. (2009). The Possibilities for the Identification and Evaluation of Tourism Sector Competitiveness Factors. *Engineering Economics*, 1(61), 37–44.
- [35] Omerzel Gomezelj, D. & Mihalic, T. (2008). Destination competitiveness-Appling different models, the case of Slovenia. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 294–307.
- [36] Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2003). *The Competitive Destination: A Sustainable Tourism Perspective*. (CABI Publications, Ed.).

- [37]Ritchie, J., & Crouch, G. (1999). Tourism, Competitiveness, and Societal Prosperity. *Journal of Business Research*, 44, 137–152. Retrieved from <http://turismoadministracaoehospitalidade.wordpress.com>
- [38]Rodrigues, L., & Carrasqueira, H. (2011). A Comparative Analysis of Sun and Sea Tourist Destinations Competitiveness. The Case of the Algarve vs. Southern Spain. *Estudios y Perspectivas En Turismo*, 20, 855–875.
- [39]Taberner, J. G. (2007). Propuesta de dos índices para la medición de la competitividad de los destinos de sol y playa del mediterráneo: avance de resultados desde el punto de vista de la demanda. *Revista de Análisis Turístico*, 4, 50–67.
- [40]Vieira, D., Hoffmann, V., Dias, C., & Carvalho, J. (2009). Atributos Determinantes da Competitividade dos Destinos de Sol e Praia Brasileiros. *Revista Brasileira de Pesquisa Em Turismo*, 13(2), 128–143.
- [41]World Economic Forum. (2015). *The Global Competitiveness Report 2015-2016*.

European School Integration Process - The Case of Albania

Valbona Cinaj

PhD

Bukurie Kallanxhi (Haxhia)

PhD Cand.

Abstract

This study do research the causal relationship between the dependent variable: the result of change management (the result of the European school integration process) and independent variables (four management functions): organization (mission orientation), planning, implementation, change management. Study analyses are done based on questionnaires over relationship between School Principals, Teachers, Students, and their Parents. The results of this study help the public bodies in preparing a strategy to integrate into EU structures and in general the specialized structures in the field of education, research and to realize a correct and functional management of educational institutions at all levels.

Keywords: school management, European integration, leadership

1. Introduction

The Albanian National Strategy for Pre-University Education 2014-2020 agrees with the main trends in the development of education in Europe and in the world. As such, it aims to: (i) improve the quality of education for all; (ii) identify key activities and plan the necessary budgets; (iii) to assist the cooperation between government agencies, our partners and other groups interested in education, in terms of the scope of activities and investments in education, within the framework of a unified framework of conception, planning and financing. (SZhAPU, 2016).

The use of technology in our schools has changed significantly in recent years. The Albanian government has invested heavily in creating technological infrastructure in schools. These investments have been in materials and construction of human capacities. The time has come to seek results from these investments; the result or benefit from these investments is the maximum use of these resources created to maximize the learning process. The benefit of these investments is the use of these resources as tools that serve in the process of student thinking and not just as digital tools (Chan, 2003).

Schools in the Albanian education system have created a technological infrastructure, which optimizes the integration of technology in the educational process. The "Albania in the Digital Age" initiative undertaken by the Albanian Government paved the way for the creation of technological infrastructure in the education system, especially the pre-university one (ISP & UNESCO, 2003).component of the organizational chart of the Ministry of Education and Science as well as the IT & Statistics Sectors in RED and EO. The Directorate of Education

supports the main priorities of the Ministry of Education and Science regarding the establishment of policies and strategies necessary for the integration of information and communication technology in the teaching and learning process throughout the education system (MES & Save the Children). Full school inspection manual, 2005).

Currently, the reforms are ongoing, they are taking place by raising several questions and dilemmas for the leadership and management of educational institutions as part of this system. So far among the most sensitive points of the education system are leadership and management. The development of contemporary planning and management concepts in the education system are among the main factors that determine the efficiency and effectiveness in education.

2. Literature Review

Every school has its own conditions and circumstances. These specifics affect the way the school identifies its strengths and weaknesses. Some of these factors are: differences in students' abilities, including students with special needs, student achievement, physical condition of the school and the quality of its environment, school equipment, level of teaching staff, parental learning aspirations, school collaborations in the horizontal plane (CDE, Interactive Teaching and Learning Models for the Development of Critical Thinking, 2008).

Activities related to the administrative aspects of school life affect not only the directions of the daily routine of school administration, but in particular, the main issues where the medium and annual planning of the school is focused, such as communication within it, how the separation is realized. teaching staff duties, student registration and transfer procedures, cooperation with all stakeholders, etc. In this sense, the field of school management includes in itself & subfields, which enable the overall functioning of school management (Eurydice, 2010).

Subdomains:

1. The medium-term plan of the school is a 4-year planning of school activities, which focuses on the student and at its core lies the further improvement of the learning process. It presents a deep and detailed knowledge of the school's physical environment, the community's social situation around the school, the school's collaborations, but, addresses the real problems associated with student achievement.
2. The annual school plan is built in accordance with the official format and enables an organic inclusion of all teaching-educational work of the school. The objectives of the annual plan are built considering the achievements of the previous school year.
3. The lesson plan is implemented in accordance with the official instructions of the Ministry of Education and Science. Principals make observations, keep detailed notes on the teacher's daily plans, take mini-tests, exams to record students' progress. Finally, the school Principals together with the teacher or the subject curriculum team analyze the findings of the observed classes and give recommendations and suggestions for improving the quality of the teaching process;
4. The school documentation monitoring plan includes the observation of the completion of the official documentation (subject plan / module / curricular project, registers, registers, receipts, inventory);

5. School statistics, enrollment and transfer of students is related to enrollment in high school classes which is done through the certificate of release of 9-year education, but also based on the choice of subjects confirmed in writing by the student. and the parent.

6. The internal evaluation of the school is related to the analysis of the realization of the indicators of the school itself, using standard instruments and where the whole teaching staff is involved.

7. Inclusion means all its bodies according to Normative Provisions, such as: Class Council, Disciplinary Council, Teachers 'Council, Parents' Council, Student Government, School Board;

8. Teamwork is the impetus for the school to manage its work with its own staff teams to design and implement medium-term plans, annual plans, and monthly plans.

2.1 The role of management staff, teacher, and students

The management staff, teachers and students, try to develop and apply with all the physical, moral and intellectual forces, their ability, first; they must be great souls, resembling clouds, gathering to pour out, the second bearers of science and knowledge, the third worthy beneficiaries of it. Learning without trying is worthless but thinking without learning is more dangerous (MES & Save the Children, Full School Inspection Manual, 2005).

Principals need to guide or attract their staff towards self-improvement, self-qualification and growth to be understood by them and to understand them, to realize productive forms of communication, education and application, merging and becoming one with the work that the student to naturally harmonize with the specifics of the age what is required by the trends of the time and the capacities of the programs (Institute of Curriculum and Training, Student Assessment-Teacher's Manual, 2009).

The managerial skills of the Principals must be in continuous development, to move side by side with the professionalism of the field, therefore the MES regulated their subject information, correcting the detachment from teaching in the name of genuine management. The Principal cannot be alone and merely a manager, he must be someone in his scientific discipline, only in this way does he gain weight and value in front of the staff. They should not run after authority; it is like running after an avalanche. The authority only distinguishes and shows what the mistake is, while effective leadership undertakes to explain the mistake.

The issue remains more in the creation of new mentalities, of advanced ones, from where the whole process of school development is guided. This means: Teachers well prepared pedagogically and scientifically; skilled managers, both professionals and managers; parents who feel like school; a community that is as active and effective as possible, to stay close to the school, because in this way it is close to the children, our students, whether they are in the lower cycle, or the teenagers in the high schools (Musai, 2000). So, each of us, to call as one of our primary tasks the creation and establishment of a contemporary worldview, for education and training, to respond to the challenges that require the educational development of the country and our society, as well as the requirements of tasks that we feel within ourselves to become, fully and without any shortcomings, part of new contemporary developments and requirements (Council of Europe, Policies and practices for teaching sociocultural diversity - A framework of teacher competences for engaging With diversity, 2010)

The student looks the teacher in the eye, and he listens and respects his word, but in higher grades, it often happens that the student puts his teacher in front of evidence and difficulties.

Therefore, he must, in the first place, elevate himself to the height of his duty, professionally and scientifically. Of course, just as much, if not more, is a demand for school and district-based school and district administrators. At the head of the school is a Principal, who in the first place is the best teacher, but he also has some personal qualities, original, leading and managerial, which are not born by themselves, but require study, knowledge, attention and continuous culture (Council of Europe, Policies and practices for teaching sociocultural diversity - A survey report., 2008).

The internal evaluation of the school is an important instrument of management and standardization of control in school management. In the field of school management and administration, the annual analysis (annual report) occupies an important place and has a significant weight in the school documentation fund. It is a careful and concise summary of the work done during a school year. Through the annual analysis, the full conviction about the quality of the realization of the indicators and the basic components of the teaching and educational work can be ascertained and created. If it is handled and designed with care and professionalism by school Principals, it is a complete overview of the contributions of the directorate, teachers and social partners, always seen and appreciated in support of subject and educational formation of students (Council of Europe, Policies and practices for teaching sociocultural diversity - A framework of teacher competencies for engaging With diversity, 2010).

The teacher should plan in advance a set of intentional actions that should be applied in the classroom during teaching or make a sequence of all the actions and decisions that will be performed in the classroom according to a certain logic.

The problem should not be posed if the teacher does not know the contemporary methods and uses them or does not use them during the lesson. The center of gravity remains in the realization of the roles of the actors of the lesson. For example, the technique of the Venn diagram has no value when the teacher "intervenes" in its completion, wearing the student's clothes. Or, where can the value of the "Cluster" technique stand when the teacher "adds" to what the students are saying (MES & Save the Children, Full School Inspection Manual, 2005). So, the teacher's orientation towards the principle: "Speak a little, listen more" is needed, if we accept that this principle regulates the ratio of the use of time that the teacher uses with the time that is left to the students during the lesson. 62.5% of the teachers involved in the sampling, within the lesson, combine modern methods with traditional methods.

As a teacher, as a transmitter of knowledge, the teacher has the primary task of planning the teaching, which is also considered as decision making. But what to understand with this? By synthesizing the formulations given today, the teacher must plan in advance a set of intentional actions that must be applied in the classroom during teaching or make a sequence of all the actions and decisions that will be performed in the classroom according to a certain logic. Planning guides the teacher what he will achieve with his students during the lesson, what methods and forms of teaching he will follow, what concrete material base he will use and finally how he will be able to assess the achievement of the foreseen goals (Institute of Curriculum and Training, Guide to the development of the new high school curriculum, 2010).

2.2 Management and leadership, in the context of educational institutions

The management of educational systems comes as a field of study and a practical field in relation to the operations of educational institutions. Although many of the theories and

concepts addressed to education management come from industrial organizational settings, today the education environment is defined in the construction of specific forms of application of theories and their practical application. In both management and leadership, in the context of educational institutions, they are practical activities.

2.2.1 The importance of school development Plan

A very important element of management is the School Development Plan is a strategic development plan. The plans enable schools not only to keep pace with scientific, technical and technological developments, educational, economic and scientific industrial economics, but they will achieve advanced success in the maximum possible development of children, pupils, students and talents in various fields, that they lead developmental change and promote overall development and progress, especially in education (Kraja, 2008). The school by planning itself and achieving objectives will emerge from the conservation situation, i.e. it will not stay in a cemented state, but will be mobile, efficient, qualitative. A well-planned school will face problems and know how to manage them to create better conditions (Horvath, 2007). As the quality of education will be today, so will the face of Albanian society in the future. Experience so far proves that the more specific the demands of society towards the school, the more important and representative the role of its Principals and leadership becomes. The quality of management work and its efficiency depends on the interaction, coordination and harmonization of staff, their leadership with educational staff, the parent community and local government. People in general, especially Principals in particular, like it until they want something, have ambitions to go somewhere, look for something new to achieve, anticipate time, knowledge, morality, and education (ISP & UNESCO, 2003).

The driver's motto should be, I am human, and I think nothing that is human should make me indifferent. Students should also be treated, "quality, equality and education for all", requires quality of service, passion, and intellectual perseverance. The human mind and heart are two parallel and sympathetic fields, one cannot expand without the other enlarging, one cannot rise without the other being exalted. Perseverance must be nurtured for this, it is a wonderful thing; she can move from the place of such mountains, which faith does not even dare to dream of. Perseverance should truly be the father of every self-belief (Gardner, 2003).

3. Methodology

For the purposes of this study, four interest groups have been selected: school Principals, teachers, parents, and students. The reasons for selecting these four groups are as follows: i) Principals and teachers are change agents and their questionnaire is oriented towards managerial roles: organization, planning, implementation and change management; ii) while the data collected by students and parents are oriented towards measuring the results brought by Principals and teachers.

Interviews for teachers and schoolteachers were sent by email in advance, so that they could get acquainted with the questions that would be asked. Direct meetings were then held to get their answers. Mostly they had come prepared, studied the questions at home, and brought short answer sheets. Some others were less enthusiastic and less prepared. In this study, the first three types of resources are important: Structured interviews; Secondary data; and Documentation.

3.1 Designing the study model and operationalizing the study variables

In the integration process, an important place is the school management, the methodology and concrete ways that will make it possible to manage a school institution, the role and mission of the management and how it should be carried out and implemented (Horvath, 2007; Musai, 2000; Wende, 2000).

Indicators have been created for the measurement of each of the five variables, to facilitate the possibility of direct measurement. On the other hand, for each indicator the data are collected in a specific way as follows. Data on four managerial functions were collected by school principals and teachers, while performance data were measured by collecting perceptions of parents and students.

Table 1. Design of the study model and operationalization of study variables

Variables	Indicator	Data collection			
		School Principal	Teacher	Parents	Students
Organization (mission orientation)	Disclosure	x	x		
	Delegating	x	x		
Planning	Centralization of planning	x	x		
Implementation	Communicating the manager with stakeholders	x	x		
	Teacher communication with stakeholders	x	x		
Change management	Transformational leadership	x	x		
	Transactional leadership	x	x		
	Teacher participation in the project			x	x
	Student satisfaction			x	x
	Parental satisfaction			x	x

3.2 Detailed data collection procedure through interview

It was not easy to talk to the four interest groups of this study. There were different reactions, from the most positive to the most negative. The contacted individuals were available to answer my questions. There were also those who, when they did not like a question, pursed their lips and gave a short answer. (seen in some specific interviews, both to principals and teachers). But there were also many parents, Principals, and teachers willing to answer any questions.

As procedure kept in touch with the contacted individuals and gave them the questions of the interview by email, to let them understand and think about them. After about a week, left an appointment and they came prepared for the questions. In total there are 14 questions which are presented below.

Table 2: The questions

	Interviews with school Principals	Interviews with teachers	Interviews with students	
General	<p>1. What do you think are the most important qualities of a school principal?</p> <p>6. Who is called a successful director, what does he pity and how can you become one?</p>	<p>2. What do you think are the most important qualities of a Principal?</p>	<p>6. What are some of the qualities you prefer in your teacher?</p> <p>7. What are some of the qualities you prefer in your director?</p> <p>8. What are some of the qualities you do not prefer in your director?</p>	<p>6. In your opinion, a strict and authoritarian Principal is more successful than an understanding and humorous Principal? Why?</p> <p>7. What is the ideal director type you would have dreamed of for your child?</p>
ORGANIZATION (Mission Orientation)	<p>4. Have you made the activities piloted known to teachers? What was the result?</p>	<p>5. How much does the teacher benefit from the principal's experience?</p> <p>8. Does the director delegate competencies to you and how does he do it? Yes No</p>		
PLANNING	<p>5. What should a manager do to improve management practices?</p>	<p>1. Do you think the school principal plays a key role in the smooth running of the school?</p> <p>3. Do you think the principal influences the</p>		

		way the class and teaching are conducted?		
IMPLEMENTATION	<p>2. What communication do you have with your teachers?</p> <p>3. What about students?</p>	<p>6. What is your relationship with the director?</p> <p>7. What about the principal with the students?</p>	<p>4. How is your relationship with your teacher?</p> <p>a. Very good b. Good c. somewhat d. Not good</p> <p>5. Does this help you in your progress in lessons?</p>	<p>1. How is your relationship with your child's teacher?</p> <p>5. How important is the role of the Principal in school-community relations?</p>
CHANGE MANAGEMENT (where the difference is: integration European integration of the school teaching and learning process)	How does the school principal affect the European integration of the teaching and learning process in your school?	9. What is your opinion about the "new principal", who changes the way the school is managed?	<p>9. What would you change about your director?</p> <p>10. What do you like most about your school?</p> <p>11. What would you like to see change in your school?</p>	
general	<p>1. What do you think are the most important qualities of a school principal?</p> <p>6. Who is called a successful director, what does he pity and how can you become</p>	2. What do you think are the most important qualities of a Principal?	<p>6. What are some of the qualities you prefer in your teacher?</p> <p>7. What are some of the qualities you prefer in your director?</p> <p>8. What are</p>	<p>6. In your opinion, a strict and authoritarian Principal is more successful than an understanding and humorous Principal? Why?</p> <p>7. What is the ideal director type you would</p>

	one?		some of the qualities you do not prefer in your director?	have dreamed of for your child?
RESULT OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT (RESULT OF INTEGRATION PROCESS)		<p>10. Are you part of any national, local or regional project for modern development issues of the complex learning process and where does your principal have a primary place? Yes, No</p> <p>4. What are your thoughts on the seminars (developed within the school) in which you participated?</p>	<p>1. Do you come to school willingly? Yes, No</p> <p>2. What are some of the reasons?</p> <p>3. Do you feel stressed during class or on vacation?</p>	<p>2. Did your child feel scared or frightened at school?</p> <p>3. Please identify any cases?</p> <p>4. Do you think this has affected your child's performance in school?</p> <p>8. Has your child's attitude and relationship with the principal affected your child's school performance? How?</p>

4. Statistical Analysis of Questionnaires

Interview with the Principals

The results of the answers given in relation to the questions dedicated to these variables in the interview. Regarding this noted that 35% of the Principals emphasized that the recognition of the activities is in the center of attention, 29% emphasized that the activities take place in cooperation with the teachers. "No (statistics only serve my job)" said 18% of executives and recently 12% admitted that they are open to suggestions when running activities. 6% of directors consider the organization and development of activities as part of their monthly plans. On average, when asked about the openness of the study, school principals replied that: "All teachers are informed through frequent meetings on curricular & extracurricular activities."

	Interview with teacher		Frequency
5. How much does it benefit?	Condition	The Principal has the will to share the experience training	4
			8
			16
	Concrete benefit	Group work Legislative knowledge Methodology Human resource management communication	8
			8
			8
16			
12			
More		27	
Yes		5	
Without answer		3	
8. Does the Principal/ director delegate competencies to you and how does he do it?	Yes		160
	No		36

To obtain a broader picture of the perspectives of school Principals in terms of the results of teacher collaboration with teachers on the organization / development of pilot activities, this study has conducted an open-ended question. So we have these result, 26% of the Principals stated that the result of the cooperation of the Principals with the teachers for the organization / development of the pilot activities is the increase of the results in teaching; 11% of them have accepted as a result the enrichment of the experience; 16% increase in accountability; 21% an increase in motivation; 11% have experienced innovation in their institutions; 5% improvement in group work; while empowerment (empowerment, increasing independence) has been the result in only 5% of cases (school principals involved in the study). Finally, there is a small percentage of Principals who admit that teacher participation has been low.

Outsourcing

Below are the results of the question that investigates the level of delegation by school Principals to teachers. The teachers interviewed in this case are. To the question: "How much does the teacher benefit from the Principal's experience?" 14% of school Principals answered yes, 77% very much, and 9% did not answer. How much the teacher benefits from the principal's experience shows that the conditions of benefit are: Empowerment (14%); The director must be capable (29%); The director has the will to share the experience / training / mentoring (57%).

Interview with teachers

Also in relation to the question How much does the teacher benefit from the teacher's experience,,: Group work (claimed by 15% of school Principals); legislative knowledge (asserted by 15% of school Principals); methodology (claimed by 15% of school Principals); human resource management (claimed by 31% of school Principals); communication (claimed by 23% of school Principals).

Another interesting variable in this study is delegation. To explore this variable, school principals were asked to answer the question: "Does the principal delegate competencies to

you and how does he do it?" 82% of the Principals answered this question and not 18% of them. According to the answers received from the open questions about the delegation component, it results that: (1) the principal delegates some competencies when he must leave school; (2) delegated tasks are fully fulfilled.

Planning

Data from teachers and school Principals were used to understand the planning levels. Each group was asked specific questions to decompose this variable. School principals are first asked: What should a principal do to improve management practices?

Principals answers

School principals have responded that to improve leadership practices, a principal should: communicate with teachers (44%); to be trained (31%); solve problems (20%); resolve conflicts (5%). Other answers to the open-ended questions regarding this dimension are: (1) Participates in organizational meetings / trainings / various experts and (2) Distributes materials brought to increase the quality of teaching.

	Interview with Principals/director	Frequency
5.What a Principal need to do to improve management practices?	Communicate with teacher	73
	To be trained	51
	Solve problems	33
	Resolve conflicts	39

The second group asked about the planning function in schools are teachers. The first question they were asked about this variable was: Do you think the school principal has a key role in the smooth running of the school? 98% of teachers have admitted that the school principal has a key role in the smooth running of the school and only 2% have rejected the central role of the principal in this function.

Answers for teachers

Further still, the teachers asked: Do you think that the principal influences the way the class and teaching are conducted? They answered mainly: "The teacher does not have the main role" (50%); followed by "yes" (39%) and finally "Necessary" only 11%. This proves that teachers see the role of leadership as necessary in macro planning but want class-level planning to be left to decompose and implemented by themselves.

	Interview with the teacher	Frequency	
1.		Yes	196
		No	0
3. Do you think the Principal influences the way the class and the teaching are conducted?		Necessary	8
		Yes	28
		Not the main role is played by the teacher	36
	Concrete	Collaboration with students	64
		Performance appraisal criteria	4
Motivation		12	
	Creates stress during monitoring	9	

Finally, in an open question, teachers were asked to list a series of elements of how a principal can influence the way a class is run and taught. Regarding the question: Do you think the principal influences the way the class and the teaching are conducted? 71% of teachers answered that the principal affects the level of cooperation between teacher and student; 18% responded that the principal could increase staff motivation; 4% of teachers answered that potentially school Principals influence performance appraisal criteria. Recently, 7% of teachers have responded that the influence of the principal on the way the classroom and teaching are conducted creates stress during monitoring. Other answers obtained from open-ended questions list other elements such as: (1) Manages curricular & extracurricular activities; (2) Resolve conflicts; (3) Formally formulate complaints about infrastructure; (4) Manages deficiencies; etc.

Implementation

As explained in the literature chapter, the implementation variable divides into two indicators: the communication of teachers and that of school Principals with the main school contenders (Principals, teachers, parents, students). Communicating school Principals with key school contenders. To understand the level of communication between school Principals and applicants, parents, teachers, and students are considered as the target group of this study.

Regarding the question "How is your relationship with your child's teacher?" 80% of parents answered that the relationship is very good; 16% answered that the relationship is current and recently 4% of them answered that the relationship is just good. Second, the level of communication between the principal and the teacher was compared. According to the open answers, school Principals claim that communication is done through: (1) Frequent meetings with teachers according to a plan drafted at the beginning of the school year; (2) meetings with one or more teachers in case of problems with a class.

Summarizing the three questions addressed to teachers, parents and principals, in terms of communication that the school principal has with students, parents and teachers (the main contenders of the school) it can be concluded that the average level is relatively high. Communicating school Principals with key school contenders. On the other hand, to understand the level of communication between schoolteachers and students, parents and students are considered as the target group of this study.

Interview with students

Asked about categorizing students' relationships with teachers, 52% of students answered the question, "How do you relate to your teacher?" with "good", 30% of students answered "somewhat", 11% of students answered "very good" and 7% answered "not good". Question Does the relationship you have built with your teacher help you in your teaching progress? 82% of students answered as if the teachers did not. The open questions related to this question have been explored and it has been concluded that most students who do not accept that the relationship with the teacher helps them in the course of lessons say that the results in lessons are the result of students' commitment and the result of individual efforts.

Interview with parents

Parents for the same question: "the impact of interpersonal relationships with teachers on your children's learning outcomes" have scored 60% "yes" and 40% "no". Interview with teachers, Principals, and parents (Transformational Leadership Role). As can be seen, among the features of transformational leadership, the most dominant features perceived as effective

in integrating schools are in descending order as follows: Ethics (37.00%); Conflict resolution (31.00%); Communication with students (22.00%); Tolerance (20.50%); Appearance (clothing) (13.50%); Community Collaborator (12.60%); Group work (8.50%); Charismatic Manager (8.00%); Visionary (6.00%); Soft management skills (2.00%).

The interview with teachers, Principals, and parents (The role of transactional leadership)

	Answer	Concrete features	Interview with Principal	Interview with teacher	Interview with parents	average
Transformational Leadership	Managerial soft skills	Justice Problem solving and conflict resolution. Transmission of decisions of DAR/ MASR	2%			2%
	Charismatic management	Personality Creativity Teacher motivation	8%			8%
	Ethics (dignity, justice, non-discrimination, transparency)	Listens to the complaints of the parties (students and teachers) treats students and their parents with respect regardless of the work performed by parents Inform on time about the exams / tests planned by MASR Application forms for further education Changes in the calculation of the average grade	37%			37%
	Visionary		4%	5%	9%	6%

	Collaborator with the community		5%	12%	21%	12.6%
	Communication with students			32%	21%	22%
	Tolerance			23%	18%	20.5
	Appearance (dress)			21%	6%	13.5
	Conflict Resolution			34%	28%	31%
	Teamwork			5%	12%	8.5
Transactional Leadership	Professionalism	Communicate with students and their parents Communicate with each MASR & RED request to teachers Represents the school in important meetings	22%			22%
	Recognition and observance of the law		22%	7%		14.5%

On the other hand, among the features of transactional leadership, the most dominant features perceived as effective in the integration of schools are in descending order as follows: Recognition and observance of the law (14.50%) and Professionalism (22%). Comparing the averages of the two types of leadership, it can be concluded that in the question "What are the characteristics of a school principal which are considered fundamental to lead the European integration of schools?" Transformational leadership traits are mentioned by an average of 16.11% of teachers, principals, and parents, while transactional leadership traits are mentioned by an average of 18.25% of them (Comparison of transformational and transactional leadership)

TRANSFORMING LEADERSHIP	
ethics	37.00%
Conflict resolution	31.00%
Communication with students	22.00%
tolerance	20.50%

Appearance (dress)	13.50%
Collaborator with the community	12.60%
Group work	8.50%
Charismatic Manager	8.00%
Visionaries	6.00%
Soft skills	2.00%
AVERAGE	16.11%

LIDERSHIP TRANSAKSIONAL	
Recognition and observance of the law	14.50%
professionalism	22%
AVERAGE	18.25%

5. Conclusions

1. Further disclosure is considered positive for the integration of the school by the three study samples: teachers, students, and parents. The latter scores the highest.
2. The delegation coefficient is considered negative for school integration only by the parents.
3. Centralization of planning is considered negative except for parents who consider it positive for school integration.
4. The communication of principals with stakeholders and the communication of teachers with stakeholders is considered positive for the integration of the school by the three study samples: teachers, students, and parents. It is worth noting that the communication of teachers with stakeholders is considered more important for the integration of the school than the communication of principals with stakeholders.
5. Transformational Leadership is considered more important than transactional leadership for school integration. The latter is considered too negative by students.

Bibliography

- [1] AEDP. (1998). Studio gjithçka, arsyen vendin e parë (Përmbledhje artikujsh). Tiranë.
- [2] Blaufusa, K., Möhlmann, A., & Schwäbea, A. N. (2019). Stock price reactions to news about corporate tax avoidance and evasion. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 72, 278–292.
- [3] CDE. (2005). Mësimdhënia dhe të nxënësit ndërveprues – Modele për zhvillimin të menduarit kritik (Shkencat shoqërore, për klasat 6-12). Tiranë.
- [4] CDE. (2008). Mësimdhënia dhe të nxënësit ndërveprues – Modele për zhvillimin të menduarit kritik. Tiranë.
- [5] Chan, W. S. (2003). Stock price reaction to news and no-news: drift and reversal after headlines. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 70, 223–260.

-
- [6] Council_of_Europe. (2008). Policies and practices for teaching sociocultural diversity - A survey report. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing.
- [7] Council_of_Europe. (2010). Policies and practices for teaching sociocultural diversity - A framework of teacher competences for engaging with diversity.
- [8] Dispozita Normative. (2002). Tiranë.
- [9] European_Commission. (2004). Interim Evaluation Report on the Results Achieved and on the Qualitative and Quantitative Aspects of the Implementation of the Second Phase of the Community Action Programme in the Field of Education 'Socrates', 153.
- [10] European_Commission. (2006). The Bologna Process - Towards the European Higher Education Area, http://ec.europa.eu/education/higher-education/doc1290_en.htm (Accessed: 20.12.2013)
- [11] Eurydice. (2010). Focus on higher education in Europe 2010: The impact of the Bologna processes. http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/thematic_reports/122_EN.pdf. (Accessed: 20.12.2013).
- [12] Gardner, H. (2003). Mendja e pashkolluar. Tiranë.
- [13] Greene, W. H. (2018). Econometric Analysis. Pearson.
- [14] Grup_autorësh. (1986). Didaktika. Tiranë.
- [15] Grup_autorësh. (1995). Strategjitë e të mësuarit. Tiranë.
- [16] Grup_autorësh. (2001). Modele për mësimdhënie të suksesshme. Tiranë.
- [17] Grup_autorësh. (2002). Kur arsimi lëvronte shpirtin. Tiranë.
- [18] H, E. (2003). The European Union and Education and Training: An Overview of Policies and Initiatives, David Philips (comp.), A Comparative Study of Issues in Four Member States. Secaucus, NJ: Kluwer Academic Publisher, ss.13-39.
- [19] Horvath, Z. (2007). Handbook on The European Union Hungarian National Assembly. http://ec.europa.eu/education/404_en.htm(Accessed: 21.12.2013).
- [20] Instituti_i_Kurrikulës_dhe_i_Trajnimit. (2008). Drejtimi i shkollës, udhëzues për drejtuesit e shkollave.

Meth and Murder: The Violent Success of Duterte's War on Drugs

Mark Lee

Chadwick International School, Republic of Korea

Abstract

Since his election in 2016, President of the Philippines Rodrigo Duterte has pursued violent anti-narcotic police operations, resulting in the deaths of more than 27,000 suspected drug users and dealers. Police forces have worked to conceal the bloody consequences by hiring paid killers and deliberately planting false evidence. Duterte publicly promotes his "war on drugs" as a success of his presidency, but his actions have drawn condemnation from international human rights organizations who have accused him of crimes against humanity. The entire operation is under investigation by the International Criminal Court in an inquiry projected to end in 2020. Duterte's supporters argue that the crackdown is necessary to combat rampant drug-related crime in the Philippines, with nearly 20% of Filipino communities affected by drug trafficking. In the past, Duterte's proactive approach to policing as Mayor of Davao enabled him to restore law and order to the city; now, he looks to continue his impressive track record with total arrests numbering 256,000 as of August 2019. The results translate into public approval of Duterte's tactics, with 82% of Filipinos satisfied with the war on drugs due to "a perception of less drugs and crime in the country". Political opponents and investigative journalists claim that Duterte's war on drugs constitutes a systematic policy of brutality and repression; supporters see it as an effective anticrime measure. This paper will examine the current state of the Filipino anti-drug effort and outline how the policy's inherent violence may or may not be justified.

Keywords: Meth, Murder, Violent, Success, Duterte, War, Drugs

Introduction

Since his election as the 16th President of the Philippines in 2017, Rodrigo Duterte has maintained, endorsed and enacted a strict anti-narcotics policy centered around the extrajudicial murder of drug users and dealers. In the last three years, the death toll of Duterte's War on Drugs has climbed to nearly 27,000 according to Human Rights Watch, with the vast majority of killings being committed by police, paramilitary officers and vigilantes outside the course of regular judicial proceedings. With only three policemen having been convicted of crimes since Duterte's election, international observers have concluded that the Philippine National Police (PNP) have been granted near-absolute impunity (Gutierrez, 2018). Far from denying the violence, Duterte has embraced it; in one memorable press conference, he equated his policy with the Holocaust, claiming that "Hitler massacred three million Jews (sic). Now, there are three million drug addicts. I'd be happy to slaughter them. If Germany had Hitler, the Philippines would have (me)." In short, his message

has always been succinct and clear; he will “order the police to find those people [using drugs] and kill them” (“License to Kill”, 2017).

Duterte’s drug war, codenamed “Operation Double Barrel”, has drawn widespread condemnation from human rights organizations worldwide. In 2017, Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International designated Duterte’s policies a “systematic attack on a civilian population” (“License to Kill”, 2017) and a “large-scale murdering operation” (“They Just Kill”, 2019). Both non-governmental organizations (NGOs) accused Duterte of orchestrating widespread human rights violations and placing himself “in command responsibility for crimes against humanity”, an allegation echoed by the International Criminal Court and the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNHRC, 2019).

Duterte’s aggressive anticrime initiatives have nevertheless achieved important milestones in its push to fulfill “[his] vision of a drug-free Philippines”, with more than 1,200,000 Filipinos voluntarily surrendering without resistance or arrest (Caliwan, 2019). Meanwhile, the policy has performed well in public opinion polls - a reputable survey firm reports that 82% of adult Filipinos recently approved of Duterte’s War on Drugs (Social Weather Stations, 2019). Additional investigation is therefore required to ascertain the degree to which violence and crime have been prevented or exacerbated by the President’s anti-narcotics campaign.

History of the Philippine Drug War

Examining Duterte’s rise to prominence provides insight into the depth of the personal connection between the President’s beliefs and his record of systematic extrajudicial killings. Duterte won his first political position in 1988 as Mayor of Davao - then known as the “murder city” of the Philippines - “on a pledge to restore law and order” (Rauhala, 2016). As the capital of the southern island of Mindanao, Davao was in a near-constant state of undeclared war between government forces, communist insurgents, narcotic gangs and Muslim separatists; Duterte promised the city’s residents that his tough-on-crime approach would bring peace and security to the streets (Marshall, 2016). He quickly established a reputation as a political infighter who was ready to get tough; those who visited the Mayor’s Office in Davao were greeted by a gold-plated revolver on his desk “ready to use” (Peel, 2017). This strongman personality echoed itself in Duterte’s rhetoric; he famously called criminals in his city “for as long as [he was] the mayor...a legitimate target of assassination” (Peel, 2017) and even bragged about shooting three criminals himself during a police operation (Mogato et al., 2016)

Even after the end of his term, Duterte remained the *de facto* head of the city by installing close family members as Mayor while “intermittently assuming the posts of vice-mayor and congress member when forced to by constitutional term limits” (Rauhala, 2016), allowing his policies to stay in place. As police enforcement increased, the city underwent a transformation; by the end of Duterte’s rule in 2015, the region enjoyed an economic growth rate of 9.4% and Davao itself was named the 5th safest city in the world (Hegina, 2015). This newfound sense of order made Duterte a celebrity among residents, while his official logo - a clenched fist - found itself “emblazoned on souvenir mugs and other Duterte memorabilia” (Mogato et al., 2016).

But Davao was also the place where the brutality of Duterte’s approach started to become mainstream. The so-called “Davao Death Squad”, a group of armed men “on motorbikes carrying .45 handguns and butcher knives” (Rauhala, 2016) operated extensively under Duterte’s oversight. A Human Rights Watch investigation found evidence of complicity “and

at times direct involvement of government officials and members of the police in killings". More than 1,400 petty criminals, drug pushers, and even unaccompanied street children died at the hands of the Death Squad between Duterte's election as Mayor in 1998 and his ascendance to the presidency in 2015 (Marshall, 2016), without warning or the opportunity to defend themselves. Although Duterte officially denied the existence of this paramilitary arm of the municipal government, he continuously maintained that his anti-crime model was effective *because* of its often violent consequences. During a campaign speech in 2016, he took his personal outlook to the national level, telling Reuters: "It's not for the faint-hearted," he said. "If you are afraid to kill criminals, then you have no business being a president." (Mogato et al., 2016)

Election and Legislation

Duterte used Davao as the foundation of his case for aggressive policing throughout his quest for national political stardom. Throughout his 2016 presidential campaign, Duterte used his track record in the city to position himself as a political outsider prepared to take on both the corrupt national establishment and drug gangs roaming the streets (David, 2016). Propelled by expletive-laden language and populist rhetoric, Duterte eventually won the election as a dark horse candidate in a highly contested five-way race with 39% of the total vote, "nearly twice as many votes as his nearest rivals" (Head, 2016). The 2016 general election also yielded a clear majority for Duterte's PDP-Laban party and its allies - informally known as the "Coalition for Change" - in both houses of the Philippine legislature. Duterte's political victory was further cemented by the collapse of the opposing Liberal Party during the 2019 midterm elections, when it failed to elect a single senator to a vacant Senate seat due to a complete lack of internal cohesion (Simons, 2019). This provided Duterte with unprecedented legislative power and enabled him to immediately launch the Drug War upon his formal ascension to the presidency in June 2016 (Smeallie, 2019).

Endorsement of Violence

Violence has been the centerpiece of Duterte's political platform; the President has consistently endorsed and even glamorized the indiscriminate use of force against small-scale drug pushers and users regularly in his campaign speeches (Hincks, 2016). During his presidential campaign, he promised that "if by chance that God will place me [on the Presidency], watch out because the 1,000 [people allegedly executed while Duterte was mayor of Davao City] will become 100,000. You will see the fish in Manila Bay getting fat" ("License to Kill", 2017). After he became president on June 4, 2016, he later issued a more sinister warning to drug dealers: "I am going to kill you. Don't take this as a joke. I'm not trying to make you laugh. Sons of bitches, I'll really kill you" (O'Connor, 2016). On September 28, 2018, he openly admitted committing the "sin of extrajudicial killings", thereby publicly implicating himself in the extrajudicial brutality for the first time (Ellis-Petersen, 2018), but continued to justify his legacy, asking "what is my fault?" Duterte's repeated connection of violence to successful public policy distinguishes his behavior on the global stage from other heads of nominally democratic states.

Scale and Scope

Aside from two month-long suspensions in 2017 where the Philippine Drug Enforcement Agency (PDEA) was put in charge, the primary enforcer of Duterte's crackdown has been the Philippine National Police (PNP) (Kine, 2017). The PNP's reporting methods document only a

fraction of the killings because they fail to take into account the thousands of other murders committed by “unidentified individuals” often openly linked to the authorities (Coronel et al., 2019). Although the PNP has reported 5,526 extrajudicial killings committed directly by police officers during altercations with suspects, the exact number of fatalities is therefore difficult to determine due to the high number of “homicides under investigation” (“World Report”, 2020). Starting in mid-2018, the PNP stopped disclosing figures in this category, at which point there were more than 23,000 such cases recorded; this brings the total death toll to roughly 27,000 as of mid-2019 when estimates were last put forward by expert studies of the Duterte administration (“They Just Kill”, 2019).

Nevertheless, an analysis of the figures released by the Filipino government clearly outlines an extensive regime of rampant violence against civilians. As a result of the violence perpetrated by the Duterte Administration, the Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project, an international delocalized mapping operation, ranked the Philippines as the fourth most dangerous country in the world for “civilian-targeted violence” (Austin, 2019). One notable demographic trend is the concentration of extrajudicial killings in highly urbanized but economically impoverished regions. According to data released by the PNP, nearly 45% of all total deaths in 2019 occurred in the outskirts of Manila in the two relatively poor regions of Central Luzon and Calabarzon, whereas previously most of the killings had been centered around the slum towns of Metro Manila itself (Amnesty International). This shift in the epicenter of the anti-drug campaign is widely attributed to a personnel transfer of several prominent police officers from Metro Manila to the province of Bulacan, Central Luzon, suggesting that individual police officers, rather than actual drug supply, are responsible for the differences in number of deaths by region (Talabong, 2019).

Vigilantes

A majority of the extrajudicial murders are conducted by non-police vigilantes and are classified as “homicides under investigation”, enabling the PNP to justify their reduced reporting of drug-related killings. Independent investigations by both domestic and international agencies have established that such vigilantes are in fact “paid killers hired by the police or disguised police officers” (“They Just Kill”, 2019). According to Human Rights Watch’s assessment of police reports and witness statements, “the [armed assailants] would wear civilian clothes, often all black, and have their faces shielded by balaclava-style headgear”, while “even if not visible before a shooting, special crime scene investigators would arrive within minutes” (“License to Kill”, 2017). This hints that the “unknown armed persons” said to be responsible for the killings are mere agents of the police. Amnesty International was able to corroborate this theory from interviews conducted with former police officers (“They Just Kill”, 2019), as was England’s BBC through an exclusive interview with contract killers hired by the police to kill alleged drug offenders (Gabuco, 2016). The latter source also revealed that many vigilantes are simply lower economic-status locals who are attracted to the valuable commissions and later find themselves unable to leave the team once they are involved due to the threat of assassination (Gabuco, 2016).

The Buy-Bust Narrative

The PNP has attempted to further conceal its role in the extrajudicial killings by providing a so-called “buy-bust” rationale, in which it claims that plainclothes police officers launched sting operations targeting local drug dealers (Hincks, 2016). Once the targets were aware that they were interacting with the police, they supposedly attacked them (according to the

PNP), forcing the police operatives to retaliate and kill the suspects. The alleged claim of “nanlaban” (fighting back) has been applied nearly unconditionally throughout reports on use of force by the PNP; in 14 of the 17 Bulacan police reports it examined, the Amnesty International report found that police had cited undercover operations with drug dealers followed by self-defence due to “nanlaban” to justify the death of the subject (They Just Kill, 2019).

However, detailed investigations of the “buy-bust” narrative reveals accounts of events by local civilians completely at odds with the police reports. Widespread outrage resulted in Filipino society when surveillance footage confirmed that seventeen-year-old Kian delos Santos had not been killed while “fighting it out” with the police as described by internal PNP reports; instead, “police officers had dragged him to a cul-de-sac, handed him a handgun and shot him as he had turned to run away” (Smeallie, 2019). Senior officers within the PNP acknowledged that many other deaths were similarly orchestrated as “planned executions” conducted in deliberately created security blind spots rather than through the incidental use of force by officers in life-threatening situations (Mogato et al., 2017).

In other cases investigated by Amnesty International, including the murders of Jovan Magtanong and Joel and Jonathan Andong, forensic evidence and autopsies yielded clear evidence indicating that the victims had been attacked and physically abused. Rather than meeting the suspect at a pre-arranged location

and time as consistent with actual sting operations, policemen barged into the homes of suspects and family members and physically subdued them without prior warning. In some cases, namely the death of Manuel Borbe and shooting of his friend Jefferson Soriano, disguised officers would immediately shoot the suspect and leave the scene (Coronel et al., 2019); other suspects such as delos Santos were taken to a discreet location, usually a street corner or empty house, before being killed. Usually, the bodies were left behind for local residents to find, but some were held for longer periods of time before mysteriously resurfacing; in the case of Carl Arnaiz, officers concealed the body in a morgue in an attempt to hide clear forensic evidence of physical torture, enabling the PNP to initially classify the case as an “abduction” before Carl’s remains were found 10 days later by his parents (Viray, 2017).

Police Reliability

Even in cases where forensic evidence is not available, the PNP’s version of events have markedly lacked credibility in comparison to the testimony from friends and family members. One of the most telling characteristics of the police reports is the formulaic nature of their observations, “differing little besides the names, places, and dates” (“License to Kill”, 2017) in a “template nanlaban” pattern (“They Just Kill”, 2019). This sentiment was also echoed by Dr. Raquel Fortun, a forensic pathologist at the University of the Philippines, who observed multiple gunshot wounds far beyond the level of disabling an assailant during over a dozen independent autopsies of victims. Furthermore, an even more troubling trend is the falsification of evidence by police officers, who routinely planted guns and drug packets at crime scenes to create the impression of armed resistance (Mogato et al., 2017).

The PNP has also come under fire for being unable to provide evidence of drug usage or transaction in allegedly implicated persons. In fact, many of the families interviewed by Amnesty International expressed incredulity that the victims were even capable of using the standard .38 calibre guns found in most narcotic-related murder scenes (Hincks, 2016).

Connection between the crackdown and actual illegal narcotic activities is also remarkably slim; a majority of the targets were only periodic drug users or had entirely “come clean”, and some had never been associated with illegal drugs at all, including Kian delos Santos, whose murder later resulted in the only convictions thus far during the War on Drugs. The most revealing demographic trait that is shared among most targets is their low economic status; most victims have been “unemployed or worked menial jobs... and lived in slum neighborhoods or informal settlement” (“License to Kill”, 2017). On the nationwide scale, this has translated into systematic “victimization of....poor and marginalized communities” (“They Just Kill”, 2019).

“Voluntary Surrender” and Oplan Tokhang

Another tactic the PNP has used to justify its use of force against impoverished populations is by supposedly warning suspects in advance through a door-to-door police initiative requesting “voluntary surrender” and cessation of all narcotic-related activities (“They Just Kill”, 2019). This activity, known as “Oplan Tokhang” or “Operation Knock and Plead”, has quickly become the signature policy of the Operation Double Barrel campaign. However, in reality, these door-to-door visits have simply been used to “confirm the identity and whereabouts of a target” (“License to Kill”, 2017) before a follow-up operation would “neutralize” them according to the standard PNP euphemism for an extrajudicial killing (Allard, 2020).

Meanwhile, the constant inflow of information on targets and suspects has largely been provided by drug watchlists drawn up by local barangay (district) officials. Barangay authorities have in turn relied on an unofficial network of informants to acquire this information, and some have even encouraged anonymous reporting by friends and family members (Marshall, 2016). The watchlists “are not part of a fair legal process” (“They Just Kill”, 2019) since individuals on the lists have no way of legally defending themselves from the frequently inaccurate suspicions of barangay captains and neighbors. This contributes to the bias of the anti-narcotics initiative against individuals of lower economic standing simply due to those in poverty being “easier targets”; in general, “criminals living in higher income residences have various options... to escape the police” (Lanzona, 2016) such as selling or using their contraband in international territory outside the government’s jurisdiction (Ho, 2016).

Political Silencing of Critics

A second distinction of Duterte’s presidency is his invocation of political force as a means to silence his domestic critics. Duterte’s political domination has allowed him to retaliate against vocal opponents without fear of backlash, starting in June 2016 with Leila de Lima, one of the few remaining Liberal Party senators who led a Senate investigation to determine the extent to which the executive branch was responsible for the deaths of Filipino citizens. Lima became the target of a concerted “character assassination” effort by Duterte’s Senate allies, in which she was accused of drug trafficking and eventually subjected to a congressional inquiry (Macaraeg, 2019). Lima was arrested in February 2017 and still remains imprisoned, awaiting trial as of April 2020. She continues to denounce Duterte, calling the President “a coward...he hates me, but I never thought he would have me jailed. He made an example out of me.” (Santos, 2020).

After de Lima's arrest on questionable charges, Duterte revoked the amnesty of Liberal Party Senator Antonio Trillanes IV, immediately arresting him and forcing him to remain on the Senate premises. Trillanes had previously been pardoned in 2011 by former president Benigno Aquino III for his involvement in a 2007 military rebellion, and the move was widely seen as Duterte's exploitation of a political technicality to eliminate one of his most outspoken critics (Villamor, 2018). In November 2019, the Makati Regional court upheld Duterte's official Proclamation No. 572 to this effect, paving the way for Trillanes' future indictment or even imprisonment (ABS-CBN, 2019).

With de Lima and Trillanes removed, Duterte was then able to turn his attention to Vice President Maria Leonor ("Leni") Robredo, who was elected vice president as a member of the Liberal Party during the separate vice presidential election of 2016. On October 31, 2019, Duterte appointed her co-chairman of the Inter-Agency Committee on Anti-Illegal Drugs (ICAD), effectively putting Robredo in charge of the war on drugs (Valente, 2019). However, after Robredo made public calls to "revamp" Operation Double Barrel and its Oplan Tokhang policy in order to "hold those responsible to account" for "senseless killings", Duterte immediately removed her from the position on November 24, "accusing Robredo of embarrassing the country by trying to draw undue international attention to his war on drugs" (Lema, 2019). Subsequently, the PNP launched a separate sedition case accusing Robredo, de Lima, Trillanes and their colleagues for attempting to destabilize the nation by "spreading lies against the President" (Damicog, 2020).

Most of the President's other nongovernmental critics, including Victoria Tauli-Corpuz, the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, were subjected to an official Justice Department petition that labeled them as part of the Communist Party of the Philippines (CPP). According to Tauli-Corpuz, the petition was authored for the "baseless, malicious and irresponsible" purpose of prompting political violence against the named individuals (Human Rights Watch, 2020). On a wider scale, *The Guardian* documented "a notable increase in attacks during [the 2019 midterm elections] with members of leftist organisations... targeted", suggesting that targeted violence was able to successfully silence or even eliminate Duterte's domestic political opponents.

International Human Rights Backlash

Duterte's "complete disregard for human rights" ("License to Kill", 2017) has been the subject of close scrutiny by global human rights organizations, including Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International. Both organizations conducted independent nongovernmental investigations into Duterte's drug enforcement tactics in 2017 amid the growing violence, and found evidence directly connecting the extrajudicial killings to the President himself, sometimes even obviously so. Amnesty International called the policy "a war on poor Filipinos that has undermined the rights of millions" and postulated that "crimes committed may constitute crimes against humanity." Human Rights Watch was even more decisive on the matter, arguing that "Duterte's outspoken endorsement of the campaign implicates him...in possible incitement to violence, instigation of murder, and in command responsibility for crimes against humanity". Both recommended that the United Nations and international governance institutions take immediate measures to prevent more egregious human rights violations in the Philippines ("License to Kill", 2017).

The United States condemned the Filipino government's policing tactics and political imprisonments as early as September 2016, when President Barack Obama urged Duterte in

a joint press conference to conduct his campaign the “right way...[so that] innocent people do not get hurt” (Agence France-Presse, 2016). However, Duterte reacted angrily to what he perceived as Obama’s breach of his sovereign authority, telling Obama to “go to hell” and threatening to sever diplomatic and political ties between the U.S. and the Philippines (Bernal et al., 2016). Surprisingly, this political trend continued after the inauguration of Donald Trump, who initially celebrated his “great relationship” with Duterte largely founded upon their mutual dislike of Obama (Holmes, 2017); as the casualties began to accumulate, Trump changed tack and signed a Senate resolution targeting the top Philippine officials associated with the imprisonment of Leila de Lima, freezing their assets inside the U.S. and barring them from entering the country (Navallo, 2019). In response, Duterte declined Trump’s official invitation for a White House meeting in January 2020, signalling that the U.S-Philippine alliance may once again be under question (Heydarian, 2020).

The international attention culminated during the 41st session of the United Nations Human Rights Council on July 5th, 2019, when the “promotion and protection of human rights in the Philippines” was discussed (UNHRC, 2019). During the debate, member nations led by Iceland drafted Resolution 41/20, which “urged the Government of the Philippines...to prevent extrajudicial killings... in accordance with international norms and standards” (UNHRC, 2019). The resolution also “expressed concern” regarding “the allegations of human rights violations in the Philippines, particularly those involving killings...arbitrary arrest and detention, the intimidation and persecution of or violence against....members of the political opposition” (UNHRC, 2019). In order to combat these violations, the resolution called for the Philippines to comply with an independent investigation by the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR). Despite fierce resistance from the Philippine delegation led by Evan Garcia, the resolution was adopted by a narrow vote of 18-14 (van Sant, 2019), which immediately triggered retaliatory measures by the Duterte administration whereby state companies and agencies were effectively barred from continuing business with nations who had supported the resolution (Lema, 2019). However, the unilateral boycott was lifted on March 4, 2020 seemingly without any substantial economic impact; whether this constitutes a partial withdrawal of Duterte’s ongoing feud with the international community remains to be seen (Santos, 2020)

ICC Inquiry

Duterte’s ruthless pursuit of his drug eradication policies also drew the attention of the International Court (ICC), and its Prosecutor, Fatou Bensouda. In October 2016, Bensouda acknowledged early accusations that Duterte had orchestrated crimes against humanity and condemned the “lethal force” being used against drug suspects and pledged to “closely follow developments” (Office of the Prosecutor, 2016). She also warned that although the ICC only has jurisdiction over international violations such as war crimes, “extrajudicial killings may fall under the jurisdiction of the ICC if...part of a widespread or systematic attack against a civilian population” (Office of the Prosecutor, 2016). As the death toll continued to grow, Bensouda announced on February 8, 2018 that she would be beginning a “preliminary examination” into the Duterte administration with regard to crimes against humanity and the President’s “fostering an environment of impunity and violence” (Office of the Prosecutor, 2018).

Although Bensouda noted that a preliminary examination was not an “investigation” but rather a “process of examining the information...on whether there is a reasonable basis to

proceed”, there was significant backlash from the Government of the Philippines regarding the opening of the ICC inquiry (Lema, 2019). In an official statement published by Duterte on March 13, 2018, the Government asserted that the police killings did not constitute crimes against humanity because they were “a direct result of a lawful exercise of a police duty” (Duterte, 2018). The same statement also stated that the Philippines would immediately withdraw from the Rome Statute upon which the ICC was founded, citing “international bias and refusal...to support the Philippine’s legitimate efforts at... independence from foreign influence and control.” After the one-year delay period integrated into the Statute, the withdrawal was officially recognized on March 16, 2019, leaving “any future international crimes committed in the Philippines.....outside of the court’s jurisdiction” (Singh, 2019).

However, the withdrawal has no effect on the Court’s jurisdiction regarding crimes committed during the period in which the Philippines was a member; therefore, Bensouda continued her investigation into crimes committed between July 1, 2016 (the official beginning of Operation Double Barrel) and March 16, 2019. During December 2019, in her annual report of all preliminary examination activities, she remarked upon Duterte’s standard *modus operandi* of “encouraging the killing of petty criminals” while “purportedly fighting crime and drug use” as both Mayor of Davao and President of the Philippines. She also observed that “President Duterte has reportedly stated...that his campaign against drugs will continue to be unrelenting and brutal”. Bensouda concluded that the investigation had been “significantly advanced” and has since stated she would “aim to finalize the preliminary examination” by 2020 in lieu of seeking authorization for further investigation. Shortly after the publication of her report, Duterte asserted that he would refuse to comply with her inspection defiant, telling reporters that he would “never, never, never answer any question coming from [the ICC]. It’s bullshit to me. I am only responsible to the Filipino. Filipinos will judge” (Petty et al., 2019).

Why the Need for Radical Policy?

Despite the widespread strong international condemnation and domestic backlash accompanying Duterte’s narcotics crackdown, his supporters insist that a stronger anti-drug policy is necessary to combat the illicit drug trade that has plagued Filipinos for decades. As early as 2004, illegal drug abuse had “reached epidemic proportions and [become] one of the top priorities on the government’s agenda” (Hembra, 2004). More specifically, most Filipino dealers were involved in the trade of methamphetamine hydrochloride (“meth”), known as “shabu” in the Philippines; over 96% of all drug rehabilitation patients in the Philippines had been hospitalized due to the usage of shabu (Dangerous Drugs Board, 2019). Although the official statistics regarding shabu use are significantly lower than Duterte’s previous claim of 3 million, the Dangerous Drugs Board’s 2015 Nationwide Survey on the Nature and Extent of Drug Abuse still estimated approximately 1.8 million current users, or 1.8% of the entire population of the Philippines, the highest rate of shabu use per capita in East Asia (Gavilan, 2016).

Even more disturbingly, the Philippines is home to an interlocking network of criminals, drug pushers, and cartels that have enabled players in the shabu industry to consistently evade the law. Index crimes (crimes targeting persons or properties) rose by 300% from 2012 to 2014 during the previous Aquino administration in sync with a similar pattern in drug use. The latter was acknowledged even by the Catholic Bishops’ Conference of the Philippines in

a July 2015 pastoral letter which described shabu being sold in a “daringly ubiquitous [manner], oftentimes peddled openly in parks, bars, and street corners.” (Ranada, 2016).

This narcotics outbreak, according to PHP officials, is largely traceable to the fact that the Philippines not only provides plenty of internal demand for drugs but also serves as a drugs “hub”, linking the Sinaloa cartel in Mexico to Chinese drug lords as “both an attractive market and a potential transshipment point”. Testimony by a former narcotics officer also revealed that meetings between top-level traffickers from both organizations had taken place in 2014 at the Resorts World Hotel (Sy Egco, 2014). These observations indicate that drastic and proactive policing strategies are needed to combat violent drug-related crimes, hence leading many to justify Duterte’s hardhanded policy as a desperate measure in desperate times.

Public Approval

The strong condemnation from international critics also sharply contrasts with Filipino public opinion polls that overwhelmingly reflect positive reactions to what citizens perceive as an unprecedented stand against endemic drug-related crime in the Philippines. According to Social Weather Stations (SWS), an independent polling agency recognized as credible and competent by the Roper Center for Public Opinion Research of Cornell University (Ithaca, New York), a survey conducted in June 2019 found 82% satisfied with the Philippine drug war and 12% dissatisfied, resulting in an “excellent” net rating of +70. Although this is lower than the campaign’s “highest satisfaction rating in December 2016 at ‘excellent’ +77...net satisfaction with the campaign has always been either ‘very good’ (+50 to +69) or ‘excellent’ (+70 and above) in all survey rounds since the beginning of the survey in September 2016” (SWS, 2019). In short, the consistent positive ratings at 70% or higher indicate widespread public support for Duterte’s anti-drug policies.

It is also illuminating to investigate the rationale behind the reactions of Filipinos to the government’s approach to law and order. 40% of the participants who were satisfied with the policy answered that this was because “drug suspects had lessened”, followed by “drug suspects have been arrested” at 18% and “lessened crime” at 13%. Meanwhile, among the 12% who said they were dissatisfied with the Philippine drug war in the June 2019 survey, the primary reason was that “drug suspects are still prevalent” (42%). The issue of “too many killings” ranked second at 31%, while “too many wrongful arrests” ranked fourth at only 9%. This focus on effectiveness rather than morality is prevalent throughout nearly all regions of the country with the notable exception of Metro Manila, where most of the extrajudicial killings have taken place (SWS, 2019). Notably, it is not attributable to any lack of public awareness regarding the bloody nature of Duterte’s crackdown; in a separate December 2019 survey by SWS, 76% of adult Filipinos “said there have been many human rights abuses in the administration’s war on illegal drugs” (SWS, 2020). Thus, it is reasonable to conclude that a majority of Filipinos view the extrajudicial killings as a necessary human cost in order to combat the deeply rooted culture of drug-related crime in the Philippines.

Policy Effectiveness

The extent to which Duterte’s anti-drug policy produced measurable success has been questioned by both the political opposition and PNP insiders. While de Lima and Trillanes focused on the growing death toll and human rights abuses occurring within the program, Vice President Lobredo produced a scathing critique questioning the initiative’s effectiveness. In

her speech on January 6, 2020, culminating her short-lived term as commander of the crackdown, Robredo called the campaign a “failure” and gave it a score of “1 out of 100...[based on] authorities being able to seize only 1% of the total supply of illegal drugs in the country”; the government seized 1,344kg of shabu from January to October 2019 compared to roughly 156,000kg consumed by users across the nation (Cepeda, 2020). She attributed this to the administration’s excessive “focus on street-level enforcement, going after the small-time pushers and users”. Her sentiment was quickly echoed by Romeo Caramat, current head of drug enforcement at the PNP; on February 7, he told Reuters that the “shock and awe” approach had failed and that major “drug lords” and manufacturers were not being effectively targeted by police operations, leading to continued “rampant drug supply” (Allard, 2020).

However, proponents of the policy have attributed its shortcomings to internal corruption within the PNP rather than a systematic flaw within the campaign itself. According to this narrative, corrupt officers known as “ninja cops” engaged in “drug recycling”, where they would supposedly confiscate shabu from major drug lords and resell it as dealers to make a profit. This practice was common even to the the upper echelons of Operation Double Barrel itself; substantial evidence has been found implicating Oscar Albayalde, Director-General of the PNP, in a 2013 operation where officers pocketed 162kg of shabu (worth approximately US\$12 million) after releasing an alleged drug lord (Robles, 2019). Meanwhile, there is also concrete evidence to show that the PNP’s aggressive approach was beneficial in deterring overt drug transactions and creating an atmosphere of law and order; during the first January 2017 suspension of the PNP’s operations, Reuters found in Manila that many dealers had “come back out of the shadows” and resumed open dealing of shabu on street trolleys and drug dens (Baldwin et al., 2017).

Conclusion

This research paper has explored the Philippine Drug War from a practical policy standpoint. On one hand, the enforcers of the crackdown have exercised widespread extrajudicial violence against lower-income drug dealers and pushers. Their efforts are directly connected to President Rodrigo Duterte and his allies at the highest levels of government, who have publicly authorized and orchestrated the attacks through funding and incendiary rhetoric. Despite the government’s attempts to conceal the extent of the brutality through the usage of hired “vigilantes” and faulty statistics, inquiries by human rights organizations alerted the global community to possible crimes against humanity committed by the Duterte administration. International institutions including the International Court of Justice have also launched independent probes into the extrajudicial killings and indicated that a later investigation into the President’s human right abuses may be forthcoming.

However, Duterte’s drug war has been an enormous success by political standards. His embrace of overt force and controversial political techniques that would be labeled as abusive in Western countries has allowed him to eliminate key dissidents including Vice President Leni Robredo and Senators Leila de Lima and Antonio Trillanes. Meanwhile, his pursuit of proactive police operations has mostly prevented illegal narcotics from being traded out in the open. In doing so, Duterte has answered one of the key demands of the Filipino people; his methods of curbing the rampant drug trade have been met with remarkably consistent public approval despite ongoing controversy regarding their actual effectiveness. Therefore,

those who seek to enforce justice must take into account the unique internal circumstances and resultant societal justifications of the human cost of Duterte's Drug War.

References

- [1] Agence France-Presse. "Obama to Duterte: Fight Crime, Terror 'the Right Way'." Rappler, 8 Sept. 2016, www.rappler.com/nation/145619-obama-duterte-crime-war-right-way.
- [2] Allard, Tom, and Karen Lema. "'Shock and Awe' Has Failed in Philippines Drug War, Enforcement Chief Says." Reuters, Thomson Reuters, 7 Feb. 2020, www.reuters.com/article/us-philippines-drugs-performance-exclusi/exclusive-shock-and-awe-has-failed-in-philippines-drug-war-enforcement-chief-says-id-USKBN2010IL.
- [3] Austin, Rod. "'War on Drugs' Makes Philippines Fourth Most Dangerous Country – Report." The Guardian, Guardian News and Media, 9 July 2019,
- [4] www.theguardian.com/global-development/2019/jul/09/war-on-drugs-makes-philippines-fourth-most-dangerous-country-report.
- [5] Baldwin, Clare, et al. "'How Much Are You Going to Buy?': The Philippines' Drug Trade Forges on with Cops out of the Way." originally published by Thomson Reuters, Business Insider, 26 Feb. 2017, www.businessinsider.com/r-out-of-the-shadows-manilas-meth-dealers-back-on-the-streets-as-cops-pull-back-2017-2.
- [6] Bernal, Buena, and Holly Yan. "Philippines' President Says He'll 'Break Up' With US, Tells Obama 'Go to Hell'." CNN, 4 Oct. 2016, www.edition.cnn.com/2016/10/04/asia/philippines-duterte-us-breakup/index.html.
- [8] Caliwan, Christopher Lloyd. "Continuous Crime Rate Decrease Shows Anti-Drug Campaign's Success."
- [9] Philippine News Agency, 12 Aug. 2018, www.pna.gov.ph/articles/1077575.
- [10] Cepeda, Mara. "'1 Over 100': Robredo Calls Duterte's Drug War a 'Failure'." Rappler, 6 Jan. 2020, www.rappler.com/nation/248610-robredo-duterte-drug-war-failure-icad-report.
- [11] Coronel, Sheila et al. "The Uncounted Dead of Duterte's Drug War." The Atlantic, Atlantic Media Company, 19
- [12] Aug. 2019, www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2019/08/philippines-dead-rodriigo-duterte-drug-war/595978/.
- [13] "Court Resets Hearing on Reinstated Rebellion Rap vs Trillanes." ABS-CBN, 18 Nov. 2019,
- [14] news.abs-cbn.com/news/11/18/19/court-resets-hearing-on-reinstated-rebellion-rap-vs-trillanes.
- [15] Damicog, Jeffrey. "Resolution on VP's Sedition Case Expected out Early This Year." Manila Bulletin News, 3
- [16] Jan. 2020, www.news.mb.com.ph/2020/01/03/resolution-on-vps-sedition-case-expected-out-early-this-year/.
- [17] Dangerous Drugs Board. "2018 Statistics." Dangerous Drugs Board, 14 Oct. 2019, www.ddb.gov.ph/45-research-and-statistics.
- [18] David, Randy. "The Political Outsider." The Inquirer, 24 Apr. 2016, opinion.inquirer.net/94430/the-political-outsider.
- [19] Duterte, Rodrigo Roa. "FULL TEXT: Duterte's Statement on Int'l Criminal Court Withdrawal." Rappler, 14
- [20] Mar. 2018, www.rappler.com/nation/198171-full-text-philippines-rodriigo-duterte-statement-international-criminal-court-withdrawal.
- [21] Ellis-Petersen, Hannah. "Duterte Confesses: 'My Only Sin Is the Extrajudicial Killings'." The Guardian,
- [22] Guardian News and Media, 28 Sept. 2018, www.theguardian.com/world/2018/sep/28/duterte-confesses-my-only-sin-is-the-extrajudicial-killings.

- [23] Gabuco, Carlo. "Philippines Drugs War: The Woman Who Kills Dealers For A Living." BBC News, 26 Aug.
- [24] 2016, www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-37172002.
- [25] Gavilan, Jodesz. "DDB: Philippines Has 1.8 Million Current Drug Users." Rappler, 19 Sep. 2016, www.rappler.com/nation/146654-drug-use-survey-results-dangerous-drugs-board-philippines-2015.
- [26] Gutierrez, Jason. "3 Philippine Police Officers Are Convicted in a Drug War Killing." The New York Times, 29 Nov. 2018, www.nytimes.com/2018/11/29/world/asia/philippines-duterte-drug-killings-police.html.
- [27] Head, Jonathan. "Philippines Election: Maverick Rodrigo Duterte Wins Presidency." BBC News, 10 May 2016, www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-36253612.
- [28] Hegina, Aries Joseph. "Davao City Improves to 5th in Ranking of World's Safest Cities." The Philippine Daily
- [29] Inquirer, 24 June 2015, www.globalnation.inquirer.net/125132/davao-city-improves-to-5th-in-ranking-of-worlds-safest-cities.
- [30] Hembra, M. "Social, Political and Economic Context of Illegal Drug Abuse in the Philippines." National
- [31] Institute on Drug Abuse, 2004, www.drugabuse.gov/international/abstracts/social-political-economic-context-illegal-drug-abuse-in-philippines.
- [32] Heydarian, Richard Javad. "Why Duterte Will Never Visit Trump's White House." Asia Times, 3 Jan. 2020, www.asiatimes.com/2020/01/why-duterte-will-never-visit-trumps-white-house/.
- [33] Hincks, Joseph. "Philippines: Inside Duterte's Killer Drug War." Al Jazeera, 9 Sept. 2016, www.aljazeera.com/indepth/features/2016/09/philippines-duterte-killer-drug-war-160905094258461.html.
- [34] Ho, Alex. "Duterte Explains: Why the Rich Are Beyond Reach of Drug War." CNN Philippines, 24 Aug. 2016, www.cnnphilippines.com/news/2016/08/24/Duterte-why-rich-beyond-reach-drug-war.html.
- [35] Holmes, Oliver. "Trump Hails 'Great Relationship' with Philippines' Duterte." The Guardian, Guardian News and Media, 13 Nov. 2017, www.theguardian.com/us-news/2017/nov/13/trump-hails-great-relationship-with-philippines-duterte.
- [36] Kine, Phelim. "Philippines' Duterte Reactivates Police in 'Drug War'." Human Rights Watch, 5 Dec. 2017, www.hrw.org/news/2017/12/05/philippines-duterte-reactivates-police-drug-war.
- [37] Lanzona Jr., Leonardo A. "The Drug War and the Immiseration of Communities." BusinessMirror, 25 Aug.
- [38] 2016, www.businessmirror.com.ph/2016/08/25/the-drug-war-and-the-immiseration-of-communities/.
- [39] Lema, Karen. "Philippines' Duterte Orders Shunning of Loans, Grants from Backers of U.N. Drug War Probe."
- [40] Reuters, Thomson Reuters, 20 Sept. 2019, www.reuters.com/article/us-philippines-drugs-un/philippines-duterte-orders-shunning-of-loans-grants-from-backers-of-u-n-drug-war-probe-idUSKBN1W510W.
- [41] Lema, Karen. "Sacked from Anti-Drugs Panel, Philippines Vice President Warns
- [42] Duterte." Edited by Simon Cameron-Moore, Reuters, Thomson Reuters, 25 Nov. 2019, www.reuters.com/article/us-philippines-drugs/sacked-from-anti-drugs-panel-philippines-vice-president-warns-duterte-idUSKBN1XZ15E.
- [43] "License to Kill." Human Rights Watch, 13 July 2017, www.hrw.org/report/2017/03/02/license-kill/philippine-police-killings-dutertes-war-drugs.
- [44] Macaraeg, Pauline. "Premeditated Murder: The Character Assassination of Leila De Lima." Rappler, 6 Dec.
- [45] 2019, www.rappler.com/newsbreak/investigative/246329-premeditated-murder-character-assassination-leila-de-lima.
- [46] Marshall, Andrew R.C., and John Chalmers. "Special Report: In Duterte's War on Drugs, Local Residents Help Draw up Hit Lists." Reuters, Thomson Reuters, 7 Oct. 2016,

- www.reuters.com/article/us-philippines-duterte-hitlists/special-report-in-dutertes-war-on-drugs-local-residents-help-draw-up-hit-lists-idUSKCN127049.
- [47] Marshall, Andrew R.C., and Manny Mogato. "Philippine Death Squads Very Much in Business as Duterte Set for Presidency." Reuters, Thomson Reuters, 26 May 2016, www.reuters.com/article/us-philippines-duterte-killings-insight-idUSKCN0YGOEB.
- [48] Mogato, Manny et al. "Blood and Benefits: Duterte Imposes His Hometown Formula on the Philippines." Reuters Investigates, 28 Dec. 2016, www.reuters.com/investigates/special-report/philippines-davao-model/.
- [49] Mogato, Manuel, and Clare Baldwin. "Special Report: Police Describe Kill Rewards, Staged Crime Scenes in Duterte's Drug War." Reuters, Thomson Reuters, 18 Apr. 2017, www.reuters.com/article/us-philippines-duterte-police-specialrep/special-report-police-describe-kill-rewards-staged-crime-scenes-in-dutertes-drug-war-idU SKBN17K1F4.
- [50] Navallo, Mike. "Trump Signs Law Banning De Lima Jailers from Entering US." ABS-CBN, 23 Dec. 2019, www.news.abs-cbn.com/news/12/23/19/trump-signs-us-2020-budget-banning-de-lima-jailers.
- [51] O'Connor, Ema. "The Philippines' New President Will Give You A Medal If You Kill A Drug Dealer." BuzzFeed News, 5 June 2016, www.buzzfeednews.com/article/emaconnor/im-not-trying-to-make-you-laugh-you-son-of-a-bitch.
- [52] Office of the Prosecutor. "Report on Preliminary Examination Activities 2018." International Criminal Court, 5 Dec. 2018, www.icc-cpi.int/itemsDocuments/181205-rep-otp-PE-ENG.pdf.
- [53] Office of the Prosecutor. "Report on Preliminary Examination Activities 2019." International Criminal Court, 5 Dec. 2019, www.icc-cpi.int/itemsDocuments/191205-rep-otp-PE.pdf.
- [54] Office of the Prosecutor. "Statement of the Prosecutor of the International Criminal Court, Fatou Bensouda Concerning the Situation in the Republic of the Philippines." International Criminal Court, 13 Oct. 2016, www.icc-cpi.int/Pages/item.aspx?name=161013-otp-stat-php.
- [55] Peel, Michael. "Drugs and Death in Davao: the Making of Rodrigo Duterte." Financial Times, 2 Feb. 2017, www.ft.com/content/9d6225dc-e805-11e6-967b-c88452263daf.
- [56] Petty, Martin, and Neil Jerome Morales. "Jail Me, Hang Me: Philippines' Duterte Says Won't Answer to ICC." Edited by Alex Richardson, Reuters, Thomson Reuters, 20 Dec. 2019, www.reuters.com/article/us-philippines-drugs/jail-me-hang-me-philippines-duterte-says-wont-answer-to-icc-idUSKBN1Y0184.
- [57] Ranada, Pia. "A Look at the State of Crime, Drugs in the Philippines." Rappler, 5 Jan. 2016, www.rappler.com/nation/118004-crime-drugs-philippines.
- [58] Rauhala, Emily. "Before Duterte Was the Philippines' President, He Was 'The Death Squad Mayor'." The Washington Post, WP Company, 28 Sept. 2016, www.washingtonpost.com/world/asia_pacific/before-duterte-was-the-philippines-president-he-was-the-death-squad-mayor/2016/09/28/f1d1ccc4-800b-11e6-ad0e-ab0d12c779b1_story.html.
- [59] Robles, Alan. "In Duterte's Drug War, Filipino 'Ninja Cops' Are Becoming the New Dealers." South China
- [60] Morning Post, 6 Oct. 2019, www.scmp.com/week-asia/politics/article/3031571/dutertes-drug-war-filipino-ninja-cops-are-becoming-new-dealers.
- [61] Santos, Ana P. "'Those Charges Are Bulls**t': Philippines Jailed De Lima Defiant." Al Jazeera, 21 Jan. 2020, www.aljazeera.com/news/2020/01/charges-bullst-philippines-jailed-de-lima-defiant-200120061152430.html.
- [62] Santos, Eimor. "PH Resumes Accepting Aid from Countries That Backed UN Drug War Probe." CNN
- [63] Philippines, 4 Mar. 2020, www.cnnphilippines.com/news/2020/3/4/malaca%C3%B1ang-lifts-aid-suspension-united-nations-drug-war.html.
- [64] Singh, Param-Preet. "Philippines Pullout From ICC Won't Block Justice for 'Drug War'." Human Rights Watch, 18 Mar. 2019, www.hrw.org/news/2019/03/18/philippines-pullout-icc-wont-block-justice-drug-war.

- [65] Smeallie, Allison N. "Punishing the Punisher: The Role of the International Criminal Court in Ending Duterte's
- [66] 'War on Drugs'." *Temple International and Comparative Law Journal*, vol. 33, no. 1, pg. 173, 24 May 2019, [sites.temple.edu/ticlj/files/2019/05/33.1_Smeallie_Article6.pdf](https://www.temple.edu/ticlj/files/2019/05/33.1_Smeallie_Article6.pdf).
- [67] Social Weather Stations. "Second Quarter 2019 Social Weather Survey: Net Satisfaction with Anti-Illegal Drugs
- [68] Campaign at 'Excellent' +70." *Social Weather Stations*, 22 Sept. 2019, www.sws.org.ph/swsmain/artcldisppage/?artcsyscode=ART-20190922154614.
- [69] Social Weather Stations. "Fourth Quarter 2019 Social Weather Survey: 76% of Filipinos See Many Human
- [70] Rights Abuses in the Administration's War on Illegal Drugs, 24% See Few." *Social Weather Stations*, 15 Jan. 2020, www.sws.org.ph/swsmain/artcldisppage/?artcsyscode=ART-20190922154614.
- [71] Sy Egco, Joel M. "PH Center of World Drug Trade." *The Manila Times*, The Manila Times Publishing Corp, 1 Jan. 2014, www.manilatimes.net/2014/01/01/news/headlines/ph-center-of-world-drug-trade/64443/64443/.
- [72] Talabong, Rambo. "Central Luzon: New Killing Fields in Duterte's Drug War." *Rappler*, 24 Feb. 2019, www.rappler.com/newsbreak/in-depth/224159-central-luzon-new-killing-fields-duterte-drug-war.
- [73] "They Just Kill." *Amnesty International*, July 2019, www.amnesty.org/download/Documents/ASA3505782019ENGLISH.PDF.
- [74] United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC). "Promotion and Protection of Human Rights in the Philippines." *United Nations General Assembly*, A/HRC/41/L.20, 5 July 2019, <https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/LTD/G19/205/53/PDF/G1920553.pdf?OpenElement>,
- [75] Valente, Catherine S. "Duterte Appoints Robredo to Anti-Drug Panel." *The Manila Times*, The Manila Times Publishing Corp, 5 Nov. 2019, www.manilatimes.net/2019/11/06/news/top-stories/duterte-appoints-robredo-to-anti-drug-panel/653808/.
- [76] Van Sant, Shannon. "U.N. Human Rights Council To Investigate Abuses In Philippines' Antidrug War." *NPR*, 11 July 2019, www.npr.org/2019/07/11/740894175/u-n-human-rights-council-to-investigate-abuses-in-philippines-antidrug-war.
- [77] Villamor, Felipe. "Second Philippine Senator Who Defied Duterte Is Arrested." *The New York Times*, 25 Sept. 2018, www.nytimes.com/2018/09/25/world/asia/philippines-antonio-trillanes-duterte.html.
- [78] Viray, Patricia Lourdes. "What We Know so Far: Killing of Carl Arnaiz, 19". *The Philippine Star*, 8 Sept. 2017, www.philstar.com/headlines/2017/09/04/1735729/what-we-know-so-far-killing-carl-arnaiz-19.
- [79] "World Report 2020: Philippines." *Human Rights Watch*, 16 Jan. 2020, www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/philippines.

Determinants Underscoring Vocational Training: a South African Public Service Case

Petronella Jonck

Professor, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences North West University, South Africa

Abstract

This article reports on the influence of demographic and institutional variables on the outcome of a skills development intervention within the context of the South African public service. The sample consisted out of 70 ($n = 70$) public officials employed either at national or provincial spheres of government. A quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test research design was implemented in which a controls, comparison and an experimental group were utilized to determine the influence of, for example gender, age, department, and governmental sphere on the outcome of a skills development intervention. The workshop spanned two days and consisted out of a quantitative and qualitative section. Data was gathered by means of an unabridged questionnaire based on the content of the intervention viz. the research methodology workshop, with a reliability of 0.890 for the experimental group and 0.717 for the control groups. Inferential statistical analyses included One-way Analysis of Variance, independent sample T-test, Pearson's Product moment correlation and multiple regression analysis. Results revealed that institutional determinants i.e. department and governmental sphere statistically significantly influence the outcome of a research methodology training intervention. Scientifically, the study attempts to enlarge the corpus of knowledge underscoring training effectiveness specifically within the public service taking cognisance of return on investment of public funding as well as austerity measures.

Keywords: Vocational training, training effectiveness, public service, research methodology knowledge, quasi-experimental research.

Introduction

The principal tenets of intuitional training research are changing from formative effectiveness based on the intervention to determining why, when and for whom a particular intervention would be deemed effective (Hook & Bunce, 2001). The afore stated is premised on an emerging distinction between training evaluation and training effectiveness in the available corpus of knowledge (Kraigner, Ford & Salas, 1993 as cited in Hook & Bunce, 2001: 437). Elaborating on the distinction, evaluation research is deemed a managerial tool aimed at ascertaining whether training outcomes have been achieved. In contrast, effectiveness research investigate why training outcomes were achieved alternatively not achieved by taking individual differences, training-related facets and institutional factors into consideration (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas & Connon-Bowers, 1991 as cited in Hook & Bunce, 2001). The rationale underpinning training effectiveness centres on the assertion by White (2008) that

training delivery should be reflective of best practice to enhance training outcomes, curriculum design, educational policies and instructional techniques compatible with the development orientation of trainees.

Fraser and Killen (2005) stated that training success can never be guaranteed. However, if a concerted effort is made to develop a shared understanding of factors that contribute to learner success strides would have been made towards accomplishing training effectiveness. Sommerville and Singaram (2018) summarized various aspects that impede on training success within the context of higher education subsuming learner's gender, age, ethnicity, language, culture, socio-economic status, health, and ethos to mention a few. These non-cognitive demographic characteristics form part of the four facets that according to Samuel (2008) as quoted by the previously stated authors influence professional development, namely demographical or biographical, contextual, institutional and programmatic features. The cited research supports the previously mentioned assertion by Hook and Bunce (2001) that effectiveness research is influenced by individual differences, training-related aspects and organisational factors. Anderson and Subramanian (2006) indicated that scientific literature on determinants of educational outcomes focus for the most part on a range of demographic measures and characteristics, for instance gender, ethnicity and contextual or familial topographies. Cowman and McCarthy (2016) did an impact assessment of demographic (i.e. age, educational background, position) and situational (i.e. time since training, tenure, recruitment to training intervention and preparation) factors relating to training transfer which is a pivotal facet of training effectiveness and established that these non-cognitive facets have important implications vis-à-vis the profile of the workforce, the training and development function and trainee recruitment. Iseke, Kocks, Schneider and Schulze-Bentrop (2015) noted that considerable research has been devoted to the impact of demographic characteristics on, for example research team performance to such a degree that the concept of demographic fault-lines has emerged (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010; Rohnbeck, 2010). However, the aforementioned researched team performance and not individual research performance (Iseke et al., 2015).

Internationally, Brooks and Monirith (2010) noted that a country's capacity to absorb and produce knowledge by means of research is increasingly linked to advancing social and economic well-being. Studies on research capacity-building and accounts published by international aid agencies identify the critical levers in the development of research capacity in developing nations as resources, institutional structures, researcher training, and absorptive capacity. Sanyal and Varghese (2006) explained that research capacity-building activities include training human resources to produce knowledge by means of scientific studies. Subsequently in the South African context, research plays a pivotal role in the realisation of a skills and capable developmental state (Jonck, De Coning & Radikonyana, 2018). As such, the National Development Plan (NDP) which is the pronouncement of South Africa's long-term vision stipulated that 'a well-functioning research capacity is vital in sustaining growth and improving productivity' (National Development Plan 2030, 2012:131). By the same token, the NDP (2012:293) postulated that research conducted by government departments, and organs of state, has a fundamental part to accomplish in improving South Africa's global competitiveness. McLaverty (2007) elaborating on the work of Johnson (2002) noted that research furnishes public officials with information enabling the stated to make informed, rational decisions which ultimately impact on the lives of citizenry.

In light of a foregoing discussion and the importance of research capacity-building, literature on demographic variables that might influence training effectiveness is based largely on school populations as well as within the context of higher education (Sommerville & Singaram, 2018) with a paucity if any studies which investigate the said at institutional level, for example, government agencies especially in the South African context. Moreover, current discourse predominantly focuses on policy debates and theoretical aspects as it relates to human resource development (Cowman & McCarthy, 2016) resulting in a paucity of practical implementation examples underscoring objectively measuring factors influencing training effectiveness (Abrahams, 2015). Per se, Keogan (2006) and Clarke (2002) as cited in Cowman and McCarthy (2016) made mention that there is a lack of in-depth evaluation studies on factors affecting training effectiveness, for example in the health care sector. To this end, the purpose of the research reported on, was to explore the influence of demographic and institutional factors that theoretically might influence the outcome of a research methodology training intervention in the South African public service emphasizing training effectiveness.

The significance of the reported research can be found in the three major challenges facing developing countries in achieving education and training goals, viz. limited resources, inequity and inefficiency. Last mentioned refers to ineffective spending resulting in less than anticipated learning and training outcomes (United Nations Development Programme, 2003). The extrapolated South African public service training expenditure estimates for the 2019/2020 financial year was R3.14 billion which is set to increase to R3.3 billion in the consecutive period (National Treasury, 2018). It stands to reason that establishing the return on investment of public service funding with specific reference to training expenditure in light of the current fiscal constraints are crucial (Jonck, 2017) addressing two of the three major challenges viz. limited resources and inefficiency. Sheoraj (2007) asserted that public service training costs are increasingly becoming unsustainable accentuating the importance of research focusing on training effectiveness.

Public Service Human Resource Development in a Developing Context

At an implementation level, Birzel and Tannehill (2001, as cited in Hunter-Johnson and Closson (2012: 193) proclaimed that human resource development (i.e. training) is deemed the catalyst through which protocol and public administration philosophy are introduced to public servants. At policy level, empirical analysis in developing countries demonstrate that inequalities in the distribution of human capital, notably education and skills adversely affect economic growth (Pillay, 2004). Yaw and Ofori (2006) asserted that matters pertaining to human resource development in developing economies have not received sufficient attention in literature in spite of the strategic importance thereof in economic development. The question that arises in light of the pivotal role skills development and or training accomplish especially in the context of the public service centers on benchmarking with develop countries to identify best practices. As such, Clardy (2008) noted that within the context of the United States, government has an extensive policy framework governing training practices. The lessons learned from the federal government as listed by Clardy (2008) subsume, for example that training policies that specify the methods or procedures of training create further dysfunctional results in comparison to policies that specify the desired goals, outcomes, or training effectiveness. Thus, training effectiveness in relation to training outcomes are underscored within the context of a develop country.

Within the South African developing context, integration between education and training remain a significant challenge. As such Pillay (2006) pointed out a lacuna of evidence signifying that serious attempts have been made to develop a coordinated strategy for education and training. Even though, on paper a National Human Resource Development Strategy focusing on coordinated policymaking exist. To substantiate the statement, Pillay (2006) mentioned that the interdepartmental committee appointed to govern the implementation of the mentioned strategy has ceased functioning. Pillay (2006) noted that greater synergy between promulgated policies and implementation could lead to improved skills outcomes. The challenge for South Africa, given the legislative, governance and funding framework being in place, include increasing or improving effectiveness relating to quality implementation (Pillay, 2006). Jonck, de Coning and Radikonyana (2018) asserted that a paucity of studies underscore training effectiveness within the context of the South African public service.

Modise and Mosweunyane (2014) reflected on training and development in the Botswana public sector context noted that the country's National Human Resource Development Strategy provides the main guideline enabling the effective realization of human resources to successfully deal with a fast-changing national environment as well as a highly competitive international market. Moreover, the current National Development Plan emphasizes the Botswana public service's commitment to expand access to high-quality technical and vocational education and training (TVET), in order to foster competent innovative and internationally competitive national human resource functions.

Debrah and Ofori (2006), citing Debrah (2004) considered that the Tanzanian government is renovating Human Resource Management policies including human resource development practices in the public sector. Especially, a novel Public Service Management and Employment Policy was instituted to enhance, recruitment, retention, performance management, motivation and employee development. The policy aims to inverse the deterioration in fiscal investment during the socialist period, make Human Resource Development the lynchpin of economic development and equip Tanzanian public servants with requisite skills (Debrah, 2004).

From the discussion thus far, it would appear that the mentioned developing countries have broad human resource management policies. However, the explicatory nature of the policy frameworks governing training practices specifically

are not elucidated. Additionally, the linkage between policy and implementation are absent specifically between training effectiveness and outcomes. Another identified gap in available literature according to Metcalfe (2011) encompasses that current literature has not examined gender matters nor considered the governance regimes and institution cultures that shape national human resource development systems. This is a key knowledge gap as many developing countries target the training of women in national human resource development planning (Metcalfe, 2011) underscoring the importance of demographic and institutional determinants of capacity building and training.

Determinants of training outcome

Clarkson (2008) noted that disaggregating data in accordance with demographic variables, for example ethnicity, socio-economic status, gender and language is deemed acceptable practice when reporting on learning outcomes. Geringer, Canton, Stratemeyer and Rice

(2013) hypothesised that learning outcomes might be a function of demographics, i.e. age, gender, ethnicity and or major with specific reference to higher education students' service-learning experience in marketing. Results confirmed no statistically significant gender differences in relation to learning outcomes. However, age and academic major yielded statistically significant results (Geringer et al., 2013). Alhajraf and Alasfour (2014) established that age, gender, and academic acumen are statistically significantly related to business students' academic performance i.e. learning outcome. Numerous studies have examined gender specifically in relation to academic performance mostly yielding statistically significant results (see Haist, Wilson, Elam, Blue & Fosson, 2000; Ferguson, James & Madely, 2002). On the other hand, results underscoring age and academic qualification appears to be inconclusive to date (Trueman & Hartley, 1996 as cited by Sommerville & Singaram, 2018). In the South African context, Sommerville and Singaram (2018) discovered statistically significant differences relating to race, language and financial support pertaining to a five-year medical qualification. However, no statistically significant results were yielded with reference to gender and age. To date no empirical evidence could be identified that investigate the influence of department and governmental sphere on training outcomes. Despite the stated, Sheoraj (2007:310) referred to the uneven distribution of skills and capacity between governmental spheres.

Much has been written about demographic variables and the influence thereof on formal academic performance. However, little empirical research can be located pertaining to demographic differences extending beyond formal academic performance to institutional and or organisational training (viz. vocational training and development). Hook and Bunce (2001), for instance proclaimed that literature suggest that research into organisational training has to date not investigated aspects pertaining to session process and outcome relationships with any degree of rigour. Howbeit, Samuel (2008) asserted that non-cognitive demographic characteristics influence professional development providing support to suggest a possible association between demographic variables and training outcomes. Cowman and McCarthy (2016) noted that research to date (e.g. Chen et al., 2006; Van der Klink et al., 2001) has not yet reached a consensus on how demographic variables influence the training transfer process subsuming research outcomes and effectiveness.

Research methodology

The subsequent methodology was employed to test the research hypothesis, namely: *"Determinants such as department, governmental sphere, gender, age, highest academic qualification, previous work experience and additional research-related support had a statistically significant influence on the outcome of a research methodology skills development workshop in the South African public service."*

Research design and procedure

The overarching longitudinal research project adopted a quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test research design in which a control, comparison and an experimental group were employed to determine the impact of a research methodology skills development intervention. Intrinsically, the research corpus emphasizes the usage of the mentioned methodology most often within a teaching and learning context. For example, a quasi-experimental field study with a four-month time difference between the pre-test and post-test was utilized to measure the outcome of design thinking training on managerial dynamic capabilities (Kurtmollaiev, Pedersen, Fjuk & Kvale, 2018). Another example, subsume a quasi-experimental pre- and post-

test study to investigate the outcome of a standardized suicide awareness and prevention intervention (Shannonhouse, Lin, Saw & Porter, 2017). Moreover, the research reported on was premised on Babbie and Mouton's work (2011, as cited in Jonck, De Coning & Radikonyana, 2018) which noted that the rationale underpinning an impact assessment consider that an intervention has predetermined objectives. Henceforth, the standard evaluation approach to determine whether training outcomes have been reached is considered to be a pre-test post-test design.

As to the research procedure, participants volunteered to partake in a research methodology training intervention and or requested a training needs analysis in accordance with a need that arose as participants self-reported a deficiency in the research capacity to complete higher education postgraduate studies. Skills development facilitators representing the departments consequently intervened as incomplete higher education studies result in fruitless expenditure besides influencing bursary requirements. The intervention previously mentioned consisted out of two sections, namely a qualitative segment presented on the first day, followed by a quantitative section presented on the second day. The mode of delivery entailed traditional lecturing, course dialogue and practical tutorials on a resource disc distributed to participants. Additionally, teaching aids, such as PowerPoint presentations, flip charts and electronic devices were utilized by facilitators (Jonck et al. 2018).

Research participants

The target population consisted out of permanently employed or employees on a fixed-term contract in the public service either nationally or provincially in need of or envisioned to be in need of research methodology training. A micro-level unit of analysis was applied referring to individual participants exposed to or anticipated to be exposed to a research methodology skills development intervention either comparison or experimental in nature. A non-probability sampling method was implemented in that participants who attended training or envisioned attending training (viz. respondents who expressed the need for training) were included in the sample. The response rate for the experimental group was 96.9% and for the counterfactual group the same was 60%.

Furthermore, the sample was well represented in terms of gender, age, highest academic qualification and previous work experience. However, the distribution was skewed vis-à-vis participating departments as well as governmental sphere. With reference to group, the experimental group represented 47.14% (n = 33) of the sample, while the control group represented 31.43% (n = 22) and the comparison group made up 21.43% (n = 15). Data were gathered from a sample of 70 (n = 70) public servants consisting out of 55.07% (n = 38) female and 44.93% (n = 31) male respondents. Three government departments participated in the study, two originating from national sphere of government and one from provincial level of government. Elaborating further, 78.57% (n = 55) of the sample were employed at a national department, while 21.43% (n = 15) were employed at provincial level. In terms of the age of participants, 8.57% (n = 6) of the sample were 25 years or younger, 21.43% representative of 15 respondents were between the ages of 26 and 35, 32.86% (n = 23) were between 36 and 45 years of age, 30.00% (n = 21) were between 46 and 55, while 7.14% (n = 5) were between 56 and 65. Pertaining to highest academic qualification, most participants held an Honours Degree (n = 24; 34.28%), followed by a Bachelor's degree (n = 15; 21.43%), a Magister qualification (n = 12; 17.14%), a diploma (n = 9; 12.86%), a post-graduate qualification (n = 7; 10%), and lastly a Grade 12 diploma with certificates (n = 3; 4.29%).

With reference to previous work experience, the response categories were recoded from seven options to three main categories, namely private sector, public service as well as self-employed. Subsequently, 17.19% representing 11 respondents indicated they were previously employed in the private sector, the majority of the sample ($n = 44$; 68.75%) on the other hand indicated their previous employment were within the public service. Only, 14.06% representing 9 respondents were self-employed prior to joining the public service. Lastly, respondents were requested to indicate the environmental support they would require with specific reference to research methodology skills development. The sample consisted out of 27.14% ($n = 19$) respondents requiring training, 2.86% ($n = 2$) in need of coaching, 11.43% ($n = 8$) requesting mentoring, 7.14% ($n = 5$) needing e-learning support, 38.57% ($n = 27$) called for all of the above, while 12.86% ($n = 9$) indicated they require none of the above.

Data collection instrument and analysis

Data was gathered by means of a self-constructed questionnaire based on the content of a research methodology workshop, with a reliability of 0.88 and an inter-item correlation of 0.225 as reported by Jonck et al. (2018). The administered survey consisted out of three sections, including a section that dealt with demographic variables i.e. gender, age, highest academic qualification to mention a few. Section two appraised qualitative and quantitative research methodology knowledge. A sample item from Section B is: "In quantitative research I predominantly use closed-ended questions." Another example is: "Qualitative data is analysed using a thematic content analysis approach." A four-point Likert scale was used, where a score of one represented 'strongly agree' and four 'strongly disagree'. Section three invited respondents to provide additional training information and consisted out of two items. The first item requested respondents to specify interest in research-related future training indicative of topic engagement and was coded into three response categories, namely positive, negative and interested in other training interventions not related to research methodology. The second item probed respondents with reference to environmental support required with specific reference to research methodology skills development in order to inform future training interventions. Responses were coded into six response categories, namely training, coaching, mentoring, e-learning support, all of the above and none of the above.

The measuring instrument was validated previously by Jonck et al. (2018) by means of factor analysis which according to Lu (2014), is deemed an efficient tool to ascertain the underlying construct validity of a measuring instrument and comprised both exploratory and confirmatory analyses. Results obtained indicated that two components had eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size and could be clustered into qualitative and quantitative research methodology and or design. The measuring instrument in totality accounted for 61.745% of the variance (Jonck et al., 2018). The Cronbach alpha estimate for the current study was 0.890 for the experimental group and 0.717 for the control and comparison groups.

Descriptive statistical analysis was carried out through measures of central tendency i.e. median, mean and standard deviation. The primary research hypothesis was tested by way of inferential statistical analyses subsuming T-test for Independent Groups and One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). More specifically, the first mentioned were performed in the case of gender and governmental sphere ascribed to the mentioned variables consisting out of two levels. While, One-way analysis of variance coupled with Tukey's Post Hoc test were

performed for department, age, highest academic qualification, previous work experience and environmental support. Moreover, Pearson's product moment correlation was used to measure the strength and direction of the relationship between constructs (Holton, Bates, Bookter & Yamkovenko, 2007 as cited in Jonck, 2017). Whereas, standard multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the variance in research methodology knowledge which can be explained by statistically significant variables. Lastly, Cronbach alpha estimate was calculated to confirm the reliability of the application.

Ethical consideration

Standard ethical protocol was observed that is to say, protecting research participants and honouring trust. More specifically, no deception took place and informed consent was negotiated (viz. participants were informed about the aims and scope of the research project). In addition to, anticipating harm and respecting the rights of participants with reference to confidentiality and anonymity (ASA, 1999).

Findings

The descriptive statistics for research methodology knowledge are reported in Table 1 below. The descriptive statistics subsumed the mean score, median, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for research methodology knowledge

	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Research Methodology Knowledge	8.00	73.00	54.00	57.778	12.798	-1.362	1.731

As per Table 1 respondents had a mean score of 54 which was slightly more positive than the median of 57.778. The median indicates that mid-point between scores i.e. the 50% mark. In terms of skewness and kurtosis, the results suggest that the data were normally distributed and had a normal peak. More specifically, calculated values between -1.96 and 1.96 indicate that the distribution is not meaningfully different from a normal distribution (Prett, 2016).

In order to investigate the primary aim of the study which was to determine demographic variables that statistically significantly influence the outcome of a research methodology training intervention in the South African public service inferential statistical analyses were performed and reported on subsequently. Ascribed to the fact that gender and governmental sphere only consisted out of two response categories Independent Sample T-tests were performed and illustrated in Table 2 and 3. Note that the Levene's test for significance yielded statistically significant results in both cases indicative of equal variance not assumed (Pallant, 2011).

Table 2: T-test results for gender and research methodology knowledge

Dependent Variable	Mean difference	t	DF	p
Research methodology knowledge	2.759	1.103	98.26	0.27

* $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$ DF, degrees of freedom

Table 2 reflecting the results of an Independent Sample T-test with gender as independent variable and research methodology knowledge as dependent variable, did not yield a statistically significant outcome. Despite the aforementioned an inspection of the mean scores indicated that female respondents performed slightly more positive on the measuring instrument with a mean score of 52.66 and a standard deviation of 14.24 than their male counterparts with a mean score of 55.41 and a standard deviation of 10.88.

Table 3: T-test results for governmental sphere and research methodology knowledge

Dependent Variable	Mean difference	t	DF	p
Research methodology knowledge	-7.43	-3.55	44.09	0.001**

* $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$ DF, degrees of freedom

According to Table 3 above, governmental sphere as independent variable had a statistically significant influence on research methodology knowledge as dependent variable on the 99th percentile. An inspection of the mean scores revealed that respondents employed at national sphere of government had statistically significantly higher research methodology knowledge (mean = 52.91; STD = 13.36) than the same employed at provincial governmental sphere (mean = 60.33; STD

= 5.90). Despite afore mentioned the eta square statistics indicated a small effect (eta square = 0.11).

To determine whether department, age, highest academic qualification, previous work experience and environmental support had a statistically significant influence on respondent's research methodology knowledge one-way analyses of variance were performed as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: ANOVA test results for various demographic variables and research methodology knowledge

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Mean squares	f	DF	p
Department		790.91	5.23	2	0.007**
Age		164.88	1.01	4	0.408
qualification	Highest academic Research methodology	212.07	1.32	5	0.264
	Previous work experience	260.72	1.56	2	0.217
Environmental support		260.72	1.56	2	0.217

* $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$ DF, degrees of freedom

ANOVA results displayed in Table 4, indicated that only department as independent variable had a statistically significant influence on research methodology knowledge on the 99th percentile. Tukey's Post Hoc test was calculated to determine which departments statistically significantly differ from each other with results depicted in Table 5 overleaf. Furthermore,

none of the other independent variables had statistically significant influence on the dependent variable, research methodology, as shown in Table 5.

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test depicted in Table 5 overleaf indicated that the mean score for Department A (mean = 51.0615; STD = 14.38736) statistically significantly varied from Department B (mean = 58.3636; STD = 7.63791) and Department C (mean = 60.3333; STD = 5.89996). Department B and Department C did not yield a statistically significant comparable difference.

Table 5: Tukey's Post Hoc results for department

Department	Mean Difference	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Department A Department B	-7.30210*	3.03209	0.047*	-14.5169	-0.0873
Department A Department C	-9.27179*	3.52122	0.026*	-17.6505	-0.8931
Department B Department A	7.30210*	3.03209	0.047*	0.0873	14.5169
Department B Department C	-1.96970	4.11618	0.882	-11.7640	7.8247
Department C Department A	9.27179*	3.52122	0.026*	0.8931	17.6505
Department C Department B	1.96970	4.11618	0.882	-7.8247	11.7640

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

In order to examine the influence of demographic variables further, regression analysis was performed to determine the percentage of variance explained by each of the before stated (see Table 7). To this end Pearson Product Moment correlation was computed as prerequisite to the standard regression analysis as shown in Table 6.

Table 6 shows that department positively relates to governmental sphere ($r = 0.839$; large effect) on the 99th percentile. Moreover, age had a positive correlation with governmental sphere ($r = 0.411$; medium effect) as was the case with qualification and age ($r = 0.314$; medium effect). Both of the mentioned association were on the 99th percentile with reference to significance. Lastly, both department ($r = 0.299$; small effect) and governmental sphere ($r = 0.207$; small effect) had statistically significant influence on research methodology knowledge).

Table 6: Correlation coefficients for various demographic variables and research methodology knowledge

	S	D	G	A	Q	PE	AS	RK
r	1							
S		-	-	-	-	-	-	-
				p				
r	.839	1						
D			-	-	-	-	-	-
p	.000**							
r	-.036	.021	1					
G				-	-	-	-	-
p	.722	.834						
r	.411	.169	-.014	1				
A					-	-	-	-
p	.000**	.089	.889					
r	-.023	-.135	.019	.314	1			

Q									
	p	.818	.177	.851	.001**				
	r	.094	.088	-.016	-.050	.035	1		
PE									
	p	.366	.397	.877	.628	.735			
	r	.011	.024	.038	-.038	.032	-.144	1	
AS									
	p	.915	.810	.703	.708	.747	.163		
	r	.207	.299	-.108	-.143	-.179	.096	-.057	1
RK									
	p	.037*	.002**	.284	.152	.072	.356	.567	

* $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

Practical significance: $r < 0.10$ (small effect); $r < 0.30$ (medium effect); $r < 0.50$ (large effect)

S, Sphere; D, Department; G, Gender; A, Age; Q, Qualification; PE, Previous Experience; AS, Additional Support; RK, Research Knowledge

Table 7: Variances explained by demographic variables on research methodology knowledge

Variable	R	R ²	ΔR^2	β	p
Governmental sphere	0.207	0.043	0.033	0.207	0.037*
Department	0.299	0.089	0.080	0.299	0.002**

* $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

R, R-value; R², R-square; ΔR^2 , R-square change; β , beta; p, significance

Table 7 summarize the regression analysis with governmental sphere and department as independent variables and research methodology as dependent variable. As such, governmental sphere explained 20.7% of the variance in research methodology knowledge as indicated by the Beta value of 0.207 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.033$; $p \leq 0.037$), while Department explained 29.9% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.080$; $p \leq 0.002$). First mentioned was on the 95th percentile statistically significant, while last mentioned on the 99th percentile.

Discussion and Conclusion

Public service training expenditure is increasingly becoming unsustainable with a paucity of evidence underscoring the return on investment of public service funding which in light of the current fiscal constraints are paramount. Evaluation and effectiveness training research can be deemed mechanisms that collaboratively might shed light on the achievement of training outcomes and the environmental determinants that would be conducive to the realization of the said outcomes. To this end, the objective of the research presented in this manuscript was to examine the demographic determinants that would theoretically influence the training outcome of a research methodology workshop within the context of the public service from the perspective of effectiveness training research. Statistically significant results were obtained for department and governmental sphere, partially verifying the research hypothesis. As far as could be established, similar findings have not previously been reported. Nevertheless, Sheoraj (2007) did note the status quo with reference to skills distribution between governmental spheres can be considered uneven. The findings

reported on verified the assertion by Sheoraj (2007) with specific reference to research methodology knowledge.

Furthermore, gender, age, qualification, previous work experience and environmental support did not return statistically significant results, rejecting part of the research hypothesis. Findings by Sommerville and Singaram (2018) supported the presented results in that gender and age yielded no statistically significant influence on academic performance of medical undergraduates. Similarly, Geringer et al. (2013) confirmed no statistically significant gender differences in relation to learning outcomes. Research underscoring academic qualification appears to be inconclusive to date (Trueman & Hartley, 1996 as cited by Sommerville & Singaram, 2018) neither verifying or refuting the findings presented. On the contrary, international literature refutes the mentioned findings as Alhajraf and Alasfour (2014), for example established that age, gender, and academic acumen are statistically significantly related to business students' academic performance. In the same way, age and academic major (viz. academic qualification) yielded statistically significant results in marketing service-learning training (Geringer et al., 2013). Though, the context of the aforementioned studies differs vastly focusing for the most part on formal academic performance and not institutional training research providing support for the contention by Hook and Bunce (2001) that research into organisational training has to date not investigated aspects pertaining to outcome interactions with any degree of rigour.

Moreover, Samual (2008) asserted that non-cognitive demographic variables influence professional development, however the result presented refute the assertion as only institutional features (Sommerville & Singaram, 2018) influenced training outcome. Hence, despite literature to suggest that demographic variables are important factors underscoring research team performance, the same does not hold true for individual research performance (Iseke et al., 2015).

Effectiveness research as it relates to training especially in the context of the public service is of paramount importance and should be on the forefront of research endeavours as well as institutional monitoring and evaluation agendas. It is recommended that the suggested methodology be utilised in future research in an effort to validate the current findings in addition to strengthening the body of knowledge.

Contribution of the research

The article responds to the three major challenges facing developing countries in achieving training goals, notably limited resources and inefficiency. Per se, the research under study investigated demographic and institutional determinants that theoretically impede training efficiency, in an effort to supplement current discourse focusing for the most part on policy debates in the absence of empirical evidence of practical implementation emphasizing training effectiveness relating to a training intervention at grass roots level. Secondly, to enrich public service training effectiveness, guarantee training provisioning that is reflective of best practice, enhance training outcomes, curriculum design, educational policies and instructional techniques, individual differences (i.e. demographic determinants) in addition to other facets such as institutional features should be utilized as design tools to ensure the compatibility between human resource development interventions and trainees. Thirdly, results can be utilized to profile the workforce, influence the training and development function in addition to improve trainee recruitment which contribute towards talent management practices.

Limitations

Acknowledged limitations include the sample size and strategy as well as the delimitation of the study. With reference to the first mentioned research results are centred on a small sample which cannot be perceived as representative of the population especially since the majority of the sample originated from national government excluding, for instance local government. Notwithstanding the mentioned caveats relating to sampling, the research objective was not to generalise the findings to the larger population but rather to report on results within the scope of the training intervention. Even though the aim of the current research refutes the requirement of representativeness, it is advisable to interpret the results with caution concentrating on hypothesized tendencies that might impact on the outcome of a training intervention. Furthermore, the research reported on in this article had a delimited scope as it focused on the influence of demographic variables on the outcomes of a skills capacity intervention underscoring effectiveness training. Future research undertakings should broaden the scope to other training interventions coupled with evaluation studies.

References

- [1] Abrahams, M.A. (2015). A review of the growth of monitoring and evaluation in South Africa: Monitoring and evaluation as a profession, an industry and a governance tool. *African Evaluation Journal*, 3(1), a142.<http://doi.org/10.4102/aej.v3i1.142>.
- [2] Alhajraf, N.M., & Alasfour, A.M. (2014). The impact of demographic and academic characteristics on academic performance. *International Business Research*, 7(4), 92-100.
- [3] Andersson, E., & Subramanian, S.V. (2006). Exploration of neighbourhood and educational outcomes for young Swedes. *Urban Studies*, 43(1), 2013-2025.
- [4] Association of Social Anthropologists of the United Kingdom and Commonwealth, ASA. (1999). *Ethical guidelines for good research practice*. Retrieved February 14, 2019, from <http://www.theasa.org/ethics/guidelines.shtml>.
- [5] Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2011). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town, South Africa: Oxford University Press.
- [6] Birzer, M.L., & R. Tannehill. (2001). A more effective training approach for contemporary policing. *Police Quarterly*, 4(2), 233-252.
- [7] Brooks, A., & Monirith, L. (2010). Faculty virtue and research capacity-building in the context of poorly funded universities: the case of the Royal University of Phnom Penh. *Human Resource Development International*, 13(1), 83-98.
- [8] Chen, H., Holton III, E., & Bates, R.A. (2006). Situational and demographic influences on transfer system characteristics in organizations. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 19(3), 7-26.
- [9] Clardy, A. (2008). Policies for managing the training and development function: lessons from the federal government. *Public Personnel Management*, 37(1), 27-54.
- [10] Clarke, N. (2002). Job/work environment factors influencing training transfer within a human service agency: Some indicative support for Baldwin and Ford's transfer climate construct. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 6, 146-162.
- [11] Clarkson, L.M.C. (2008). Demographic data and immigrant student achievement. *Theory into practice*, 47, 20-26.
- [12] Cowman, M.C., & McCarthy, A.M. (2016). The impact of demographic and situational factors on training transfer in a health care setting. *Irish Journal of Management*, 35(2), 129-142.
- [13] Debrah, Y.A. (2004). HRM in Tanzania. In Kamoche, K.N., Debrah, Y.A., Horwitz, F.M., and Muuka, G.N. (eds.), *Managing Human Resources in Africa*. London: Routledge, pp. 69-86.
- [14] Debrah, Y.A., & Ofori, G. (2006). Human resource development of professionals in an emerging economy: the case of the Tanzanian construction industry. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(3), 440-463.

- [15] Ferguson, E., James, D., & Madeley, L. (2002). Factors associated with success in medical school: Systematic review of the literature. *British Medical Journal*, 324, 952–957.
- [16] Fraser, W., & Killen, R. (2005). The perceptions of students and lecturers of some factors affecting academic performance at two South African universities. *Perspectives in Education*, 23(1), 25–40.
- [17] Geringer, S.D., Canton, A.C., Stratemeyer, A.W., & Rice, W. (2013). The effect of demographic variables upon university students' service-learning experience in marketing. *The Open Education Journal*, 6, 18-24.
- [18] Hist, S.A., Wilson, J.F., Elam, C.L., Blue, A.V., & Fosson, S.E. (2000). The effect of gender and age on medical school performance: An important interaction. *Advances in Health Science Education*, 5(3), 197–205.
- [19] Holton, E.F., Bates, R.A., Bookter, A.I., & Yamjovenko, V.B. (2007). Convergent and divergent validity of the Learning Transfer System's Inventory. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 18(3), 358-419.
- [20] Hook, K., & Bunce, D. (2001). Immediate learning in organisational computer training as a function of training intervention affective reaction and session impact measures. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50(3), 436-454.
- [21] Hunter-Johnson, Y., & Closson, R.B. (2012). Learners' educational orientation as a design tool for human resource development professionals in law enforcement: a Caribbean context. *Human Resource Development International*, 15(2), 193-208.
- [22] Iseke, A., Kocks, B., Schneider, M.R., & Schulze-Bentrop, C. (2015). Cross-cutting organizational and demographic divides and the performance of research and development teams: two wrongs can make a right. *R&D Management*, 45(1), 23-40.
- [23] Jehn, K.A., & Bezrukova, K. (2010). The fault-line activation process and the effects of activated fault-lines on coalition formation, conflict, and group outcomes. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 112(1), 24-42.
- [24] Johnson, G. (2002). *Research Methods for Public Administrators*. Westport: Quorum Books.
- [25] Jonck, P. (2017). Graduate employability skills within the public service: A South African case. *The Independent Journal of Teaching and Learning*, 12(2), 64-77.
- [26] Jonck, P., De Coning, R., & Radikonyana, P.S. (2018). A micro-level outcomes evaluation of a skills capacity interventions within the South African public service: Towards an impact evaluation. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(0), a1000.<http://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v16i0.1000>.
- [27] Keogan, J.K. (2006). Management of health services in Ireland: Identifying the determinants of process effectiveness in health related services. Paper presented at Irish Academy of Management Conference, University College Cork, 6th – 8th September 2006.
- [28] Kragner, K., Ford, J.K., & Salas, E. (1993). Application of cognitive, skill-based, and affective theories of learning outcomes to new methods of training evaluation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 311-328.
- [29] Kurkmollaiev, S., Pedersen, P.E., Fjuk, A., & Kvale, K. (2018). Developing managerial capabilities: a quasi-experimental field study of the effect of design thinking training. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 17(2), 184-202.
- [30] Lu, C.H. (2014). *Assessing construct validity: the utility of factor analysis*. Statistical Year Book, 15, 79-94.
- [31] McLaverty, L. (2007). *Public Administration research in South Africa: an assessment of journal articles in Journal of Public Administration and Administratio Publica from 1994-2006*. Unpublished magister thesis, University of Cape Town. Cape Town, South Africa.
- [32] Metcalfe, B.D. (2011). Women, empowerment and development in Arab Gulf States: a critical appraisal of governance, culture and national resource development (HRD) frameworks. *Human Resource Development International*, 14(2), 131- 148.
- [33] Modise, O.M., & Mosweunyane, D. (2014). International briefing 32: training and development in Botswana. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 18(4), 297-308.

- [34] National Treasury. (2018). *Estimates of National Expenditure 2018 abridged version*. Pretoria, South Africa: Government Printer.
- [35] Pallant, J. (2011). *SPSS survival manual: a step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS* (4th Ed.). Crow's Nest, NSW: Allen and Unwin.
- [36] Pillay, P. (2004). Overcoming underdevelopment in South Africa: why is poverty and inequality persisting and what can be done about it? Paper presented at the Conference on Overcoming Underdevelopment in South Africa, October, Pretoria.
- [37] Pillay, P. (2006). Human Resource Development and Growth: improving access to an equality in the provisioning of education and health services in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 23(1), 63-83.
- [38] Prett, M.A. (2016). *Nonparametric statistics for health care research: statistics for small samples and unusual distributions* (2nd Ed.). Singapore: Sage Publications, Inc.
- [40] Rohrbeck, R. (2010). Harnessing a network of experts for competitive advantage: technology scouting in the ICT industry. *R&D Management*, 40(2), 169-180.
- [42] Sanyal, Bikas C., & Varghese, N.V. (2006). Research capacity of the higher education sector in developing countries. Geneva: UNESCO.
- [43] Samuel, M. (2008). Accountability to whom? For what? Teacher identity and the Force Field Model of teacher development. *Perspectives in Education*, 26(2), 3-16.
- [45] Shannonhouse, L., Lin, Y.W.D., Shaw, K., & Porter, M. (2017). Suicide intervention training for K-12 schools: A quasi-experimental study on ASIST. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 95, 3-13.
- [46] Sheoraj, R. (2007). *The state of skills readiness in the South African public service: an overview of the department of provincial and local government*. Unpublished master thesis, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa.
- [47] Sommerville, T., & Singaram, V.S. (2018). Exploring demographic influences on students' academic performance over a five-year programme. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 32(2), 273-287.
- [48] South Africa. (2012). *National development plan 2030*. Pretoria, South Africa: Sherino Printers.
- [49] Tannenbaum, S.I., Mathieu, J.E., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bower, J.A. (1991). Meeting trainees' expectations: the influence of training fulfilment on the development of commitment, self-efficacy and motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 759- 769.
- [50] Trueman, M., & Hartley, J. (1996). A comparison between the time-management skills and academic performance of mature and traditional-entry university students. *Higher Education*, 32, 199-215.
- [51] United Nations Development Programme. (2003). *Human Development Report*. New York, USA: UNDP.
- [52] Van der Klink, M.R., Gielen, E.E.M., & Nauta, C. (2001). Supervisory support as a major condition to enhance transfer. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 5, 52-63.
- [53] White, M. (2008). Identifying good cops early: Predicting recruit performance in the academy. *Police Quarterly*, 11(27), 27- 49.

Study Changes in the Level of Moral Fighting Between Middle School Students - A Case Study Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi and Qemal Stafa Secondary School

Fatih Ufuk BAĞCI

PhD, University College Beder Department of Islamic Sciences, Albania

Abstract

One of the most important things for people in the era we live in, which directly affects human life and some countries, is facing problems frequently. As the source of these problems is seen the moral collapse occurred in the whole world. This is manifested sometimes in the collapse of individuals, sometimes arises in the form of the state terror. In particular, with the siege of human lives by technology, this frequently encountered problem has taken a global dimension; the solution is discussed in the global context. Countries and communities on the extent of development are experiencing this process. In this study the ethical considerations of high school students were examined, the factors affecting them, and it was made a comparative examination of two different secondary schools to decide whether there is any difference between the levels of moral maturity of high school students. Because the measurability of Ethics is a subject of controversy, the logical of work has been prepared with a positivist approach. Then by seeking answers to the question "what is morality?" personalities such as J. Dewey, Kohlberg and Piaget, accepted as an authority in this field, have tried to explain their view of the matter. The research sample was composed of 272 students following the last grade during the academic year 2013-2014, at the secondary schools "Qemal Stafa" and Madrasa "Haxhi Mahmud Dashi" located within the City of Tirana, Albania and selected by the method of proportional cluster. In order to measure the level of moral development, which is the dependent variable of the study, the "Determination of Value Test-2 (Defining Issues Test-DIT-2)" is used. To determine the independent variables such as gender, age, parents' educational status, the city students spent most of their lives, their parents' attitudes, family living standards, their parents' marital status, parents' professions, students' hometowns; and to determine the relation with their moral value judgments is used the "Personal Information Form" created by the researcher. In conclusion, when factors affecting the high school students' concepts for "moral values" were examined, it was found that between the concepts of moral values of students that receive religious education and those who do not receive religious education, does not exist a significant, noteworthy difference. In total the level of tradition values of students of Madrasa H. M. D. was defined as higher, about 3%, while the other level was determined as generally the same with a slight difference of 0.5%.

Keywords: Ethics, morality, moral maturity level

Introduction

Although there may be many definitions that describe the concept of morality as the entirety of the man-made behavior under the influence of habits, spiritual qualities that pave the way for its characterization as good or bad (Çağrıçı, 1989). It is generally possible to summarize it as a set of rules, individual and social behaviors of a given society over a given period (Hançerlioğlu, 1993).

While moral values are nothing but morality itself, everything that is included within the field of morality is recognized as a moral value. In this sense moral values can be described as "thoughts, beliefs and principles that are considered important and accepted as true by most members of a society to ensure its existence, function and continuity" (Sezgin Kızılçelik, 1994, s. 89-102).

Özen's moral maturity "is the state of being mature and exalted from the point of view of moral, thought, judgment, attitude and behavior." He defines moral maturity as "the level of perfection that enables the immediate feeling of conscience of any kind of exclusion and moral deviation in one's feelings, thoughts, judgments, attitudes and behaviors" (Özen, 2011, s. 69).

According to Başaran, moral maturity means "the ability of the individual to abide by moral and ethical rules at the level of adults" (Başaran, 1991, s. 148).

While morality is to be a man of morality or of acting and thinking morally, the individual, having to withstand the results of his behavior, is able to contemplate the consequences of the behaviors and opinions he reveals.

Some of these consequences are evaluated by society like lying, not respecting your family, and your older ones, not staying close to your neighbors in good and bad days, are excluded behavior on the part of society.

On the other hand, being moral or not, has a legal dimension that makes it necessary to calculate the best of situations that may arise from the consequences of our actions. Stealing, damaging people materially can be an example of this case. As these behaviors are condemned by society, the relevant authorities apply sanctions according to sanctions. Another point we have to stand for is the difficulty of people to adapt to these rules, despite being aware of them, one of the most influential methods that can be used in this case is to build trust in moral values at a young age, beginning with the passage of these moral values in the form of good manners, for example, by the mother-father.

In general, it can be said that every society, every nation has its own concept of ethics and morality shaped in relation to its beliefs and values. In this context, even if the concept of morality has aspects that change by societies, when we observe the meaning of morality by different societies, similar actions are distinguished.

Although the existence of universal moral principles may be a controversial issue, morality, moral values, topics that are discussed in almost all societies, their necessity has been agreed and somehow have taken hold in the curriculum.

Mutual respect, the motto that one's rights end there where the boundaries begin and the other must be one of the most important elements of living together. Starting from this, one can say that morality actually represents one of the important directions of social order. The flow of social life in a peaceful and harmonious way within a clear rule is only possible

thanks to the social values, norms and institutions that give direction to man's behavior and relationships, put them in the framework and set boundaries (Yüksel, 2015, s. 19).

There are positive and negative aspects of the moral way of the representation of the social order. This point is a controversial issue. On the other hand, there are a set of moral rules in terms of the behavioral dimension, most of us can value them as positive. But "neighborhood pressure", which is most commonly encountered in eastern societies, is a necessary issue to be discussed about democratic rights and freedoms. An action done or not may be appropriate to the values of that society, but there is a well-known truth that uncharted behavior, made solely for the purpose of adapting to the wishes of society, may be the cause of a variety of problems whether they are individual or social. *The most important feature of modern societies is the ability of man to make moral decisions himself, to go into action without being subjected to an authority or an individual, to take responsibility, to use the will, to discuss and analyze the moral principles which are presented and ultimately to develop the personal model of moral behavior* (Yüksel, 2015, s. 22).

On the other hand, the visible face of morality, in other words, the consistent form of morality is sometimes shown to us as rules and norms. Because the most important goal of morality, and consequently of rules and norms, is to regulate relationships between people. For this it can be said that the goal is to minimize the problems arising from human relations, which is bound to live together. It can not be said that behaviors and attitudes manifested in social life with the aim of building a regular society, are realized at any time and place at any cost in accordance with the values and norms. Realized behaviors do not always reflect the type of behavior that predicts norms (Yüksel, 2015, s. 22). In this context along with the legal rules that have a binding aspect, some norms are irrelevant.

If all these aspects are taken into account, it can be said that moral values come to the fore of the few issues that unite under a denominator all mankind. Because respect, courtesy, work ethics, belief, etc., are common values that people accept all over the world. The world is worth living as the place where they are accepted, become part of life, and put in place common values. Particularly from the point of view of linking to our topic, such as the 9-year school of the high school, the importance of the role that will play in building the future of the family, society and the nation individuals who reach moral maturity during adolescence which is the most important stage of human development, is an indisputable truth.

The age we are in is a period in which technology has reached the highest point since the beginning of life. People immediately access information from very simple handheld devices, in the globalized world the universe, regardless of its width, is getting smaller dimensions. On the other hand, it can be said that this era of technology and information has its negative side. Developed experiences in information and technology as they simplify the livelihoods of mankind in every area of life, issues such as problems of communion within the neighborhood, society, family, people living in a building but not knowing each other, many couples divorced or on the threshold divorce, children growing up in abandoned dormitories, homeless, wars, raped women etc., are recognized as humanity problems in the universal sense.

Particularly after the industrial revolution in Europe, serious changes have taken place in the composition of society. From the way of life to family building, from the concept of man to values to government policies, many things experienced changes. While some changes resulted in the establishment of democracy, on the other hand, in issues such as

the passage of national and spiritual values to generations, the family institution faced serious difficulties. It needs to be discussed whether government programs, a range of social structures, civil society organizations' efforts, worth millions of euros worth of investments are not enough to remove these problems.

The influence of this change experienced in Europe, or with a general expression in the Western World, to other states of the world was realized in various forms. Especially the development of communication tools in an unimaginable form accelerated this impact. *The acceleration of cultural globalization since the second half of the twentieth century was certainly achieved thanks to developments in traffic technology. States in the central position of political power, this time using non-missionaries, but the means of communication, took the opportunity to introduce and spread their cultures to other people's states in a simpler way* (Mahiroğulları, 2005, s.1278). Along with the development of a free market economy, many West and American lifestyle areas, where consumer elements are emerging, became particularly preferred by the younger generation. Elements of Western origin like Mc Donald's, Coca Cola, and Hallowsins began to become part of our lives. According to Mahiroğulları, especially after the 1980s, this cultural exchange turned into a kind of way in the matter of spreading *Western culture to other cultures in a systematic manner. A one-way and systematic spread, no doubt in countries that did not have national culture policies, the existing cultural values strengthened them "to change without being allowed to develop"; became a cause for cultural alienation and heterogeneity.*

Compared with other states, Albania has entered later this change. The state that emerged from Communism in the early 1990's, following the efforts of troubled democracy, has since 2010 acquired the right to free movement in European states. As long as Albanians through various ways and causes have found their way to Europe, after 2010 this situation has been accelerated even more, together with free movement in Italy, Greece, Switzerland and other European countries began live about 2 million Albanians. Close ties to Albanians with their homeland and relatives can be said to have caused a quick change in the country.

In this area Albanians are known as a nation linked to traditions and strong family and social ties. But with the process of integration in Europe this connection is being questioned. Because there is a serious change in Albanian or in different social life units. In the new generation names of Albanian origin are less, western names are preferable. Apart from this, problems such as divorces, broken families, domestic violence, with which Albanians are not very much taught, are often heard in the media.

Problem

2. 1. Aim of Study

This study aims to find out whether or not there is a link between psycho-social factors influencing the moral development process of 12'th grade students and their moral maturity.

Particularly aimed at determining the level of moral maturity of students with different learning curricula and discovering whether or not there is a link between them.

2. 2. Hypotheses

The level of moral maturity of students attending secondary education in Tirana gymnasiums is generally at a traditional level.

The level of moral maturity of students receiving religious education is higher than the level of moral maturity of students who do not receive religious education.

The level of moral maturity is higher in girls than in boys.

Children whose parents have the highest level of education possess the highest moral maturity.

The level of moral maturity of children of families who have a democratic approach to children is higher.

The level of moral maturity of children of families with better living conditions is higher.

The level of moral maturity of children whose parents live together is higher than those of their separated parents.

3. Research Method

3. 1. Population and Sample: The study sample consists of 272 students of the 2013-2014 school year attending secondary school education at Qemal Stafa Secondary School in Tirana and in Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi in Tirana, selected by the proportional group method.

3. 2. Method: In this study the identification of moral maturity levels of students is based on Kohlberg's Moral Development Theory. On the other hand, in order to determine the factors influencing the levels of moral maturity of high school students and the exchange of these factors with each other, the regression model.

Independent study variables include gender, parent's educational status, parents' attitudes towards children, family living standards, parental status of parents, educational institution where students study. While the dependent variable is defined as the ability of moral judgment.

3. 3. Limitations: The selection sample limits the study to the students of the upper secondary school students at Qemal Stafa High School and to Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi.

Dependent variables, which is the level of moral maturity of students, are limited in this study by examples and measured features using the "Defining Issues Test-DIT".

3. 4. Research Assumptions

The schools selected as an example in the study are supposed to be chosen as the most suitable model for the purpose of the study.

The tests used in the study are supposed to give the closest information to the truth about behaviors to be measured.

It is assumed that students participating in the study have responded to the questions they have been asked in the most accurate way.

3. 5. Data Collection Tools: To determine the moral-dependent developmental variables of study development, a "Defining Issues Test-DIT" was used as a data collection tool prepared by James Rest. While the purpose of collecting data about demographic features and other independent variables was the Personal Data Form prepared by the researcher.

3. 5. 1. Value Determination Test: The Test of Assignment is a theory explained by six stages of Kohlberg's moral development model. It is prepared by James Rest (1979) to measure the moral judgment of students and consists of six statements that include the

different opinions of individuals regarding morality. In relation to each story, there are 12 opinions that represent different judgments. Students were asked to evaluate each of these thoughts from the aspect of self-sufficiency based on Level 5 Likert in order of importance (very important, important, somewhat important, little important, irrelevant). Then, from these 12 thoughts, the student chooses the four most important ones and re-classifies them according to the degree of importance. *The points of the phases determined according to the test show the characteristics of*

moral judgment of students in Phases 2, 3, 4, 5A, 5B and 6. By collecting points of students of phases 5A, 5B and 6, scores P were obtained. With this point P the student shows the importance given to stage 5 and 6. Points P show the importance of keeping moral principles when we give a moral judgment. With another expression P's score points to the importance given to the moral judgment stages beyond tradition (Rest, 1979).

While the points collected in Phases 3 and 4 show the weight that the student gives to the traditional point. In this study, to measure the levels of traditional moral development and beyond tradition, the point P obtained from the point collection of phases 5A, 5B and 6 was taken into account.

3. 5. 1. 1. Assessing the point of Value Determination Test: When a manual assessment is made on the Value Assurance Testing Point, an initial sheet of responses is prepared, indicating the identification of 2, 3, 4, 5A, 5B, 6, A, M, P records of five records per student. At the end of the inventory, there are issues in the order of importance listed as "the most important", "the second important", "the third important" and "the fourth important". After giving 4 points to rank as the most important, 3 points for the second, 2 points for the third, 1 point for the fourth, determine the importance of each level for the six stories and encode in the data letter. Then collect the points in each column in the data sheet and thus determine the points of Phases 2, 3, 4, 5A, 5B, 6 and A and M. Collecting points earned from 5A, 5B and 6th grade are "Unprocessed Points of Moral Principles"; the raw points being divided by the number of stories in which they are applied give the points in percentage of the phases (Rest, 1979).

3. 5. 1. 2. Evaluating the Testing Criteria Criteria: Kaya explains the study of the criteria of the Value Determination Test in these four groups (Kaya, 1993):

Criterion Group: The purpose of the validity group is to obtain scores different from the test results for the different groups from each other. To measure validity in this regard, the Test (DIT) was given to a group of doctoral students of the sciences of moral philosophy and politics and it was noted that the results were the one that reflected the difference between these two groups.

Longitudinal Change: At the end of the Rest Day Test, Davison and Robbin (1978) noted a clear development in subjects. DIT's ongoing research revealed that within four years 66% of subjects showed improvement, while 7% deterioration. This improvement more than with cultural change has to do with "ontogenic" change.

Similar Metering Scale Requirements: For example, in relation to other measuring tools of moral judgment, as the link between the "Trial Understanding of Moral Tests" and the various tests of Kohlberg with DIT is $r = .70$, with other tests of mental development and wisdom $r = .50$.

Experimental Enhancement: a study conducted in this area compared the students of ethics with the students of logic and it has been noted that the points of logic students are high in the logic test, while the scores of ethics students are high in DIT.

3. 5. 1. 3. Trustworthiness Testing of Valuation Tests: at the end of Davison and Robbins' (1978) reliability study of over 1080 subjects aged 15-82, the correlation coefficient of test scores P and D is .80; while the Cronbach coefficient of alpha index of internal stability is .70.

In addition, the test confidence coefficient, obtained from two different test applications made with a three-week difference between, in a group of 35 students, is .81. Based on these results obtained, it was concluded that the Value Determination Test has sufficient credibility.

3. 5. 2. Student's Personal Data Form: This form consists of 17 questions prepared by the researcher with the view that there may be a link between personal data of students who are part of their study and moral judgment.

In the form building, various research and publications related to moral development have been analyzed, the views of the case experts and the views of academics who have done similar works beforehand have been considered and then the factors that may affect moral convictions can be compared in parallel: the age and gender of the pupil, the education of the parents, the city where the pupils have spent most of their lives, parents' attitudes, family living standards, parents' parental status, parents' professions, birthplace of students, number of persons in the family, apartment.

5. 3. Statistical Analysis of Data: Upon completion of the data collection tools used in the study, one of the one response sheets and the Personal Data Form were checked and the missing or error responses were ignored.

In addition, cases where three or more discrepancies were found, the inventories responding by marking the same case in three or more cases were not taken for evaluation.

At the first level of assessment, the Test of Value Assignment is divided into points manually. Data on independent variables in the Student's Personal Data Form and DIT were passed by the researchers to the data encoding table. At a subsequent level, the results were analyzed using a special programming method prepared for this study.

Findings

Points "P" obtained from the test of the values defined for the students show levels beyond the tradition of students (grades 5 and 6), while 3 and 4 show the traditional level.

The highest points "P" obtained from the Value Test are 100 (one hundred), while the lowest 0 (zero). Based on the "P" score of subjects it is possible to share moral beliefs in traditional and beyond traditional maturity levels. According to this, the "P" points from 49 below show the traditional level and from the top 50 indicate the level beyond the traditional.

1-The level of moral maturity of students continuing secondary education in Tirana is generally at the traditional level.

At the end of this study, the average total score of P for the students of the Tirana HMD Madrasa is 33.44% while for the "Qemal Stafa" Secondary School is 31.78%. According to these results

it is understood that the students of both schools have a moral maturity of the traditional level. Thus, the thesis placed before the study "the level of moral maturity of students continuing secondary education in Tirana is generally at the traditional level" is proved to be correct.

Table 1: Levels of moral convictions of students by type of high school

School	Student Number	The average score		Standard deviation
QS	191	31.	78	12. 6
MT	72	33.	44	12. 1

Children in this period prefer to stay fit with the cultural values of both the family and the society and the country where they live. The values of the society and the circle within which they live live ahead of their own values. For this age is an important ideal of integration in society without undermining its structure. For this reason Kohlberg defends the view that many people are in the traditional concept of morality (Kohlberg & Hersh, Apr., 1977).

Being the moral maturity of the students of the two schools at the traditional level means that the Albanian youth have a traditional understanding of the values of society, personal thoughts, worldviews do not synthesize with the values of society.

2-The level of moral maturity of students receiving religious education is higher than the level of moral maturity of students who do not receive religious education.

In the values given in Table 1, as there is no difference in the moral maturity of students receiving religious education with the moral maturity of students who do not receive religious education, according to scores obtained within this period, it was established that maturity levels morals of students receiving religious education are 1.66% higher. Thus the thesis set before the study "the level of moral maturity of students receiving religious education is higher than the moral maturity level of students who do not receive religious education" is verified as accurate.

Religion is the system of faith that answers questions about the three basic dimensions of human life, the source of existence, the source of nature and destiny of man, the determinant of the principle of human values, and the guide of general life to the concept of God (Şengün, 2007, s. 209). For this reason, religion can be considered as the most important factor directing directly and indirectly as a god-originated phenomenon in human life.

On the other hand, according to Hökelekli, *the one who believes and binds to the religion lives by combining thoughts and behaviors, faith and morality into one. Religion aims at a moral lifestyle but the bond of morality with religion is not mandatory. For social or other reasons, both non-religious and atheistic people have a range of moral values. Yet religious belief is a psychological factor for morality; belief in the existence of Allah is a driving force to do well in the moral life* (Hökelekli, 1993, s. 103). Religion therefore can be seen as a spiritual power or control system that controls a moral sense or moral behavior for people who characterize themselves as devout or more or less religious believers.

If it is a matter of controversy that everybody is a source of religious morality, *the concepts of religion and morality are closely related to one another, and there are two concepts that complement each other. When viewed from a religious point of view, religions regulate people's relationships with one another, with Allah and with society, even with the world of*

objects and creatures that come into contact with people. For this reason, each of the religions maintains a characteristic of being dominant of a moral system (Uysal, 2005, s. 43).

It can be said that the inclusion of areas close to each other, both religion and morality constitutes a sense of supporting each other as well as important missions from the aspect of social life.

Surely, for example, theft, bribery, murder, betrayal, drink, gambling, lies etc., according to religion are haram and according to morality are bad actions. Respect for the big ones, solidarity, speech, justice, reliability, patriotism etc. are the behaviors that the religion enjoys and the morality it calls good. *In the end, religious and moral orders and prohibitions are impossible to divide by lines. However, we must draw attention to the change that, for example, our morality teaches us that killing someone is "bad". As religion also speaks of the evil of such an action for the sanctity of life. So in the life of the man who believes, the belief that murder is "bad" is integrated with the belief that life is "holy" (Uysal, 2005, s. 44).*

According to Aydın, in this context we must determine that morality is an area that first of all expresses a set of preferences of our daily lives and is a topic of discussion. *While in the domain of religion, the existence and holiness of an authority associated with respect and desire comes first. When a relationship is built between these two, the Lord, who is the object of our prayers and worships in religion, appears in the moral field as a sacred authority that oversees our preferences. In this situation, our religious beliefs play an important role in our moral preferences, and when they receive the support of a secure and holy authority, they gain a new dimension. So religious and moral feelings do not develop apart, but hand in hand (Aydın, 1987, s. 248-249).*

3-The level of moral maturity of female students is higher than male students.

Table 2: Levels of moral judgment of students by gender

Gender	N QS	N MT	% QS	% MT	X QS	X MT	Std QS	Std MT
F	124	47	65.61	58.75	33.55	33.54	11.66	12.82
M	65	33	34.39	41.25	28.41	33.30	12.73	11.82
Total	189	80	100.0	100.0	31.78	33.44	12.25	12.34

At the end of the survey conducted in this study, the average total score of P students at Qemal Stafa Secondary School shows that the level of moral maturity of girls is higher compared to that of boys in the ratio of 33.55% to 28.41%; as well as in Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi it is proved that the moral maturity levels of girls are higher than the boys by 33.54% - 33.30%. It has been noted that the levels of moral maturity of girls in both schools are the same. Thus, the thesis placed before the study "The level of moral maturity of female students is higher than male students is proved to be correct. There are some perspectives on whether or not there is any change in the development of moral judgment over gender. Kohlberg said that in terms of moral judgment, women are in the third category, while boys in the fourth category. On the other hand, in the face of this view of Kohlberg, C. Gilligan says that women and men actually have different moral criteria. Declares that women are more unselfish about their rights and rules, while men are more focused on rights individual. In his studies, he did not encounter any findings that support the idea that women belong to a category of moral judgment lower than men. In this context Gilligan also deals

with Kohlberg's views and findings on this issue. Kohlberg points out in his findings that the change derives from the moral criteria that women and men have (Acuner, 2005, s. 274).

With regard to the test of the determination of values in the 22 studies conducted in America, only two of them distinguished between the significant levels of moral judgment of girls and boys (Rest, 1979).

As hypothesized that the level of moral maturity of girls is higher than boys is due to the fact that the social, sensory, cognitive and physical development of girls begins at an earlier age than boys.

The children of parents with a higher education level have a higher level of moral maturity.

Table 3: Levels of moral judgment of students by mother's education

Mother education level	N QS	N MT	% QS	% MT	X QS	X MT	Std QS	Std MT
Knows Writing and	3	2	1.59	2.50	28.89	52.0	19.24	4.24
	7	8	3.70	10.00	29.05	32.8	7.38	12.91
High school education	110	62	58.20	77.50	31.94	32.9	12.37	11.85
University	69	8	36.51	8.75	31.9	30.0	12.37	12.76
	189	80	100.0	100.0	31.7	33.4	12.25	12.34

In the evaluation of maternity education, for those who are not graduated from an educational institution but who are able to write and read, the moral judgment values are 23.11% higher for Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi than for "Qemal Stafa" Secondary School. While in the elementary school data the values of Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi were identified 3.78% more than the "Qemal Stafa" Secondary school. Again in the secondary school category, Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi's values appear to be 1.01% higher than the Qemal Stafa Secondary School. While in the median of moral judgments for university graduates, the values of "Qemal Stafa Secondary School" result 1.93% more than Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi.

Table 4: Levels of moral judgment of students by fathers' education

Father's education	N QS	N MT	% QS	% MT	X QS	X MT	Std QS	Std MT
Knows Writing and reading	1	5	0.53	5.00	6.67	37.00	0	14.44
Doesn't Know Writing and reading	1	3	0.53	3.25	26.67	47.20	0	10.47
Primary education	5	4	2.65	3.75	26.00	25.56	12.33	8.38
High school education	84	49	44.44	61.25	32.34	33.29	11.29	12.41
University	98	19	51.85	23.75	31.91	30.70	12.92	10.80
Total	189	80	100.0	100.0	31.78	33.40	12.25	12.34

While in the assessment of the father's education at the level of those who have not finished any education institution and are unable to write and read, the values of Madrasa Haxhi

Mahmud Dashi are 30.33% higher than the "Qemal Stafa" Secondary School. But the values of the moral judgment level of those who did not finish an educational institution, but know how to write and read is 20.53% higher for Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashi than for Qemal Stafa School. While in the data for primary education it is noticed that the values of "Qemal Stafa" are 0.44% higher than Madrasa H.M.D. While in the high school category, the values of moral judgment of Madrasa H.M.D. are 0.95% higher than the Qemal Stafa School. While in the university's moral judgment averages, the values of Qemal Stafa School are 1.21% more than Madrasa H.M.D. Thus, the pre-trial thesis that "parents' children with higher education level have higher moral maturity" is not proven.

According to Yavuzer, *the interaction of the mother and father with the child determines the child's place in the family. The family is the place where the child obtains the first social experiences. The family gives the child a sense of security to be a stable individual within the group. It prepares the environment needed to be accepted by society. Builds a model that includes the types of appropriate behaviors accepted to learn socialization* (Yavuzer, 1993, s. 139).

The level of interest with children and the differences in their approaches to parents with the highest level of education may be influencing factors so that the outcome is so. To break the child's time, to meet the requirements in line with their development, to help develop models of exemplary behavior that are appropriate to the age and level of the society's performance, in addition to the interest of the child, is a situation that has direct contact with having sufficient desire and knowledge on parenting. On the other hand, it should be remembered that the closest and most effective example of children's mental development are parents.

Another topic we do not want to be careful about here is that parents with low levels of education have low levels of moral maturity and therefore fail to give their children moral maturity. The issue that we want to emphasize here is that families with high level of education regulate their relationships with children according to their stages of development, in all experiences, from school life to social circles, interact with them.

The moral maturity levels of family children, behaving more democratically with children are higher.

Table 5: Changes in moral judgment of students according to father's attitudes

Father's state of interes	N QS	N MT	% QS	% MT	X QS	X MT	Std QS	Std MT
	71	32	37.57	40.0	33.71	34.50	12.38	11.32
	3	0	1.59	0	26.67	0	3.33	0.00
	69	33	36.51	41.25	31.50	34.41	12.51	13.32
	44	15	23.28	18.75	29.09	29.04	11.84	12.02
Total	189	80	100.0	100.0	31.78	33.44	12.25	12.34

Even if the levels of moral maturity show changes in the attitudes of fathers to children in both schools, the children of families with a more democratic approach have shown higher levels of moral maturity compared to others. On the other hand, the levels of moral maturity of children of fathers who demonstrate democratic approach Madrasa H.M.D. received 34.50, while "Qemal Stafa" Secondary School 33.71, thus the levels of moral maturity of the students of Madrasa

H.M.D. have been 0.79% higher than the Qemal Stafa School.

Table 6: Changes in moral judgment of students according to the attitudes of the mother

Mother's state of interest	N QS	N MT	% QS	% MT	X QS	X MT	Std QS	Std MT
Democratic	70	39	37.04	48.75	30.38	33.17	12.72	12.01
Indifferent	3	1	1.59	1.25	27.78	30.00	21.68	0.00
Protective	103	37	54.50	46.25	32.52	33.83	11.73	13.46
Authoritative	13	2	6.88	2.50	34.36	33.93	12.12	0.00
Total	189	80	100.0	100.0	31.78	33.34	12.25	12.34

On the other hand, even if the levels of moral maturity show changes according to the attitudes of mothers to children, both schools have found that mothers with authoritarian profiles have received higher points in the moral maturity of the mothers of the students.

Thus, the thesis set before the study that "the moral maturity levels of children from families with a democratic approach to their children are higher" is proved for dads but is not proven for mothers.

In general, mother-father approaches can be grouped in a democratic, authoritarian and indifferent approach. *The approach of mothers and fathers constitutes the role model for children and this condition plays an important role in the child's life. The child, building up acquaintance with the parents at the stage of growth, begins to form the basis of character and identity. The child who builds familiarity with parental approaches begins to show similar approaches to parents and this condition affects their entire livelihood. The healthy approach shown by parents to children can be considered as one of the most important factors that help the child to be an individual in peace with oneself. While the opposite situation results in the increase in the society of individuals who are not at peace with themselves and are a problem for society* (Kaya, Bozaslan, Genç 2012, s. 209).

In the education that the oppressive and authoritarian family has, there is a punishment approach. The family gives the sentence with logic to be a good lesson, do not mistake and in general these sentences are severe for children. The family discipline makes life boring to the child. Even the most natural rights of the child are provided on the condition that it behaves wisely. Taking success from adult children in such families is a mistake. The child, trying to enforce the rules of the parent, can not manifest himself. Within the rules and boundaries set by the family, the free actions of children can be said to almost nonexistent.

Authoritative approach of parents: Some parents apply an authoritarian approach in their approach to their children due to the reasons of their own upbringing, or because of the psychological problems they are experiencing. Another reason as in the parents who seek and want to raise the child according to their ideals, in the name of achieving this result it can be said that they behave towards the child with a stern and authoritarian. The greatest tool of these families in achieving the result is the frequent application of punishment. The children's rights are lowered to the lowest level (Kaya, Bozaslan, Genç, 2012, s. 210).

Indifferent Parent Approach: *These kinds of parents do not put the child's wishes with any frame and limitation. Indifferent mothers and fathers neglect the children and behave disinterested to their interests and needs. This condition causes aggressive behavior in the child. The only requirement from the child's adult environment to a circle without love is to see a little compassion from the family, to draw attention and to prove to them their existence. In the later stages the child will try to seek out the missing love at home (Kaya, Bozaslan, Genç, 2012, s. 210). It has often been found that people who are considered criminals have a way of catching up when their lives are examined, and they do not see the interest and interest of their parents during childhood.*

Parent's free approach (family with child in the center): Families who are irrelevant, neglected or thinking of growing up without any limitation of their children. As if this caused the child to grow excessively irregular and out of responsibility, these kinds of parents, leaving the child too cheap, prepare the ground for his growth under his guidance in an uncontrolled environment. Rather than the wishes of the parents, in the foreground are the wishes of the child. *This situation is most commonly encountered in families where the child is a single child. The child is almost in the position of the only person on a domestic initiative. Raising a child in such an environment will make it a greedy individual. A child with such a trait character will exhibit an anti-social character of character and may show traits of egoistic, irresponsible, hot-tempered and scruffy, impatient, proud, proud, self-indulgent, spoiled, seeking to do what is immediately he wants. These types of children experience difficulties in adapting to the social environment (Kaya, Bozaslan, Genç, 2012, s. 210).*

The rights of the child in the family are unlimited. It is not determined where the child will stop. It is not expected that the child will apply the rules, applying and controlling the rules is improper. Mothers and fathers see the wrong behavior of the child, but as the idea that "good education should not be oppressive but free" prevails, the child is recognized without limitation. They do not say "my child should possess the ideal behavior" and do not put any pressure on the child at all. Parents do not mix in the child's behavior, only in the event of a major problem feels their presence. These children who do not know the rules when faced with the rules of the school experience disappointment of dreams.

Extremely protective approach of parents: Mothers and fathers with excessive and overwhelming love relate emotionally to their children. Parents are very worried about their children without any cause. And this concern directs them to an overuse of their children. They are always worried because they think they can not make the child happy. To the child, they show compassionate compassion.

These kinds of parents raise their children in an extremely controlled environment by treating them as small babies. Mother and father almost tremble above the child. Children grown up in a kind of accumulation built by their parents are constantly struggling to adapt to life. Other people approach with a reluctant approach. Adult children in such an environment can not live

away from the family, most of the time is unhappy, themselves find themselves lacking in the

power to do important things. They have a kind of loser condition from the beginning (Kaya, Bozaslan, Genç, 2012, s. 210-211).

Adoptive approach that creates self-confidence and democratic parenting: Ideal parental attitude. In parents' attitudes of this kind, a parent's inner and deep love for the child feels. *This love is not a taught love, it is an attitude that the child exhibits in nature. These kinds of moms and fathers, which constitute a positive model for the child, play the role of counselor in problem solving. It always shows respect for the interests and needs of the child. Even the child's opinion as a member of the family is important. Parents enable the child to take decisions on his own, depending on his age. They make it possible to implement their decisions, so they see the results of their decisions and increase their speed in matured. A grown child in a self-sustaining democratic environment grows as a respectable and sensitive person to himself and the environment, knows his boundaries, tolerant, open-minded, sociable, creative, active, defends his beliefs to the end freely tells his thoughts, shows respect for the thoughts of others, tries to improve his thoughts, sustainable by character and behaviors, with a sense of responsible responsibility, does not blindly blame the rules and authority. Consequently, only within this elastic approach may grow healthy individuals physically, mentally and socially* (Kaya, Bozaslan, Genç, 2012, s. 211).

The moral maturity levels of children of families with higher standard of living are higher.

Table 7: Relationship between families' living standards and their approaches to moral values

Average family income	N QS	N MT	% QS	% MT	X QS	X MT	Std QS	Std MT
More than 200 Thousand Lekë	20	7	10.58	8.75	25.33	36.67	10.45	14.40
More than 100 Thousand Lekë	27	4	14.29	5.00	29.26	40.58	10.99	6.43
60-100 Thousand Lekë	81	17	42.86	21.25	33.09	32.51	13.02	12.08
40-60 Thousand Lekë	54	30	28.57	37.50	32.35	32.72	11.20	12.59
30 Thousand Lekë	5	22	2.65	27.50	35.33	32.82	12.60	12.74
Total	189	80	100.0	100.0	31.78	33.44	12.25	12.34

Levels of moral maturity by the standard of living of families in both schools have been identified as heterogeneous. In Qemal Stafa Secondary School, with the growth of living standards in general, there is a decrease in the level of moral maturity in Madrasa H.M.D. When living standards rise, the level of moral maturity is generally *down*.

While in the category 200 thousand and 100 thousand, the moral maturity levels of the students of Madrasa H.M.D. are 11% higher than Qemal Stafa Secondary School students, in the category 30 thousand levels of moral maturity of Qemal Stafa students were identified as 2.51% higher than Madrasa H.M.D. Thus, the thesis set before the study that "the moral

maturity levels of high school students with high living standards are higher", according to both schools is not proven.

When this hypothesis was constructed, it was assumed that families with a high standard of living could provide their children with more opportunities both in terms of attention and in terms of psycho-social development. In Albania, which is a developing country, it can be said

that families with good financial opportunities attach more importance to child education. But according to the results it is noticed that in general living standards and the level of moral maturity do not affect each other.

The level of moral maturity of children whose parents live together is higher than those of their separated parents.

Table 8: Moral judgment and value understanding of students whose parents are together and separated

Marital status of parents	N QS	N MT	% QS	% MT	X QS	X MT	Std QS	Std MT
Together	185	79	96.83	98.75	31.84	33.53	12.23	12.39
Divorced	3	1	1.59	1.25	24.44	26.67	18.35	0
Married but live separately	1	0	0.53	0	26.67	0	0	0
Total	189	80	100.0	100.0	31.78	33.44	12.25	12.34

In a study designed to determine the impact of the civil status of families at the level of moral maturity, in both schools the level of moral maturity of the children of families living together is higher than the others. It has been found that the values of the madrasa students whose mothers and their fathers live together have a moral maturity of 1.69% higher than the values of the students of Qemal Stafa Secondary School that parents have together. On the other hand, in the records of divorced families, the moral maturity levels of the students of Madrasa H.M.D. They are 2.23% of the level higher than high school students of Qemal Stafa. About those who are married but live separately, as in Madrasa H.M.D. there was no data, no evaluation was made.

Thus the thesis set before the study that "the level of moral maturity of children whose parents live together is higher than those whose parents are separated" turns out to be true.

The family is the foundation of society. The family is an institution made up of individuals affiliated with blood or kinship whose rights and duties are defined by society, a group of

common values. In general terms, it is the totality of individuals who are besieged with each other by the same marriage or tribal affiliation. In a narrower sense, the family is the

institution and the smallest unit of society composed of a man and a woman and their children if they have (Aydın M. Z., 2003, s. 127).

The family establishment is important not only for the purpose of establishing a certain need but also for raising good generations for society and humanity. The training of ideal generations also depends on establishing a healthy relationship within the family. At this point there are important tasks for parents. The family's importance to the child does not only arise from fulfilling his material needs. The child's material needs can be met in different ways. But the environment of love and trust that your family assures is difficult to find elsewhere. Particularly the love of the mother is very important for the child. The child denied by mother's love, even if the necessary needs are met, as the need for fondness and love is not met, indicates controversial behavior from a psychological point of view (Aydın M. Z., 2003, s. 127).

However, according to Aydın, *the child's physical, spiritual, and social development is related to growth in a warm, loving environment. The first and the foremost group that provides such an environment is undoubtedly the family. Everyone, like the physical features of the family, also carries thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes. Because they all get unconsciously from adapting to family life (Aydın M. Z., 2003, s. 128).*

Conclusion

Human beings have reached a technologically level that they never reached; especially the rapid development and modernization of communication tools influenced every aspect of human life with different concepts in the name of a better quality of life. Despite all the possibilities of the modern world and the facilitation of life, both family and social life needs the search for solutions on the institutional and individual basis to cause different complications. It can be counted among these complications that the corruption of the core family structure, the problem of lack of communication, the weakening of kinship relations, the virtualization of friendships, and the fact that almost all life is indexed by technological *tools*.

It is almost impossible to stop in front of these complications in the globalizing world. Nations are experiencing this change more or less according to their development; government programs and school curriculum are being updated to try to bring the adaptation of society to the healthiest point.

Albanians whether they are individualists or nationalists, even if they want to stop this process with a series of rhetoric and national activities, it is clear that there is a need to develop more radical and resultant petty. Because of the fact that it is a small country and open to foreign elements, it is becoming more rapid.

Our study examined the "levels of moral maturity" of high school students and tried to determine the extent to which this change, which affects all societies more or less affects the level of moral maturity of those who receive and do not receive religious education. The research was conducted on the main topics such as gender, parents' educational attitudes, attitudes of their parents to their children, living standards of the families, marital status of the parents and the education institution they attend, and the genders considered to affect the "moral maturity level". As a result of the study, it was determined that both schools had moral maturity in the traditional level of the students. Although the ethnic maturity level of the Madrasa Haxhi Mahmud Dashu students were somewhat higher

than that of the Qemal Stafa Secondary School students, it was found that there was no significant difference between the ethnic maturity levels of students in general education and non-religious education.

As a result, Rest's Defining Issues Test (DIT), which is applied to determine the factors affecting moral maturity levels of students with and without religious education and their interactions with each other, the higher the level of religious education compared to those who did not have a clear general difference in the country in this country may be considered more time to affect the social life of religion. It is possible that this nation, which has met with religion at the beginning of 90's, needs more time for religious life and its moral aspects and collective settlement.

On the other hand, they can be seen as being another reason why Albanian people have to be very strictly attached to the customs of the Albanian people, and that the changes are realized equally in all parts of the society in general terms.

Bibliography

- [1] Acuner, Y. (2005). Din Eğitimi Açısından 14-18 Yaş Arası Gençlerde Ahlaki Yargı Gelişimi (Samsun il örneği). *Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Dergisi* 18-19, 265- 297.
- [2] Aydın, M. (1987). *Din Felsefesi*. İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- [3] Aydın, M. Z. (2003). Ailede Ahlak Eğitimi. *Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Dergisi* VII/2, 125-158.
- [4] Başaran, İ. E. (1991). *Eğitim Psikolojisi*. Ankara: Gül Yayınevi.
- [5] Çağrı, M. (1989). *İslam Ansiklopedisi, Ahlak Maddesi, cilt 2*. İstanbul: Türkiye Diyanet Vakfı. Hançerlioğlu, O. (1993). *Toplum Bilimleri Sözlüğü*. İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi.
- [6] Hökelekli, H. (1993). *Din Psikolojisi*. Ankara: TDV Yayınları.
- [7] Kaya Ahmet, B. H. (2012). Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Anne-Baba Tutumlarının Problem Çözme Becerilerine, Sosyal Kaygı Düzeylerine ve Akademik Başarılarına Etkisi. *Dicle Üniversitesi Ziya Gökalp Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi-18*, 208-225.
- [8] Kaya, M. (1993). *Bazı Kişisel Değişkenlere Göre Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Ahlaki Yargıları*. Samsun: Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- [9] Kohlberg, L., & Hersh, R. H. (Apr., 1977). Moral Development: A Review of the Theory. *Theory into Practice, Vol. 16, No. 2, Moral Development.*, 53-59.
- [10] Mahiroğulları, A. (2005). Küreselleşmenin Kültürel Değerler Üzerine Etkisi. *Sosyal Siyaset Konferansları Dergisi. Sayı:50(Nevzat Yalçıntaş Armağan Özel Sayısı)*, 1276-1288.
- [11] Özen, Y. (2011). Etik mi? Ahlak mı? Modernite mi? Medeniyet mi? *Dicle Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 63-87.
- [12] Rest, J. (1979). *Development in Judging Moral Issues*. Minnesota: Minnesota Press.
- [13] Şengün, M. (2007). Ahlak Gelişimin Psiko-Sosyal Dinamikleri. *Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Dergisi-23*, 201-221.
- [14] Sezgin Kızılcılık, Y. E. (1994). *Açıklamalı Sosyoloji Terimler Sözlüğü*. Ankara: Atilla Kitabevi.
- [15] Uysal, E. (2005). Dindarlığın Ahlâkî Temeli Üzerine Bazı Düşünceler. *Uludağ Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Dergisi* 14/1, 41-59.

- [16] Yavuzer, H. (1993). *Çocuk psikolojisi*. İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi.
- [17] Yüksel, M. (2015). Etik Kodlar, Ahlak ve Hukuk. *Hacettepe Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi cilt:5, sayı:1*, 9-26.

Identity Construction Processes Among Asian Immigrant Entrepreneurs in Poland. Case Study Based on Vietnamese, Chinese, Indian, South Korean, and Filipino Groups

Renata Czekalska

Jagiellonian University in Krakow, Poland

Adam W. Jelonek

Jagiellonian University in Krakow, Poland

Abstract

The proposed paper, devoted to one of the most interesting aspects of migration and immigrant entrepreneurship, presents a comparison in identity construction processes among the members of five different immigrant groups. The differences between the five groups include the period of arrival in Poland, the number of immigrant entrepreneurs in a group, the reasons for leaving their home country, the purpose of coming, as well as the economic and cultural background of the immigrants. The comparison carried out on these five asymmetrical target groups, selected to reflect the actual situation of the immigrant population in Poland, shows the possibility of a compromise between the culturalist and structuralist perspectives. The primarily qualitative research is based on 75 in-depth interviews, conducted among five national groups of immigrants, Vietnamese, Chinese, Indian, South Korean, and Filipino, and is the result of a four-year project, *Immigrant Entrepreneurship: Entrepreneurial activities of immigrants from the Far East in Poland*, conducted by a team of academics from the Jagiellonian University in Krakow and the University of Warsaw.

Keywords: Asian immigrants in Poland, immigrant entrepreneurship, immigrant identity, immigrant identity building, home-host country identity relationship.