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Organic Food Perspective in Developing Countries: An Overview of Polog Region and a Case Study in the Republic of Macedonia

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Abstract

Technical and technological advances in food production have brought substantial changes in quantity, quality, diversification and availability of food. The food industry is driven by business activity and objectives, which in turn have considerably affected consumer behavior. While the consumers in general are ready to get adopted and accept the variety of food due to business globalization, thus increasing their preferences to the food that was not available to their vicinity in the past and to the industrial processing such as additives and flavor for extending the duration of consumer durables, a concern has been raised; organic food in a traditional way is healthier. State institutions from their own side have passed many regulations to ensure that food industry and production meets the needed criteria of safety for consumption while businesses compete against each other primarily in making their own way to profit. Yet, an increasing number of consumers worldwide, for their own safety, find it more preferable to undertake a degree of food processing or preparing it on their own. This paper looks at the trend of this consumer behavior in the Polog Region of the Republic of Macedonia, supplemented by a case study of an organic food restaurant located in the city of Tetovo.

Keywords: organic food, GM food, Polog region, Porter's five forces, competitive advantage

Introduction

Organic versus GM food

Food is a necessity. There is no alternative to it. Production, demand and consumption of food have constantly been on the rise throughout history, and will continue to experience such a trend in the future as the population grows. Despite technological advancing in mass producing the food, today, a large number of people across the world, especially in developing countries remain poorly fed, facing food shortages and hunger. A considerable number of factors are attributed to the contribution of food crises such as low level of economic development, low incomes per capita, environmental and climatic conditions, unequal disperse of natural resources, the rise in food prices, and the impact of different cultures among the people in consumption and preferential eating habits, e.g. different diets and type of food like organic, conventional and genetically modified food (GMF). Given the undisputable importance of food in general and the rising demand, its production and offering in the market to consumers can be a beneficiary business to be dealt with as well as at the benefits of consumers. In modern times, specialization in offering certain food matters in the market for food.

As the name suggests and by common understanding, organic food is that kind of food that does involve chemical fertilizers and pesticides during the farming process and no food additives while preparing the food. By this definition organic food may also be called as more natural and safer by nutritional value and taste. This has been the main food for people throughout the history until agriculture was industrialized and intensified by the use of various chemicals, or conventional food. The consumers realizing the difference in taste, in response became more aware in favor of organic food, thus initiating the Green Revolution and organic farming movement in the 1940s (Drinkwater, 2009:19). When the food is processed, it should contain the overwhelming majority of organic ingredients. Non-organic ingredients may be present but in fairly small share (up to 5 five percent), be free of food additives with small presence of pesticides if they are not synthetic. Production and processing of organic food is a regulated industry.

Compared to conventional farming and food, organic based system is believed to healthier for consumers and less damaging to the environment. The most common agreed arguments, which have been tested by surveys, include: i) organic farming by not using pesticides make the environment less prone to harmful effects both in terms of polluting the soil and water; ii) a better choice for the diverse of ecosystems such as various plants, insects and animals than conventional farming; and iii) on average, organic farming can save more the environment as it produces less waste which is caused by throwing of packaging materials such as paper, plastics and metallic waste in which the chemicals are packed (Stolze *et al.* 2000; Hansen *et al.* 2001). Perhaps one of the most frequent reasons why organic farming is preferred is that the use of pesticides can have a potential damaging effect in the workers' health.

While organic farming and subsequent organic food is understood to have several benefits, one crucial question that arises about it is the yield compared to other types such as non-conventional and GMF. The answer is not so easy to be given and justified given the crises of food at global level expressed by hunger and the rise in prices. According to the World Bank estimates, between 2005-2008 food prices have risen by 83 percent, while the demand for food will increase by 50 percent by 2030 (Evans, 2008: 1-2). This is important to have it into consideration, because, majority of the people may find themselves constrained between the alternative of consuming healthier food and the one that is easier to produce, cheaper but with some shortcomings. The studies comparing the yields between organic and other foods offer mix results. As this still requires more research to draw a more clear-cut conclusion, it should be mentioned that the supporters such as Johnston (1986: 102) maintain that, in addition to higher quality due to the soil no so much exposed to pesticides, organic crops and plants have higher probability of retaining water longer, which is important during drought periods, thus more yields. Critics on the other hand base their argument on what is a concern for almost everyone, i.e. more space or land needed for organic farming facing the pressure from rising urbanization which can seriously disrupt the ecosystems in longer run. The problem of available land for organic farming becomes a challenge in small size countries like the Republic of Macedonia, with most land parcels (around 80 percent) scattered in private family ownership whose average size in 2010 was 2.5-2.8 hectares (European Commission, 2011). As the pressure for urbanization is growing, small scattered parcels may further decrease in size, which in turn may constrain the capacities to provide the needed resources to produce organic food, and the skills how to make it more for the market or to a larger number of consumers.

A microeconomic perspective of organic food

Although organic farming and food appear as traditional, it requires professional research and development. Within the firm level, the key to internal analysis is to identify potential strengths and weaknesses by collecting the relevant information. The analysis should be able to reveal a strategy and an action plan with resources in order to achieve the company's mission and objectives. Internal environment consists of a number of factors as strengths such as resources, capabilities, and competitive advantage with their elements to be *valuable, scarce, non-imitable, sustainable, appropriable, have dynamic capabilities* and the *value chain*. Reaping the benefits of strengths involves costs, the main drivers of which are economics of scale, experience effect and value drivers (Fritzroy *et al.* 2012: 213-235). Among the weaknesses can be listed: inefficiency of management or leadership, difficulty to find skilled workers, shortage of financial resources, low technical skills, and investment inefficiency (Abd Gani *et al.* 2010: 52-53).

When people interact in different parts of the globe or visit other countries, they also get known with locally produced different organic food, and even become addicted to it. The English were used to consume Indian food while serving in India as soldiers and colonizers. After coming back home, Britain welcomed the opening of Indian restaurants by Indian newcomers. This is a case of exporting local cuisine from the colony to the former colonizer. A different example follows in the Republic of Macedonia (especially in the Polog region) during the Ottoman rule that adopted many Turkish based food or recipes. *Burek* (Turkish pie), *doner*, *baklava* (type of homemade sweets), *Turkish coffee*, *Ceylon tea* are all of Turkish origin that can be found as the most common food consumed in Polog. The organic food produced from subsistence agriculture for family consumption, begun to reach the public, mostly in the cities, through businesses. The consumers are accustomed to this food in their families. But when they are away at work during the break time or lunch, they may be missing it. A partial fulfillment to the demand for organic food is in the bakeries that can be found in every few hundred meters across the city, and some restaurants more sparsely dispersed.

A huge percentage of population thin the Polog region was always affected by food traditions and rituals which played a crucial part in their lives. However, traditions undergo a change over time by adapting new variety food preferences and eating habits. The dynamics of life in general, has made the citizens to have less time at their disposal for cooking, but

always in search for value, and willingness to pursue comfort for their body and health. Organic food, when they are not able to prepare it on the own, is their preferred choice.

Porter's five forces is a model for industry analysis which the manager of a company seeks to develop in gaining competitive advantage over potential rival companies. The rivalry in the market is measured by industry concentration or market share measured by the concentration ratio, which in our case for a restaurant would be the number of restaurants and related businesses. The five forces are: i) industry competitors; ii) pressure from substitute products; iii) bargaining power of suppliers; iv) bargaining power of buyers; and potential entrants. In order to gain the advantage over its rivals, the firm in broad terms chooses the following policies: changing prices, improving product differentiation, creatively using channels of distribution, and exploiting relationship with the suppliers (Porter, 1980: 215-235). Porter's five forces as general requirements apply to industrial sectors to determine the competition and they can vary within specific industrial sector.

Key Success Factors (KSF), sometime known as Key Performance Indicators (KPI) are the measures by which the success of an industry and the model demonstrates the organizational process or activity to determine the significance of impact on the firm's overall performance. According to Parmenter (2007), these indicators include firm's internal processes such as: unit cost (in currency), yield (in %), product defects (in %), process measure (index), staff satisfaction (index), staff skills (index), capabilities (index), productivity (output/employee), and IT system use (index). Given that the firm is an open system influenced by the changes in the environment, the changes are also required in the internal organization as an adoption to the new customer demands, regulations, technological innovation development in communications, transport, and socio-political changes arising from global economic interdependence and integration (Wind and Main, 1998).

A firm can be a pioneer in the market to offer new products and services rather than being an existing one. Pioneer firms require risk-taking initiatives for which they need human and financial resources. They also should innovative and creative. If they lack the capabilities in this respect, they may choose the strategy of *fast imitator businesses*, i.e. await innovation by the competitors and follow their lead quickly. This alternative is preferable by the firms reluctant or not having the needed resources and skills to innovation. Their advantage is in another crucial aspect – segmentation of the market or better access to the customers. Such firms become more aware in listening or discovering the customer needs, then find the way to respond by acquiring the products from the leaders of innovation (Fitzroy *et al*, 2012: 327-328).

Innovation and research and development (R&D) as the driving force to business success are associated with risks and costs. Like in any industry, innovation and R&D in products and services of organic food are a critical issues that involve selection and processing a broad array of organic groceries, fruits, vegetables, and proteins (Godsay, 2010: 22). Risk factors can also be internal. In a typical case of food industry, such risk may be passed to the consumers' health when the food does not meet the needed requirements or its consumption causes health concerns. Food sector is a regulated industry undergoing intensive control of quality by the institutions in charge of monitoring their quality.

The restaurant of organic food is located in the city of Tetovo, the main urban center of the Polog region. The restaurant was established and registered in 2013 as a Joint Stock Company, with 3 co-owners and run by the management. In the first year, the building in which the (first) restaurant was located and operating, was rented for a total cost of €30.000. Total space of the facility is 160 square meters consisting of 100m² indoor, 40m² outdoor and 20m² kitchen facility. The initial investment was around €100.000, of which €70,000 went for renovation and the remaining to run the business in the first three months. More details are provided in Appendix.

Within the first year of operation, the restaurant's first strategic action was to create a value, the value which rests on its mission to provide specific local organic food that currently is scattered in different forms in the market, and plans to assemble it with the aim of becoming exclusive. There is already an abundance of labor force who are women preparing organic food at their homes for their family members, thus there is no need to spend much in this specialization.

Findings and discussion from the case study

To begin with capabilities and competitive advantage, it should be noted that the restaurant makes a significant contribution in satisfying the consumer needs that are on the rise in Macedonia (and elsewhere in the world) by first being located in the city where the largest potential customers of the Polog region live. This is the *value* as internal factor to build a competitive advantage.

Scarce is explained by very limited competition in this kind of food from the rest by not mixing organic food with others. It is a new strategy of shifting away causal and scattered supply of traditional organic food into a more concentrated business by using modern management and environmental friendly technology.

Apart from providing fast hot food in the restaurant itself, the firm has the services for fast delivery of organic in the surrounding buildings whose employees may not have sufficient time during breakfast and lunch time. Telephone lines are open for customers to order food for delivery in their offices and/or working places in a distance of up to 500 meters from the city center where the restaurant is located. This is a different service and experience with the products that other firms do not yet share or have it organized.

Although the competitors offer and sell similar products, the restaurant is *non-imitable* in a sense that it uses different routes of supply that is exclusively local to produce the food. The competitors' resources which they use in producing similar food are largely imports from other countries whose origin often remains uncertain as customers usually neither ask where the raw materials are provided from, nor if the base of the food they eat has been subject to conventional farming.

The restaurant is using the initial competitive advantage for a *sustainable* business in the future. Consumption of organic has long time ago been familiar in Macedonia and will be in the future. As long as organic food is friendly to the environment, its rate of sustainability is higher and lasts longer than in many other industries because, if the people may refrain themselves from the noise of the cars and their gas emissions, they cannot abstain from food consumption.

This business is *appropriable* as it can appropriate the returns that its capabilities deliver. How this can be explained? The restaurant captures the benefits of its capability in terms of competitive advantage, a part of which are also shared with employees, suppliers and customers. Profit as the primary appropriation goes to the firm. The network of relationships with the customers will mostly go through employees and chefs, not the firm.

Dynamic capabilities of the restaurant in the initial phase may not be a guarantee for success in the future in a fast changing market and environment, but as the competition is weak, current capabilities implies that a particular process has been standardised as a routine that other competitors will find it harder to attain. One of the most useful tools the restaurant as a company will use to assess the capabilities and analyzing business unit, is the *value chain* or the activities that the restaurant has chosen to compete. These activities involve costs, and the pressure to lower them. One way of doing so is through economies of scale, i.e. increasing the network and quantity of food to diminish costs per unit. As figures in appendix suggest, in the first year the restaurant had higher costs which gradually decreased the following years as a result of getting stronger position in the market.

New entrants can pose a barrier. Current businesses may expand their activities, a potential barrier to new entries. The barriers to entry in the market can change depending governmental regulations and licensing. Substitutes are the products akin to others within the industry already produced. The reason why substitutes are offered by the firm and consumed by the customers may be either cheaper prices or non-availability of the original products. The purpose of substitutes is to increase the firm's competition in the market where it cannot compete with the same product. Local specific organic produced food by the restaurant is attractive to industry as long as it finds the way to the market. Of particular relevance are the laws regulating organic food and related to gastronomy. The competitors are mainly the bakeries and workshops offering organic food but at the same time they do offer a lot more conventional. This is what can be considered as multi-industry or network competition that can represent some limitations for new entries.

Porter's five driving forces referred to earlier part in the case of the restaurant in Tetovo have the following explanations as findings:

Industry and competitors: food industry is growing and will continue this trend in the future. The main competitors are bakeries and the shops that do offer the same products (food) like the proposed restaurant.

Pressure from substitute products: include the large self-production and consumption by the families at home. The distinct feature of the restaurant to gain competitive advantage is to produce such a food for commercial/business purposes on daily basis, which is not possible by the families.

Bargaining power of suppliers: the restaurant will acquire the organic raw material directly from private households (milk cream, cheese, corns, fruits and vegetables) where we can check whether their farming is organic.

Bargaining power of buyers: the customers frequent the places where they can get certain organic and traditional food. At the restaurant they will have available all of them, thus in case they are not sure what exactly want to eat, they are more likely to chose the restaurant as they are sure it offers a greater variety.

Potential entrants: these are existing businesses (bakeries, certain restaurants) that may adopt their business strategy as well as new one like us. We have no information if someone is on the way to open this kind of restaurant, but if it is, we plan to maintain the leading position.

Of all products, food has the largest number of substitutes, especially when we think of just eating not to remain hungry. The challenge is with different kind of food and diets the customers like. With the increased need among the consumers for local organic food, the competitors may begin working in a similar strategy by offering substitutes at cheaper prices. A partial protection is the restaurant's application for licenses to certify many products with a detailed description how they are prepared and is branding all of them.

As the table in annex shows, gross sales, net sales, and gross profit constantly rose in the next three years. This may be in part of also rising prices of food, as measured by the Consumer Price Index (CPI). The CPI rose steadily since 2008, reaching 111.21 Index Points in June 2013 (the year in which the restaurant was established as a company), and dropping a little 109.55 Index Points (World Bank, 2016).

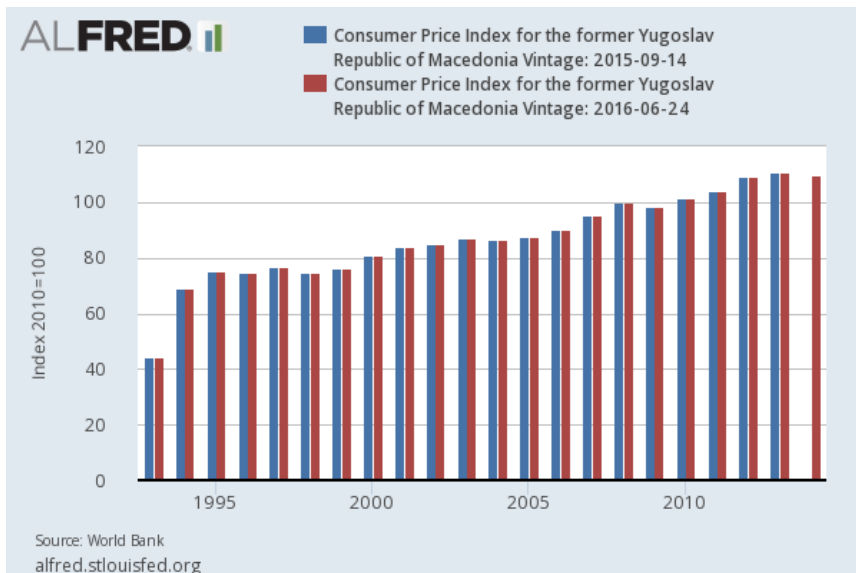


Figure 1: Consumer Price Index for the Republic of Macedonia, 1994 – 2015.

The general trend of rising food prices in the Republic of Macedonia, like in many parts of the world referred to earlier, acts as an incentive to entry this business. It was this incentive and the motive to make profit of three founders of the company in Tetovo dealing with manufacturing and serving of organic food. Total expenses by the end of the third year diminished by a factor of around 3 compared to the base year when they were very high as a result of starting up. The drivers of change will be to respond to the consumer behavior and habits. The response measures, depending on the success of the

base in Tetovo, to open affiliations in other cities of Macedonia and use advertisements as part of tourism development. At present were unable to deduce the timing of these changes.

The restaurant is very attractive to the food industry as it brought a new way how organic food specific to a country can be channeled to the market for commercial purposes. It has begun to diversify the market for fast food which currently is dominated by bakeries, kebabs, hamburgers that can be found in every corner of Tetovo. In such a saturated market the customers are looking for alternatives which the restaurant is on the way to provide. Apart from customers, the restaurant under consideration rests on organic farming and processing that does not contribute to environmental pollution which is becoming a concern in modern times. The attractiveness of using local resources in producing and selling of organic food is also justified by the fact that Macedonia is large importer of food that is often associated with remarks by the customers and state controlling authorities as causing health concerns, e.g. importing of the meat whose analysis have frequently raised the concern of quality such as too conventional and even genetically-modified but without indicating in the label.

Conclusion

The demand for food in the Republic of Macedonia, like in any other countries, is increasing as are also increasing its prices. Businesses in food sector and consumers become aware in search of the food that brings more benefits on both sides. Organic farming and food is more preferred as it is healthier and ecologically accepted. As the prices rose sharply in recent year, it is an opportunity to engage in a business by opening a restaurant to offer exclusively organic food. The Polog region in the Republic of Macedonia has many such exclusive local organic foods that previously were produced at home by the families for self-consumption. However, these specificities are finding the way to the market through bakeries and various shops. The decision to open a restaurant of this type of food in the city of Tetovo was made after the founders found that a number of consumers on the rise, with a plan to expand its network of affiliations. They invested their own capital and are getting the return on investment.

Market segmentation is currently focused in one city as a testing experience. There is a risk from new entries, but mainly in already existing market structure through bakeries and fast food shops. To gain a comparative advantage over these rivals, the restaurant in Tetovo is working on getting the certificates for many of the products with its own recipe and establish brands for each of them. The recipe then can be exported abroad to open similar restaurants, just as some well-known have done with their own.

The five forces as a model of competition, strategic actions, KSFs, drivers of change and attractiveness to industry revealed many advantages that the organic food restaurant has over its current and potential competitors. This does not imply that entering such a business is an easy task and the success is ahead. Possible changes should be carefully examined and managed. The exclusive restaurant of organic food in Tetovo should consider alternative strategies how to maintain the current leader position.

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Appendix: Key indicators of the organic food restaurant in Tetovo

Joint Stock Company (register)

3 co-owners

Renting Location in Central Tetovo – Annual €15.000

Indoors 100 m² + outdoor 40 m² + kitchen facility 20 m² (total 160 m²)

Funding: €100 000 (each co-owner 33%)

Initial Investment: €100 000 (70,000 renovation+30,000 to run business in initial 3 months)

First year estimated expenses: ~€120,000 (e.g. monthly ~€10,000)

1 Manager – 1200	€1 000
2 Chefs – (2 x 8000)	€1 600
4 Chefs assistant (4 X 400)	€1 600
4 Full time waiters (4 x 300)	€1200
1 Oart time waiter (1x 200)	€200
3 Bartenders (3 x 350)	€1 050
Accounting services – 200	€200
Cleaning Service – 200	€200
Utilities bills – 400	€400
Maintenance - 200	€200
Rent	€1 200

First year turnover: €130,000

Meal served daily (average): 120 (€720)

Average Price of meals: 6€

Different soft Drinks served Daily Including coffee) : €600

Average Price of drink: €1.5 € (€900)

Different Alcoholic Drinks served Daily: €200

Average Price of drink: €2.5 (€500)

Average Total Turnover daily: €2 120

Average Operating Days/Monthly : 26 days

Average Monthly Turnover: €55,120.00

Average Turnover Yearly: €661,440.00

Average Expenses Monthly: €10,000.00

Cost of Goods sold:

Meals Approx: €3	€360
Non Alcoholic Drinks: €0.7	€420
Alcoholic Drinks: €1	€500
Daily Cost of Goods Sold:	€1280
Monthly COGS:	€33,280.00
YEARLY COGS:	399,360.00

Monthly Dispersion: €661,440.00 / 12 = €55,120.00 Monthly

Income statement (in €)

INCOME	2013	2014	2015
GROSS SALES	659,400.00	839,740.00	1,000,577.00
Returns and Allowances	21,3507.00	24,8469.30	30,575.00
NET SALES	445,893.00	591270.70	970,002.00
Cost of Goods Sold	206,596.90	250,375.00	304,613.0
GROSS PROFIT	439,296.10	440,895.70	665,389
EXPENSES (General/Administrative)			
Salaries and Wages	85,720.00	92,200.00	98,320.00
Employee Benefits	4,680.00	4,750.00	5,316.00
Payroll Taxes	4,680.00	4,770.00	5,200.00
Accounting Services	2,300.00	2,350.00	2,530.00
Cleaning Services	2,300.00	2,400.00	2,400.00
Maintenance	175,000.00	1,750.00	1,750.00
Rent	13,450.00	13,450.00	13,450.00
Marketing and Advertisement	4,750.00	4,800.00	4,000.00
Security	2,400.00	2,400.00	0.00
Utilities	4,000.00	4,600.00	4,750.00
Telephone Service	1,100.00	1,000.00	0.00
Insurance	1,650.00	1,800.00	2,000.00
Office Supplies	955.00	860.00	880.00
Postage and Shipping	655.00	630.00	600.00
TOTAL EXPENSES	303,640.00 €	137,760.00	98,320.00
NET PROFIT	133,474.42	50,888.88	183,864.02

Rural Revitalization and the Village Institutes Experience in Turkey (1940-1954)

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Abstract

This research evaluate on the Village Institutes experience in Turkey from the early 1940s to the 1950s. There is now a new interest in the organization and functioning of the "Village Institutes" which were in operation in Turkey. This study purpose is to describe how the Village Institutes were created, how they were organized and functioned, and what were the results of this experiment partly built on the precedent of the urban normal schools. Finally, a new theoretical interpretation is offered within a critique of existing, widely-held explanations that have dominated the theoretical literature on the issue for so long.

Keywords: The Village Institutes, Turkey, İsmail Hakkı Tonguç, Rural Development.

Introduction

After Turkish National Movement, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk transformed the core of the last great empire into a modern state. The Turkish Revolution of the 1920's and 1930's may well be considered the most wonderful revolution of modern periods. In that time, Turkish intellectuals were awakened to the problems of rural Anatolia experiences. (Makal, 2005: 52) As early as 1920 when Atatürk was thought merely a rebellious general. He started propagating the notion of a special educational program for the Turkish villages. (Stone, 1974: 419) In 1922 Atatürk asserted that the educational policy of the country must be the education of the peasant. At last, in 1923, the establishment of the Republic provided conditions in which a development of education might really be expected. (Verschoyle, 1950:60) Atatürk also indicated the need to place both primary and secondary education under the authority of the Ministry of Education. Between 1923 and 1933, the number of normal schools on elementary level, had risen from twenty to only twenty-five, and the total number of teachers from 4.8 thousand to nineteen thousand. Over 80 per cent of the population was, and is, contained in some 40.000 villages, 32.000 of which comprise under 400 people each, with less than 150 inhabitants in each of 16.000 villages. At that time there were in all about 3,200 primary schools, with 5.600 primary teachers. Thus, the ultimate goal must have appeared almost impossibly distant. (Verschoyle, 1950:60)

In that case, Turkish leaders have struggled with the problem of rural revitalization. After considerable debate, their concern led to a government-sponsored program of Village Institutes designed to improve the Anatolian peasant. Although in 1948 this program was abandoned by the ruling Republican People's Party, the debate over the value of the Village Institutes has continued. This article seeks to examine the debate organization and which has followed their demise. (Stone, 1974: 419)

General Background of The Village Institutes

The establishment of the Republic procured conditions in which a development of education might really be expected. At last, in 1927, Out of a population of 14 million, only a little more than 1 million could read. Thus, the ultimate goal must have appeared almost impossibly distant.

In 1931, the third congress of the People's Party adopted an educational programme of eight points:

The foundation stone of our educational policy is the removal of ignorance.

Our aim is to raise strong republican, patriotic, and worthy citizens.

Both the bodily and mental development of our children shall be inspired by our glorious history.

Education must equip the citizen for material success in life.

Education shall be nationalistic and patriotic, free from all superstition and foreign ideas.

Sympathetic care of the pupil shall be united with firm discipline and moral teaching.

Great importance shall be attached to Turkish history.

In every village there shall be a primary school, which shall include in its curriculum the teaching of hygiene and of appropriate agricultural and technical subjects. (Verschoyle, 1950: 60)

Turkish intellectuals feel that such organizations could be helpful to those “new countries” which have to create from nothing the whole system of elementary education in regions which are dominantly rural. Especially, they were awakened to the problems of rural Anatolia experiences during World War I. (Öztürk, 1996: 125) Some of them were to modernize the social relations, to bring an end to poverty and ignorance among the peasants, to create peasant intellectuals, to increase agricultural productivity and to help spread the Kemalist Revolution in the countryside. (Karaömerlioğlu, 1998: 47) In addition, the overall economic conditions, particularly in agriculture, continued to deteriorate owing to the global negative effects of the Great Depression. (Thornburg, 1949:359)

At that time, it had not been for the poor financial structure mechanization might have been a solution to improve agricultural production. In 1936 Hakkı Tonguç, the Director General of Primary Education, was carrying out a tour of inspection in the province of Kayseri. (Verschoyle, 1950: 60-61) The Village Institutes embody an educational attempt made in Turkey between 1937 and the mid-1940s to transform the Turkish countryside. Two years later Hakkı Tonguç was ready to develop his scheme into the much more comprehensive design for training primary teachers, which is embodied in the village institutes. (Akyüz, 2001: 353-355) Officially, it began in 1940 although experimental studies started in 1937. The Institutes continued until early 1950s, but the original phase of the Village Institutes ended in 1946 with the withdrawal of Hasan Ali Yücel from the Ministry of Education and Hakkı Tonguç. A new interest in the organization and functioning of the “Village Institutes” which were in operation in Turkey between 1940 and 1950.

There were many expectations from these institutions for the development of rural Turkey. (Uzman, 2013: 197) The teacher's duties to the community come under two headings: his duty to the school itself, and his duty to village life. One of the secrets of success of the village institute system is that it was prepared especially to suit national needs, and not just copied from training methods employed in any other country, in the realization from the first that an entirely new type of teacher and a new method of training were alike necessary. (Kaya, 1984: 193) For many, it was their first contact with peasants. Some of them were to modernize the social relations, to bring an end to poverty and ignorance among the peasants, to create peasant intellectuals, to increase agricultural productivity and to help spread the Kemalist Revolution in the countryside. (Karaömerlioğlu, 1998: 47) Though there was a consensus in the beginning among the ruling circles as to what should be the goals of the Institutes, the actual historical experience turned out to be extremely controversial. The Village Institutes became one of the major foci of political and ideological debate in Turkey, especially in the 1950s and the early 1960s. (Szyliowicz, 1966: 272-273)

Table 1. Number of Students per Primary School, Student, Teacher and Teacher in Primary Schools in Turkey (1923-1938)

Teaching Period	Numbers of Schools	Number of Students/jalal									Number of Teachers									Number of students per teacher		
		In Village			In State			Total			In Village			In State			Total					
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T			
1923-24	4894	-	-	-	-	-	-	273107	62554	341941	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9021	1217	10238	33
1924-25	5587	-	-	-	-	-	-	301381	88987	390368	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10480	3342	13822	28
1925-26	5975	-	-	-	-	-	-	313893	92895	406788	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10445	3864	14309	28
1926-27	5995	-	-	-	-	-	-	348978	86585	435563	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10864	3367	14231	31
1927-28	6043	-	-	-	-	-	-	325695	133969	461985	9553	3081	12634	1395	1165	2560	10948	4246	15194	30		
1928-29	6600	-	-	-	-	-	-	323260	154309	477669	9781	3322	13103	1372	1243	2615	11153	4565	15718	30		
1929-30	6542	-	-	-	-	-	-	308028	161043	469071	9526	3170	12696	1372	1240	2612	10898	4410	15308	31		
1930-31	6598	-	-	-	-	-	-	315072	174227	489299	10077	3489	13566	1427	1325	2752	11504	4810	16318	30		
1931-32	6713	-	-	-	-	-	-	335921	187690	523611	6393	728	7121	5417	4435	9852	11910	5163	16973	31		
1932-33	6778	203822	99155	302977	162203	102081	264384	366125	201236	567361	6171	710	6881	4269	3914	8183	10440	4624	15064	39		
1933-34	6383	213116	101001	314117	172131	104921	277052	385247	205922	591169	6042	787	6829	4278	4016	8294	10320	4803	15123	38		
1934-35	6402	238789	109117	347906	188009	111445	299454	426978	220562	647360	6096	828	6924	4120	4058	8178	10216	4886	15102	43		
1935-36	6275	254166	115159	369325	199962	118815	318777	454128	233974	688102	5997	894	6891	3999	4059	8058	9996	4953	14949	46		
1936-37	6202	264503	116147	380650	209217	124311	333528	473720	240458	714178	5967	919	6886	3838	4053	7891	9805	4972	14777	48		
1937-38	6700	287466	121315	408781	222483	133427	355910	509949	254742	764691	6615	1688	8303	3634	3604	7238	10483	5292	15775	48		

Source: (MEB Talim ve Terbiye Başkanlığı,1987: 8).

Institute Students

By 1935, when the number of primary schools had risen only to 5,000, with 7,000 teachers and 370,000 pupils, it had become clear that some entirely new method of educational expansion was necessary if the country were ever to be properly equipped with teachers and schools.(DİE, 1967: 32-35) Fortunately for Turkey, a man with the necessary organizing ability, drive, and personality was at hand to launch what was really a revolutionary scheme. This scheme is undoubtedly one of the most important developments in the country. Candidates for admission to the village institutes are chosen by examination from those who have completed the five-year course at a primary school in the area covered by the institute, the age limits being 12-16 years.(Tonguç, 1939: 1)

There were fourteen Institutes the first year, 18, in 1943, twenty in 1944, and 21 in 1948 until the Institutes were established.

Table 2. Located production units in the countryside

Name of the Institute / City	Establishment Years	Field of the Institute
1.Çifteler-Eskişehir	1937	Afyon, Kütahya, Uşak, Konya
2.Kızıllı-Izmir	1937	Manisa, Denizli, Aydın
3.Kepirtepe-Kırklareli (Lüleburgaz)	1938	Edirne, Tekirdağ
4.Gölköy-Kastamonu	1939	Çankırı, Çorum, Zonguldak, Sinop
5.Düzici-Adana (Haruniye)	1940	Maraş, Gaziantep
6.Arifiye-Kocaeli (Izmit)	1940	Bursa, Bilecik, İstanbul, Bolu
7.Aksu-Antalya	1940	Muğla, Mersin
8.Savaştepe-Balıkesir	1940	Çanakkale
9.Gönen-Isparta	1940	Burdur
10.Cilavuz-Kars	1940	Artvin, Ağrı
11.Akçadağ-Malatya	1940	Tunceli-Elağz
12.Pazarören-Kayseri	1940	Yozgat, Kırşehir, Niğde
13.Akpınar-Samsun (Ladik)	1940	Amasya, Tokat
14.Beşikdüzü-Trabzon	1940	Ordu, Giresun, Gümüşhane, Rize
15.Hasanoğlan-Ankara	1941	Ankara, Çankırı
16.Ivriz-Konya	1941	Nevşehir, Niğde
17.Pamukpınar-Sivas (Yıldızeli)	1941	Erzincan
18.Pulur-Erzurum	1942	Bingöl
19.Ortaklar-Aydın	1944	Denizli
20.Dicle-Diyarbakır (Ergani)	1944	Urfa, Mardin, Bitlis
21.Emiş-Van	1948	Hakkâri

Source: (Türkoğlu, 2005:176-177)

In the early days of the institutes primary schools were very rare, and entrance was by nomination. The number of students enrolled (in parentheses the number of women included in the total) was 2,490 (235) in the first year.

Table 3. Development of Institutes

Lesson Period	Number of Institutes	Number of Teachers	Number of Students		Total	Number of Graduates	
			Male	Female		Teacher	Health Officer
1937-1938	2	12	128	-	128	-	-
1938-1939	3	25	325	16	341	-	-
1939-1940	4	40	1074	107	1181	-	-
1940-1941	14	234	4933	438	5371	-	-
1941-1942	17	294	6987	705	7692	103	-
1942-1943	18	354	8834	837	9671	254	-
1943-1944	18	368	11563	1276	12839	1911	-
1944-1945	20	487	12761	1475	14236	1797	221
1945-1946	20	505	13068	1396	14464	1460	252
1946-1947	20	547	12822	1336	14158	2089	228
1947-1948	20	642	11814	1078	12892	2162	336
1948-1949	21	209	11244	773	12017	2269	220
1949-1950	21	672	13251	721	13972	1741	91
1950-1951	21	597	13322	773	14095	1760	-
1951-1952	21	570	12647	706	13173	1795	-
Total						16894	

Source: (DİE, 1967: 32-35, 41,47).

As can be understood from the table, it is noteworthy that there is a steady increase in the number of students, both in the number of institutes opened and in the number of students, from the establishment process to the closing process of the institutes. The highest number was 14,236 between 1945-1946, and the lowest between 5371 in 1940. The number of diplomas awarded each year varied from a low of 103 to a high of 2,269 in 1948-1949. The total of diplomas given was 16,894. During the first five years the Institutes had built more than 300 buildings such as dormitories, refectories, kitchens, workshops, warehouses, garages, class-rooms, etc. They had installed electricity in sixteen of their twenty-one centers. By the time 1952, 21 institutes, 17,341 teachers, and 1348 health officers had graduated to the rural development as a graduate, through the institutes, with a remarkable progress in the schooling process and education-training struggle in the villages.

The Curriculum

In the first three years (1940-1943) there was no definite curriculum in the Institutes. The teachers received only general instructions and some examples of programs in their specialty, but the details of the curriculum were left mostly to their initiative. The amount of time allotted to each branch per semester was 114 hours for general education; 58 hours for agriculture; and 58 hours for technology. After three years a detailed curriculum was elaborated assigning a specific number of hours per year for each subject. Given below is the total number of hours for the five years showing the relative importance attributed to the different subjects.(Kaya, 1984: 194) The old proportion was maintained for the three great branches: General Education (50 per cent); Agriculture (25 percent); Technology (25 percent). The following subjects were taught under General Education (Culture): Turkish, 736 hours in 5 years; History, 328; Geography, 236; Civil Education, 92; Mathematics, 598; Physics, 276; Chemistry, 184; Biology, 368; Foreign Language, 414; Penmanship, 92; Painting, 214; Physical Education and National Folklore, 184; Music-instrumental and vocal, 460; Military training, 368; Rural Economics and Cooperative Organization, 46. Greatest importance was allotted to Mathematics and Foreign Language among the variety of subjects in this curriculum.(Tonguç, 1947: 561-562) In Agriculture (with some local variants the following subjects were taught: field-work, industrial cultures, zootechnology aviculture, apiculture, silk worm culture, fishing and pisciculture. Also taught were technology: Iron work, wood work-masonry-mechanics, elements of electricity, and specialties for women in field and housework, child-rearing and others.(Vexliard and Aytaç, 1964:44-45)

Education For Production

The main function of the village institute is to train the primary teacher. Hitherto the training course has covered five years, with a nominal 44-hour week and six weeks' holiday in the year, but it is now proposed to extend it to six years. Half of the working hours are spent on purely practical subjects, equally divided between agriculture and, for the boys, building,

carpentry, and blacksmithing; for the girls, spinning, weaving, tailoring, and sewing. The other half of the working hours are devoted to essential book knowledge: Turkish language, history, geography, and arithmetic. There is considerable elasticity in the programme in view of the seasonal nature of much of the work; and during each of the last two years of the course at least a month is spent on some simple research into aspects of village life. (Verschoyle, 1950: 62) An educational programme focusing on work, therefore, became an important objective, and the Village Institutes were set up to achieve this goal. While the principle of 'education for work', or 'education for production' became the main motivation, the method of 'learning by doing' accompanied it.(Kafadar, 1997: 305) In all the memoirs of the graduates of the Village Institutes and in all the institute publications, we see that the method of 'learning by doing' was one of the most highly emphasized principles. (Karaömerlioğlu, 1998:57) commanded priority. The need for a qualified labour force, particularly in the countryside, pressing. An educational programme focusing on work, therefore, became an important objective, and the Village Institutes were set up to achieve this goal.(Tonguç, 1944:1-2) This education system at that time produced than the public and private sectors could employ. More important, was that these graduates had not acquired the necessary practical skills the economic life of the country. (Kirby, 2012:58)

The teacher's duties to the community come under two headings: His duty to the school itself, and his duty to village life. Under the first heading, he is responsible for the lay-out and work of the farm and garden attached to the school; for all teaching, both indoors and outdoors; for the health of his pupils; and for a proper blending of new ideas with old traditions. Under the second heading, he is to take every possible part in village life. He must organize ceremonies on national holidays; run the school farm as a model farm; help to protect forests, where these exist; preserve and repair ancient buildings; promote sports; share in all rejoicing and in all mourning; fight against drink, gambling, and other vice; and, in sum, raise the level of village culture, not by preaching and mere advice, but by active co-operation. (Verschoyle, 1950: 61)

Conclusions

It is now possible to suggest this conclusions. The Village Institutes operated from 1940-1941 to 1949-1950. In Turkey, the rural revitalization preceded the establishment of the Village Institutes. Among the advocates of the Village Institutes there is also considerable varia-tion. Some recall the era of the late 1930s and the early 1940s with nostalgia, but they admit that the noble experiment was aborted and cannot be re-initiated. Others take a more militant position. Not only do they support re-opening the Institutes, but they also insist that the entire Turkish school system ought to be thoroughly reformed in light of the Village Institute experience. So it is possible to conclude that Turkish education will continue to adhere to conventional patterns.

Alternative approaches to rural revitalization and national development might again make a major impact on the Turkish educational scene. we can say that the Village Institutes were truly an original Turkish creation. Yet it is not at all certain that the same solution would still be profitable now, twenty years later in the same country, when the pace of industrialization and urbanization is much more rapid. In that case, Village Institutes did supply a solution for a country dominantly rural which didn't expect overnight to shift into an era of industrial prosperity.

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Kansei approach for the design of functional products for the elderly

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Abstract

Based on the theory of Kansei engineering, this study adopts the methods and steps of user research and divides the whole process into three stages: (1) survey and categorization of functional household items for the elderly; (2) interview with the high-involvement elderly regarding their affective preference; (3) questionnaire survey and statistical analysis of the representative functional household item for the elderly. Early results showed that (1) in terms of product search ratio, mobility assisting and communication products have the highest proportion; (2) in terms of product sales ratio, mobility assisting products reaches 25% and footwear products are the highest among them; (3) interviews with high-involvement elderly show that footwear with 40.8% is the highest demand among functional household items. Therefore, footwear products will be used as example to conduct subsequent study on Kansei preference and affective design for the elderly.

Keywords: Kansei Engineering, Functional Products, Elderly, High-involvement, Affective Design

Introduction

The new wave of retired elderly people are mostly heavily dependent on scientific gadgets in the era of science and technology. Their living style, including diet, social activities, sports and leisure, education and entertainment, etc., is very worthy of further study. In recent years, the demand for elderly products has grown rapidly due to the growth of the 65-year-old population. The elderly consumer market has become the main source of consumer economy. In the book on consumer behavior in the super-aged society, Hiroyuki Murata (2015) mentioned that the products designed for elderly market need to address the "three-troubled" for the elderly, namely, "unease", "dissatisfaction", and "inconvenience". Lee and Kuo (2001) suggested that the needs of the elderly vary depending on their daily life style. Those who are active and like to exercise prefer learning, socializing, and trying new things; therefore, they spend most of the time on learning the operation of new products. For relatively passive elderly, they focus more on material aspects, such as "food", "clothing", and "pleasure". As for those who do not like exercise or with poor health, their needs focus on "food", "clothing", "live", and "transport". This study based on the survey of elderly people life styles and product use, summarized the demand of functional products in everyday life for high-involvement elderly groups.

Methods and Procedure

Survey of daily necessities classification for the elderly

This study first searched and classified products related to food, clothing, live, transport, education, and entertainment for the elderly. However, due to the number of elderly related products are so huge, the research object mainly focused on the screening results from the database of Resource Portal of Assistive Technology (RPAT) for Multi-functional Assistive Technology, Social and Family Affairs Administration, Ministry of Health and Welfare. Based on the amount of daily search number, we screened the top 9 categories of daily necessities.

According to the product listed on RPAT database, we can see that the mobile assistive products category is the most searched for one, ranked number one as it has three products on the top ten search charts. Leisure products category ranked the second with two products on the list; and personal cleaning products came as the third with one product on the list. Therefore, mobile assistive products were used as samples for the study in the next stage. The product rankings are shown in Table 1. Mobile assistive products are searched frequently by elderly person, such as walking sticks, crutches, walkers, four-leg crutches, trolleys, wheelchairs, electric scooters, electric wheelchairs and so on.

Table 1. Short list of common elderly household items from RPAT database

Categories	Description	Ranking
1. eating	Special tableware, such as: curved, easy to scoop plate, non-slip mat, gap cup, adjustable weighted easy to hold tableware, one-way straw, etc.	7
2. hygiene	Socks aids, shoelace swivel, slippers aids, snap-on aids, zipper aids, dress aids, etc.	6
3. personal cleaning	Personal cleaning, toilet, bath, toilet height, bath chair, bathtub armrest, multi-functional bath set, hair-wash sink, etc.	3
4. mobile assistive	Cane, crutches, walkers, four-leg crutches, trolleys, wheelchairs, electric scooter, electric wheelchair, etc.	1
5. environmental reminder	Bathroom anti-slip strips, all kinds of safety handrails, automatic lighting systems, voice warning system, high contrast ground, etc.	8
6. labor-saving products	Electric scooter, remote control switch, radio called bell, effort saving handle, easy to stand up mat, etc.	9
7. communication products	Degraded visual and auditory capability may cause some difficulties in communication.	4
8. footwear	foot aids, such as insole to reduce the pain, increase walking ability.	5
9. leisure products	Large poker, card holder, large mahjong, automatic shuffler, indoor shooter, dart ball, indoor tennis, pillow audio, fitness ball, grip ball, etc.	2

The transport product samples come from Amazon, one of the world's leading e-commerce providers. The top 100 elderly products on the website are summarized as shown in Fig. 1.

Among the top 100 products in the sales volume, transport category with 25 items summed up the highest. Within the category, six sub-categories can be identified as: the footwear, socks, crutches, trolleys, electric cars, and wheelchairs (as shown in Fig. 2). Among them, footwear accounted for 7 items; crutches accounted for 6 items; trolleys and socks accounted for 4 items each; wheelchairs 2 items; and electric cars accounted for 1 item.

Amazon sales charts

based on sales of the most popular goods. Updated every hour

< All categories

< Health care

Elderly supplies

Help scoopers
Bathroom supplies
Adult incontinence articles
Dietary aids
Daily life aids
Care bed and accessories

Elderly supplies sales charts



1. Pansy easy to wear off the old women's shoes 7351 Brown 39
★★★★★
¥ 554.00 prime free shipping



2. (Depend) super adult diapers M medium box 60 (buckle / waist paste type)
★★★★★
¥ 210.00 prime

In the elderly supplies there are more to explore

New list

> View details



Japan for a white orthopedic old ¥ 68.00 prime
Japan for a white orthopedic old ¥ 59.00 prime
¥ 230.07 prime



Fig. 1. Elderly product sales charts of Amazon's website (Amazon.com Inc.)



Fig. 2. Elderly transport goods ranking

Table 2 shows the products. Footwear sub-category with 7 items reached the highest sales on the list and was the most frequently purchased item.





Questionnaire interview on functional products with high-involvement elderly












Through double questionnaire surveys to make sure whether the footwear is the most commonly used functional products for the elderly.

The 25 samples used were screened from the website. A questionnaire survey on usage was conducted for the elderly (as shown in Fig. 3), followed by a questionnaire survey on the level of involvement for functional products for the elderly. The

results will be used for the EGM interview in the next stage. Fig. 4 shows an online questionnaire for recruiting high-involvement elderly in using functional products.

Table 2. Transport products for the elderly

Category number	Product item	Number	images	Description	Amazon Ranking
1	Shoes	(1)		Pansy easy to wear and take-off light shoes	No. 15
		(2)		DUNLOP soft material cushion shoes	NO. 17
		(3)		Pansy summer anti-skid casual shoes	NO. 37
		(4)		Duflex healthy shoes	NO. 44
		(5)		Rider Brazilian fashion function slippers	NO. 59
		(6)		BaBa Baba GPS smart shoes	No. 72
		(7)		IUMaw anti-skid easy to wear and take-off shoes	No. 83
2	crutches	(8)		KAINOS carbon fiber material folding O-type anti-skid cane	NO. 12
		(9)		MAKI standing assisted soft grip four-leg cane	NO. 30
		(10)		Fuji home type S folding crutches	NO. 48
		(11)		KangChien aluminum alloy crutch stool	NO. 59
		(12)		KangChien four-leg crutches	NO. 62
		(13)		PengYi four-leg anti-slip climbing sticks	NO. 63

3	trolley	14)		Japan's dual use cart & trolley	NO. 27
		15)		<i>Japan Tacaof aluminum alloy light folding shopping cart</i>	NO. 33
		16)		KangChien folding shopping cart	NO. 48
		17)		<i>Elliago walker /portable shopping cart</i>	NO. 68
4	socks	18)		<i>Aircast A60 ankle jacket</i>	NO. 98
		19)		Anti-falling socks	NO. 43
		20)		TXG warm decompression socks	NO. 21
		21)		Diabetes socks	NO. 47
5	wheelchairs	22)		YuYao wheelchair	NO. 28
		23)		Kawa Mora titanium aluminum wheelchair	NO. 42
6	電動車	24)		<i>Taiwan BiXiang electric wheelchair</i>	NO. 5


		25)		Taiwan BiXiang quick disassembly electric scooter	NO.78
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Fig. 3. Fill in the online questionnaire



Fig. 4. GOOLE online questionnaire design

Statistical analysis for the questionnaire on representative elderly functional products

Screened from the online questionnaire, 12 elderly people over the age of 65 were asked to attend the interview, and the results are shown in Fig. 5. Footwear products, with the highest percentage, took up to 40.8% meaning that it was used most frequently and by most subjects. Fig. 6 indicated that items labeled 1 to 7 are all footwear. Therefore, footwear will be used to represent the elderly daily functional products in the study.

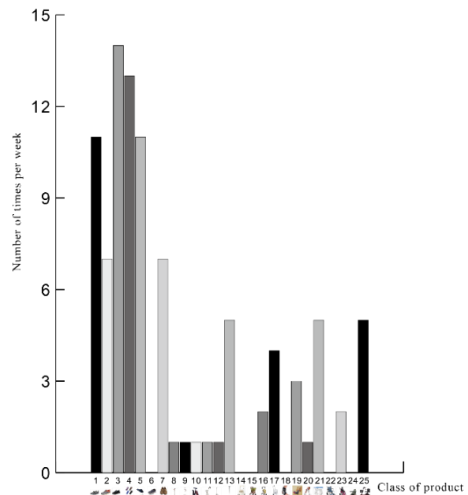
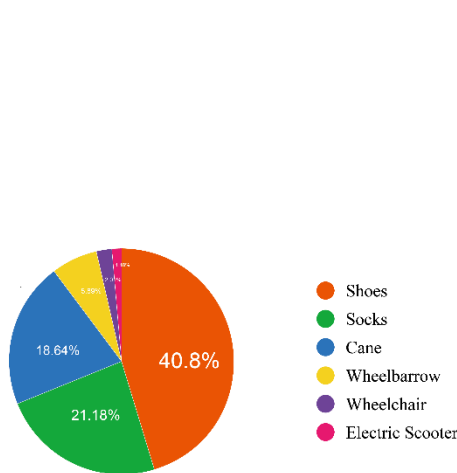


Fig. 5. Distribution of product usage from survey Fig. 6. Product use frequency from survey

According to the recruiting results from online questionnaire regarding the usage and frequency of use, 15 elderly were qualified as high-involvement users and were invited for in-depth EGM interview.

Results and Discussion

According to the interview with the high involvement user group, the results show that sample no.2, the anti-skid soft bottom functional shoes, is one of the essential style elderly would wear for going out, as shown in Fig. 7. It is believed that the protection of foot has been the important issue to the elderly. Many medical studies have pointed out that knee aging, plantar aponeurosis degeneration and other reasons will make elderly do not want to move around, which makes the elderly physical decline rapidly.

Among the 15 interviewee, according to their using experience and frequency of use, there are currently 60% of them wearing the very functional shoes, 20% wearing easy to wear and take-off ones. Only 20% currently not wearing functional shoes (Fig. 8), and nearly 80% of elderly people would choose functional shoes for the transport products. The results from the interviews also showed that about 48% of the elderly with the highest frequency of wearing functional shoes at about five days a week. (Fig. 9)

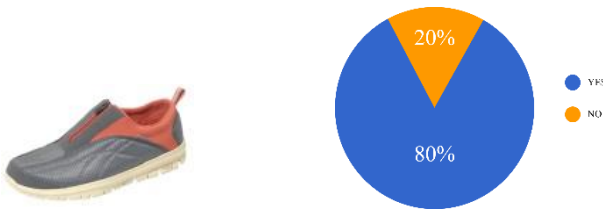


Fig. 7. Anti-skid soft bottom functional shoes Fig. 8. Usage of anti-skid soft bottom functional shoes

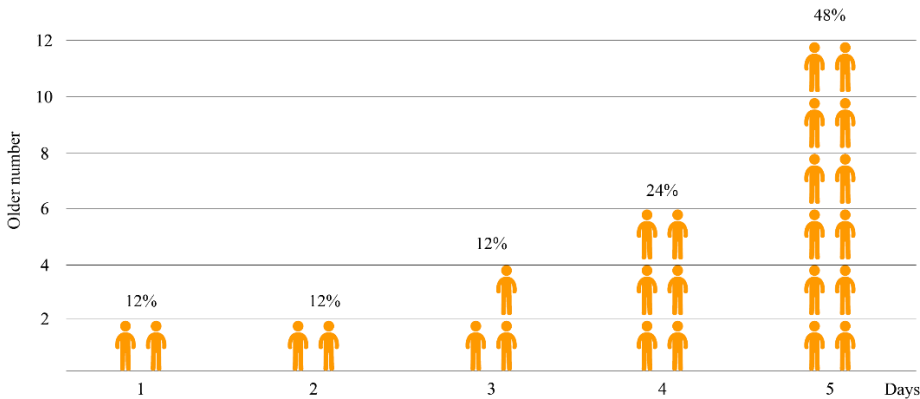


Fig. 9. Frequency of anti-skid soft bottom functional shoes used in a week

Conclusion and Suggestion

Concluded from the survey, data compiled, summarized and interview, it shows that the proportion of sales from mobile assistive and communication products is the highest. Which makes it clear what the demands of the elderly in the daily life are - hoping to move around independently, keep healthy, defer inconvenience caused by physical aging, and interact and communicate with friends and relatives, to maintain the quality of life. Among various functional products, footwear sub-category has the highest proportion within the transport products, which shows that footwear meets the basic functional needs of the elderly and is their most commonly used functional products. The results from the interview with 15 high involvement elderly also showed that footwear has the highest demand among functional products in daily use.

When designing functional footwear products for the elderly in the future, characteristic factors of the footwear must be captured and designed to meet the physical and psychological needs of different elderly groups. By doing so, it is hoped that functional products can be designed to meet the needs of users as we have wished in the very beginning.

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Evaluation of Landscape Change Using Remote Sensing: A Case Study of Burdur Lake Basin

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Abstract

Georeferenced satellite images can be used for acquisition of topographic information, navigation and visualisation for various environmental studies. The objectives of this study were to determine land use and land cover changes and describe local landscape characteristics in the Burdur Lake Basin. Analyses were carried out using remotely sensed data. The topography of the land has been determined using GlobalDEM data of ASTER satellite with a resolution of 15 m. With this data, ArcMap 10.3 ArcHydro plugin was used to identify the basin of Burdur Lake and it was accepted as the boundary of the study. LT51790341987245 (02 August 1987) and LT51790342011254 (11 August 2011) coded Landsat TM satellite images have been used in the study. For the orthorectification, a digital elevation model (DEM) with an RMS accuracy of ca. 3.5 m, and for classifications 100 selected ground control points (GCPs) measured with differential GPS were used. Land uses identified with classified satellite images are analyzed in a spatial and proportional manner in a total study area of 3,361.56 km². The changes in land cover are compared with each other and have been evaluated in terms of landscape change. Population growth, rising water consumption for agricultural and domestic purposes and building dams has led to water surfaces declining from 208,71 km² to 155,42 km². Also analyses show that the landscape had been dominated by a mixture of urban and cultivated land, and became more homogenous and aggregated in 24 years.

Keywords: Information technologies, change detection, landscape change, remote sensing

Introduction

Natural, cultural and ethnographic values are of great importance for sustainable development. The best way to use resources for both protection and development policies depends on assessing their susceptibility to changes (Benliay, 2009). Landscape is a dynamic phenomenon that almost continuously changes (Antrop, 1998). Landscape changes are thought to be driven by the complex interactions of socioeconomic (anthropic) and environmental (physical) factors (Forman, 1995; Zonneveld, 1995; Acosta et al., 2005). The changes in landscapes become extremely devastating and many heritage values and resources become irreversibly lost. The speed of the changes, their frequency and magnitude increased unprecedented in the second half of the 20th century (Antrop, 2000).

Describing proportional changes of different land cover types through time may be crucial, not only for preserving biological diversity, but also for developing general landscape models which are useful in ecosystem management and environmental policies (Franklin, 1993; Christensen et al., 1996; Blasi et al., 2003; Acosta et al., 2005). Remote sensing and the use of satellite imagery offer interesting possibilities for monitoring changes in land cover in a synoptic view (Antrop, 2004). Georeferenced satellite images can be used for acquisition of topographic information, navigation and visualisation for various environmental studies (Vassilopoulos et al., 2002). Remote sensing and Geographical Information Systems (GIS), when integrated with the tools of landscape ecology, can be used to investigate the changing spatial patterns of biodiversity (Innes and Koch, 1998; Roy and Tomar, 2000; Rocchini et al., 2006).

In this study, Burdur Lake Basin land cover area and volume changes were analyzed by using Landsat satellite images of year 1981 and 2011 and the reasons for these changes were investigated.

2. MATERIAL AND METHOD

2.1. Material

The study area is located in the Burdur Basin, which is one of the 25 hydrological basins in Turkey. The Burdur basin consists of six separate covered basins, including Acıqöl, Salda Lake, Yarıklı Lake, Akgöl and Atabey Plain along with Lake Burdur, which is the third largest lake in the Göller region (Ataol, 2010).

Burdur Lake Basin is located in the Western Mediterranean Region and is located between 37° 59' 47" - 37° 08' 35" N and 29° 40' 40" - 30° 29' 21" E according to the Geographic WGS 84 coordinate system (Figure 1).

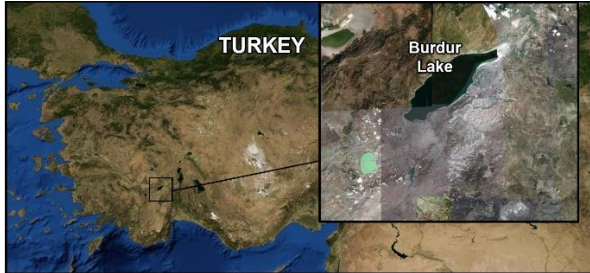


Figure 1. Burdur Lake Basin

GlobalDEM data of ASTER satellite with a resolution of 15 m. has been used for creating topographic map of the study area. LT51790341987245 (August 2nd, 1987) and LT51790342011254 (August 11th, 2011) coded Landsat TM satellite images have been used for detecting the land cover of Burdur Lake Basin.

ArcMap 10.3 was used to create maps, orthorectification and classification of Landsat images. ArcMap 10.3 ArcHydro plugin was used to identify the basin of Burdur Lake.

2.1. Method

Development and conservation of water resources; it is a subject that needs to be considered in hydrological basin integrity and it is possible in the process of integrated watershed planning and management to be done on the axis of water production and consumption starting from production of quality water. The ArcHydro plugin of the ArcMap 10.3 software has detected a water basin along the water flow direction with a total of 3,361.56 km² area.

In the study, land use exploitation was made from the earth's reflections. Seven of satellite images were combined into a single composite band. Satellite images were geographically corrected according to ArcMAP 10.3 software UTM (Universal Transverse Mercator) and North zone 35 system and nearest neighbor was taken as sampling method. This sampling method gives the most accurate result with minimum error in geo-rectification process.

In order to obtain land use by utilizing the satellite image, it is necessary to determine the actual landscape characteristics of the date on which the image was taken. This is a prerequisite for controlled classification. For the orthorectification, a digital elevation model (DEM) with an RMS accuracy of ca. 3.5 m, and for classifications 100 selected ground control points (GCPs) which carried out between May 5th 2017 and April 8th 2017, measured with differential GPS were used.

The satellite images are defined by the "image classification" plug-in to the ArcMap software with coordinates of 100 points deducted for basin boundary and designated for controlled classification. The resulting images were visualized to confirm spatial data and additional points were added.

Land uses identified by classified satellite images are analyzed in a spatial and proportional manner, and the changes in land cover are compared with each other. These changes have been interpreted in terms of landscape change.

3. Results

Five land cover categories were identified in the study area. These are forests, water surfaces, agricultural lands, settlements and finally dune areas. In addition forests were classified as Low, Middle and High for their vegetation values. Satellite images and maps showing their distribution in 1987 and 2011 are shown in Figure 2.

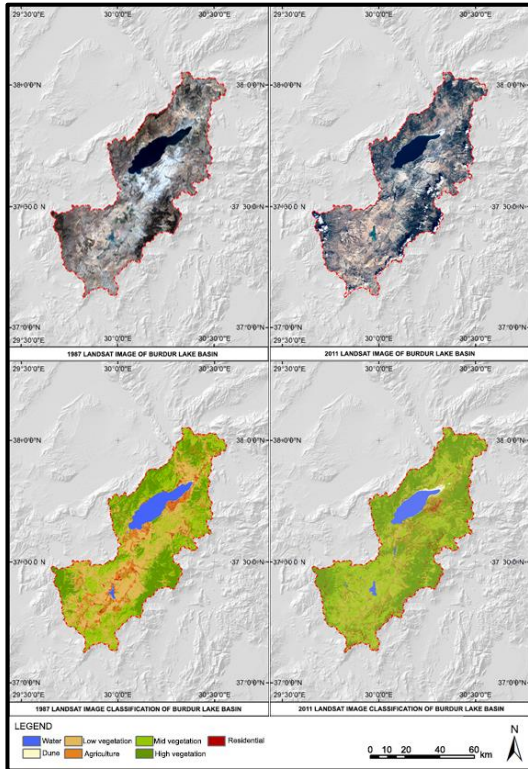


Figure 2. Landsat images and classifications of 1987 and 2011 in Burdur Lake Basin

According to the analysis, the land use which is the highest proportion in 1987 is the forests with low vegetation values with a ratio of % 32.42. Other types of land use were determined as forests with medium vegetation values, high vegetation forests, water surfaces, agricultural land, settlements and finally dune fields, respectively. The pixel, areas and ratio values for 1987 Landsat Image Classification is given in the Table 1.

Table 1. Classification values for 1987 Landsat Image.

1987 Classification	PIXELS	AREA(km ²)	RATE (%)
1 Water surface	3.310.431	208,71	6,21
2 Dune	92.992	5,86	0,17
3 Low vegetation	17.285.496	1.089,78	32,42
4 Agriculture	2.634.288	166,08	4,94
5 Mid vegetation	15.366.242	968,78	28,82
6 High vegetation	13.070.534	824,04	24,51
7 Residential	1.559.241	98,30	2,92
TOTAL	53.319.224	3.361,56	100,00

The land use which is the highest proportion in 2011 is the forests with mid vegetation values with a ratio of % 38.33. Other types of land use were determined as forests with high vegetation values, low vegetation forests, water surfaces, agricultural

land, settlements and finally dune fields, respectively. The pixel, areas and ratio values for 2011 Landsat Image Classification is given in the Table 2.

Table 2. Classification values for 2011 Landsat Image.

2011 Classification	PIXELS	AREA(km ²)	RATE (%)
1 Water surface	2.465.206	155,42	4,62
2 Dune	387.166	24,41	0,73
3 Low vegetation	6.705.715	422,77	12,58
4 Agriculture	595.952	37,57	1,12
5 Mid vegetation	20.437.347	1.288,49	38,33
6 High vegetation	20.341.533	1.282,45	38,15
7 Residential	2.386.305	150,45	4,48
TOTAL	53.319.224	3.361,56	100,00

These values will not be sufficient to determine the landscape change in years. For example, same ratio and land area can change between agriculture to forest and forest to agriculture land use character in time for different locations in the basin. But this can not be considered as a no change situation. Not only the amount of land use changes but also spatial changes should be examined at the same time. For this, image difference analysis performed for the classified images. The image difference map for the classified images of 1987 and 2011 is given in Figure 3.

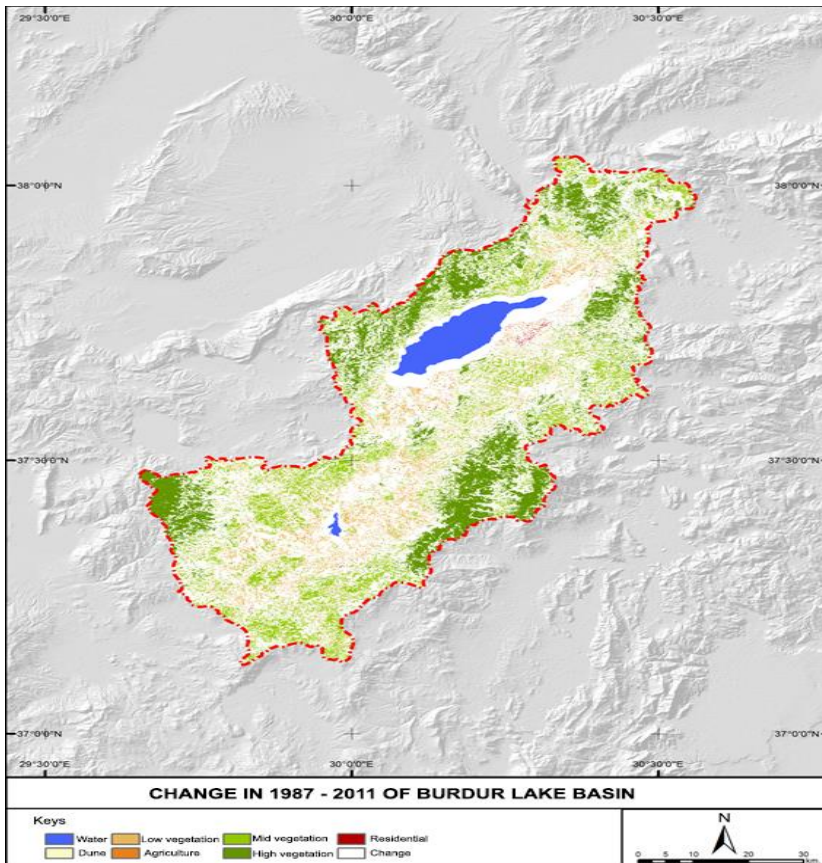


Figure 3. Land cover change in years 1987 ad 2011 in Burdur Lake Basin

Table 3. Difference analysis for 1987 – 2011 classifications.

	Change Situation	PIXELS	AREA(km ²)	RATE (%)
NO CHANGE	1 Water surface	2.001.603	126,19	3,75
	2 Dune	4.159	0,26	0,01
	3 Low vegetation	2.943.622	185,58	5,52
	4 Agriculture	81.785	5,16	0,15
	5 Mid vegetation	6.693.194	421,98	12,55
	6 High vegetation	8.564.933	539,98	16,06
	7 Residential	101.257	6,38	0,19
CHANGE	1 Water surface	1.308.828	82,52	2,45
	2 Dune	88.833	5,60	0,17
	3 Low vegetation	14.336.924	903,88	26,89
	4 Agriculture	2.551.958	160,89	4,79
	5 Mid vegetation	8.687.149	547,69	16,29
	6 High vegetation	4.497.339	283,54	8,43
	7 Residential	1.457.640	91,90	2,73
	TOTAL	53.319.224	3.361,56	100,00

When the image difference analysis for the classified images of 1987 and 2011 examined, It has been seen that there is a significant change in the areas of the forest with low vegetation land covers. The rate of change is % 26.89 and it is determined as 903.88 km² area. Analysis shows that biggest type of change for these land use is for forest with medium vegetation with % 15.89 and it is calculated as 534.03 km² area and forest with high vegetation with % 8.62 and it is calculated as 289.82 km² area.

Forest with medium vegetation land cover has a variation of % 16.29 and the area is 547.69 km². Biggest type of change for these land use is for forest with high vegetation with a ratio of % 10.67 and it is calculated as 358.71 km² area and forest with low vegetation with a ratio of % 3.60 and it is calculated as 121.01 km² area.

The forest with high vegetation have 283.54 km² of area and has a ratio of change of % 8.43. Biggest type of change for these land use is for forest with medium vegetation with a ratio of % 5.69 and it is calculated as 191.35 km² area and forest with low vegetation with a ratio of % 1.54 and it is calculated as 51.62 km² area.

The change in agriculture landscape is observed in a total area of 160.89 km² and showing a change of % 4.79. Biggest type of change for these land use is for forest with medium vegetation with a ratio of % 2.09 and it is calculated as 70.21 km² area and forest with high vegetation with a ratio of % 1.42 and it is calculated as 47.70 km² area.

The residential areas have been changed by % 2.73 and as for the area, 91.90 km² was found. Biggest type of change for these land use is for agriculture with a ratio of % 1.27 and it is calculated as 42.59 km² area.

Water surfaces show a change of % 2.45 and determined as 82.52 km² of landscape change. It has been seen that there is a notable change for dunes in water surfaces with a ratio of % 0.32 and 10.62 km² area and residential areas with a ratio of % 0.14 and 4.62 km² area. The dune landscapes shows the least changes by % 0.17 and shows a change in the area of 5.6 km².

In addition, when the areas where there is no change between the years 1987-2011 are examined; the one with the largest area is forest areas with high vegetation. It is observed that there is no change in these area of 539.98 km² with a rate of % 16.06. The forest with medium vegetation has a rate of % 12.55 and no change in the area of 421.98 km². The forest with low vegetation with a rate of % 5.52 and no change in the area of 185,58 km². The water surface has a rate of % 3.75, with 126,19 km² of area no change. Residential areas have a rate of % 0.19 and no change in the area of 6.38 km². Agricultural lands have a rate of % 0.15 and area of 5.16 km². The unchanged areas of sand dunes have % 0,01 rate and area of 0.26 km².

4. CONCLUSION

Urbanization has become ecologically complicated but geometrically simpler whereas the rural landscape became less abundant and diverse. Population growth, rising water consumption for agricultural and domestic purposes and building dams has led to water surfaces declining from 208.71 km² to 155.42 km² in Burdur Lake Basin. Depending on these outcomes, from 1987 to 2011, the lake lost about % 25.53 of its surface area, as compared to the surface area in 1987. Decrease in water volume is 53.29 km² and detected water surface change is 82.52 km² in total landscape area. This

result shows that there is an additional water surface gain of 29.23 km² which was not a water surface before. The change in water surfaces volumes may be due to climatic factors or a consequence of human activities.

The results showed that in only % 61.74 of total landscape there is no change in land use character. Also analyses show that the landscape had been dominated by a mixture of urban and cultivated land, and became more homogenous and aggregated in 24 years. But vegetation values of forests has risen over time and only this can be regarded as a gain in landscape character.

Acknowledging that the sources of the Burdur Lake and surrounding landscape change situation is multilayered in nature, thus requiring a multilevel solution. An appreciation of the direction and proportions of landscape change could help managers make the best use of available resources. Information derived from this kind of study should be taken into account when developing management policies and particularly when considering the possible ecological implications for biological diversity.

This study used remote sensing satellite image interpretation and GIS to detect and analyze the spatial changes and quantify the landscape change of Burdur Lake Basin. Using satellite images to extract information is faster and more accurate than other observation methods, particularly in identifying changes between two or more different time intervals. Also for Burdur Lake Basin, additional work must be done. Calculating and analyzing landscape metrics can enhance the results and detect the ecological consequences of urbanization.

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The Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

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Abstract

An Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 10 December 2008 and it came into force on 5 May 2013. The protocol gives individuals the right to raise complaints about violations of their rights which are enshrined by the covenant. Although, an optional protocol regulating the complaint procedure for its sister treaty, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, was entered into force in 1976, it was postponed for ICESCR until 2013 because of the historic debate discussing whether these rights are justiciable or not. This division between the treaties left the protection of the ESCR in the background. This essay will analyse the extent to which the protocol resolved the historical concerns about the protection of economic, social and cultural rights under international human rights law.

Keywords: Protocol, Rights, Social, Cultural

Introduction

The General Assembly of United Nations adopted The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which encapsulates both social (economic, social and cultural) and liberal (civil and political) human rights, in 1948 when the world was divided into two parts as Western and Eastern blocks as a result of the Cold War.¹ After the adoption of the declaration, the drafting process started for a treaty that would provide an international legal protection for human rights. At the beginning of the drafting process, it was intended to prepare a single draft treaty protecting all basic human rights of everyone at the same level. But there were debates on the nature of the rights, their extends, the possible control mechanisms and the types of obligations and duties for states.² Accordingly, while some supporting an integrated approach to the human rights, the majority were in favor of a distinction between the social and the liberal human rights.

According to Langford, these debates flared up with the beginning of the Cold War depending on different ideological and political ideas. In other words, division that the Cold War brought about was also reflected in the human rights area as in many parts of life.³ For instance, while the Western countries were supporting the civil and political rights, the Eastern Block gave more importance to the social and economic (ESC) rights. Accordingly, two separate covenants had been drafted to protect these rights under international human rights law; *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (ICESCR) and the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* (ICCPR).

At first glance, it can be said that both blocks were the victors of this argument because both of them reached a treaty regulating the rights that they found more significant. However, there were significant differences between the two covenants as they had different natures. First of all, the obtainment of the rights for ICESCR was made subject to progressive realization while immediate realization was approved for the rights regulated by its sister treaty. Furthermore, while the ICCPR was calling states to take domestic judicial measures, the ICESCR ambiguously referred to legal and other measures.⁴ The differences between them were not limited to these; different monitoring mechanisms were also

1 'The Universal Declaration of Human Rights: History of the Document' (United Nations)

<<http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/history.shtml>> accessed 25.01.2014

2 Marco Odello & Francesco Seatzu. *The UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (1st. Routledge, USA 2013) 5.

3 Malcolm Langford. "An Introduction to the Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights [2009] *Nordic Journal of Human Rights*, vol.27, issue 1, p. 3-4.

4 *ibid* 4

foreseen for two covenants and finally, while an optional protocol regulating the individual complaints for the ICCPR entered into force in 1976, a similar protocol for its sister treaty (ICESCR) had been postponed until 2013.

All these differences between the two treaties naturally led people to believe that the economic, social and cultural rights were less protected than the civil and political rights under international human rights law. It can be claimed that the famous 'three generations theory' of Karel Vasak, which actually categorizes the human rights into three groups according to their historical evolution,¹ has contributed to this belief by creating an illusionary hierarchy between the rights.² However, an optional protocol regulating the complaint process was seen as a remedy to close the gap between the first two generations, civil-politic rights and social-economic rights, and entered into force on 5 May 2013.

This essay discusses how the Optional Protocol to the ICESCR helped to close the gap between the ICCPR and the ICESCR in terms of their protection under international human rights law. First of all, the debates on the nature and the content of economic, social and cultural rights will be introduced. Then, the birth process of the Optional Protocol will be presented by using the works of the Open-Ended Working Group, which was assigned to prepare the draft of the protocol. Finally, it will be discussed whether the protocol can become a remedy to eliminate the imbalance between the sister covenants in terms of equal protection of human rights.

I. The Brief Outline Of The ICESCR

Before examining the debates on the ESC rights, briefly looking at the ICESCR will be useful. The ICESCR was adopted on 16 December 1966 to promote better standards of life and social progress for everyone without discrimination. Since it is an international treaty, it creates legally binding obligations for state parties. The supervisory body of the covenant is the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights which was established on 29 May 1985.³ As of July 2008, 161 states are the parties to the ICESCR⁴ and some of the rights envisaged by the covenant are; the right to work, the right to form and join trade unions and the right to strike and the right to social security including social insurance.⁵

II. The Debates On The Nature Of The Economic, Social And Cultural Rights

The debates, which started during the drafting process of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and led to the creation of the two distinct covenants on the protection of human rights, are mainly based on the justiciability of the ESCR. The main concerns of these debates, which are mostly emphasized by the proponents of distinction, can be summarized under three titles: the vague character of the ESCR which are limited to positive action, the institutional capabilities and the legitimacy concerns.

A. Vague Character and Being Limited to Positive Action

One of the key issues, which is frequently recurs to emphasize the differences between the CPR and the ESCR, is the vague character of the social rights which are limited to positive action. According to the proponents of the distinction, the civil and political rights have more absolute characteristics than the social rights to be enforceable and justiciable in a court. It can be claimed that the social rights are mostly uncertain, but there are also several civil and politic rights which are more vague and open-texture than the social rights. For instance, while the right to liberty has an uncertain characteristic, the right to education has a more precise frame by specifically stating that the primary education is compulsory and free.⁶

⁵Definitions and Classifications: First, Second and Third Generations Rights' (Icelandic Human Rights Centre)

<<http://www.humanrights.is/en/human-rights-education-proiect/human-rights-concepts-ideas-and-fora/part-i-the-concept-of-human-rights/definitions-and-classifications>> accessed 27.01.2014.

²'A Hierarchy Of Rights Protection' (Law Teacher 2013) <<http://www.lawteacher.net/free-law-essays/administrative-law/a-hierarchy-of-rights-protection-administrative-law-essav.php>> accessed 29.04.2015

³'Background Information on the ICESCR' (ESCR-Net 'International Network for Economic, Social & Cultural Rights') <<http://www.escr-net.org/docs/i/425251>> accessed 01.02.2014.

⁴'The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights' (United Nations Treaty Collection

2014)<https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=IV-3&chapter=4&lang=en> accessed 01.02.2014.

⁵ Background Information on the ICESCR. (n 6).

⁶ Aoife Nolan, Bruce Porter, Malcolm Landford, 'The Justiciability of the Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: An Updated Appraisal' [2007] *CHRGJ Working Paper*, No. 15, p. 9.

In addition to being vague, the social rights are also compared with the civil and political rights in terms of state action. It is argued that the protection of civil and political rights is easier than that of the social rights because it requires negative state action while the social rights need positive state action in order to be protected.¹ In other words, as Rubin stated, 'it is easier to tell governments that they shall not throw persons in jail without a fair trial than they shall guarantee even minimum but sufficient standards of living'.² From this perspective, ESCR cannot be justiciable in the courts because they are regarded as not specific legal rights but programmatic guidelines for national governmental policies where the governments have to take positive measures and actions to enforce and protect them.³ Moreover, as taking positive actions need money, poor states cannot afford to implement and protect these rights and so cannot be tried in a court in case of violation of these rights.

However, according to Karan, this approach ignores that the CPR may also require positive actions. For instance, for the implementation of the right to a fair trial (art 14 of the ICCPR), undoubtedly, the governments have to avoid unfair trial. However, in addition to this negative obligation, several positive obligations also arise, such as development of the judicial bodies or the training of the members of the judiciary.⁴ Another response to the arguments of the distinction supporters stems from the claim that the protection of the CPR is irrelevant without the protection of the ESCR. To exemplify this argument, it can be said that without the protection of the right to adequate food (art 11 (2) of ICESCR) or the right to health (art. 12 of ICESCR), the protection of the right to life (art. 6 of ICCPR) would be irrelevant.

B. Institutional Capabilities

The second objection to the justiciability of the ESCR is that there is not a competent forum to deal with the specific and social questions. In other words, international authorities could not have enough knowledge about the local conditions of the states. For instance, when somebody lodges a complaint about the violation of the right to education, the decision makers should have the information about the education system in that state. Relevant statistical data or the percentage of the budget, that is devoted to education should be known by them in order to decide whether the state meets its responsibility of fulfillment. So, it is claimed that, it is almost impossible for the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights to collect required data for each specific case while there are 161 states parties to the covenant.⁵

Nonetheless, although this is a reasonable objection, it is not well-founded because the committee can work with experts, lawyers, national courts and NGOs to collect the required data. Additionally, the state responsibility for the implementation of the human rights is not restricted to fulfillment, they also have obligations to respect and protect these rights. In other words, the implementation of human rights is not only related to using maximum resources and adopting appropriate measures, but it is also about respecting and protecting. States have to respect human rights by refraining from interfering with the enjoyment of the rights and have to prevent third-parties from interfering with the enjoyment of the rights.⁶ Therefore, the justiciability of the ESCR must be assessed in light of the three state obligations.

The decision of the African Commission on Human and People's Rights in Ogoni Case can be an excellent example to support this argument. In 1996, the African Commission received a complaint about the violation of several human rights of the Ogoni people in Nigeria. The complaint claimed that the government of Nigeria directly participated in irresponsible oil development practices in the Ogoni region. According to the complaint, the state oil company of Nigeria built a partnership with Shell Petroleum Development Company whose activities caused pollution and health problems in Ogoni Region. The complaint especially emphasised serious contamination of the soil, water and air; destruction of the homes; burning of the crops and killing of farm animals, which were all directly relevant to right to health, a healthy environment, housing and food. It was also argued that the Nigerian Government neither checked the activities of the petroleum company nor took measures for the security of local people. Besides, the government did not provide the people of the region with

1 Odello & Statzu (n 2) 6.

2 Seymour J. Rubin. 'Economic and Social Human Rights and the New International Economic Order' [1986] *American University International Law Review*, vol.1, issue 1, p. 82.

3 Odello & Statzu (n 2) 6.

4 Ulas Karan. 'Sosyal Hakların Güçlendirilmesi Açısından Bir İmkan: 'Bütüncül Yaklaşım' (An Opportunity for Strengthening Social Rights)' [2007] *Amme İdaresi Dergisi*, vol. 40, issue 3, p. 38.

5 Dr. Tawhida Ahmed. 'Seminar 5 of International Human Rights Module' 2013. University of Reading.

6 'Key Concepts on ESCRs - What are the Obligations of States on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights?' (United Nations Human Rights 2012) <<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/ESCR/Pages/WhatAreTheObligationsOfStatesOnESCR.aspx>> accessed 29.01.2014.

the information concerning the danger created by the petroleum company. Moreover, it was also alleged that the security forces of the government attacked, burnt and destroyed a number of Ogoni villages based on several pretexts. Finally, the government also failed to find the perpetrators of these attacks and punish them.¹

The African Commission reached a decision in 2001 and found the Nigerian Government guilty of violations of economic, social and cultural rights enshrined in the African Charter.² Briefly, the commission stated that the Nigerian Government had violated the ESCR of the Ogoni people by failing to perform its three minimum responsibilities; firstly, the government directly participated in the activities damaging the soil, air and water and so, damaging the health of the local people.³ So it failed to fulfill its obligation to *respect*. Secondly, the government did not protect its people from harms done by Shell Petroleum Company but instead used its security forces to facilitate the activities of the company.⁴ Therefore, it failed to fulfill its obligation to *protect*. Finally, the government neither provided any information nor permitted studies to be undertaken regarding environmental and healthier risks caused by the activities of the oil company.⁵ Hence, it also failed to perform its obligation to *fulfill*.

As seen in the Ogoni Case, the state obligation for the implementation of economic, social and cultural rights is not solely restricted to fulfillment. Indeed, in most of the cases, it encapsulates all three of them; respect, protect and fulfill. Therefore, approaching the issue only from the fulfillment argument and leaving the respect and the protect out of picture can mislead us in terms of the justiciability of the ESCR.

C. Legitimacy Concerns

Concerns related to the legitimacy are another important part of the justiciability debates. It is frequently argued that management of the state budget and formulation of the social and economic policies are under the responsibility of the elected representatives of the public. Therefore, a judicial review on these issues is perceived as a threat to democracy and to the separation of powers by many democratic countries.⁶

First of all, it is undoubtedly necessary that there is a constitutional protection for the economic and social rights in democratic countries to limit or direct the actions of the elected parts of the government and to protect the rights of minority groups. In this regard, the social rights enhance democracy, not undermine it. However, the problem here is that in contrast to the civil and political rights, a judicial decision on the social rights can have financial consequences which is administrated by the elected part of the government. So, it is claimed that this kind of decision can distort the historical roles of the executive branch and legislative power and it can also distort the traditional balance between the separate powers (the legislature, the executive and the judiciary).⁷

Although the separation of power is a significant objection to the justiciability of the social rights, it should be considered with the principle of the rule of law. Under the rule of law principle, the national courts must ensure that all rights have an appropriate and effective remedy and also ensure that the state's conduct is consistent with its obligation to respect these rights.⁸

III. The Birth Of The Optional Protocol To The International Covenant On Economic, Social And Cultural Rights

"An Optional Protocol is a legal instrument that supplements an international treaty. The term 'optional' signals that such instruments do not automatically bind states parties to the original treaty, but are subject to independent ratification." Under the UN human rights system there are several protocols regulating the individual complaint procedures. These protocols

1 Fons Coomans. 'The Ogoni Case before the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights' [2003] *International and Comparative Law Quartelv.* vol.52. issue 03. p. 749-50.

2 Shira Stanton. 'Human Rights Abuses in Nigeria: "Ogoni 9" Trial against Shell to Begin April 27 in New York' (Centre for Economic and Social Rights 2009) <<http://cesr.org/article.php?id=340>> accessed 29.01.2014.

3 The Secretary of the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, ' (Centre for Economic and Social Rights) <<http://cesr.org/downloads/nigeriapetition.pdf>> accessed 29.01.2014.

4 *ibid.*

5 *ibid.*

6 Langford, (n 3) 13.

7 Nolan, Porter, Langford, (n 10) 12.

8 CESCR General Comment No. 9, The Domestic Application of the Covenant, (Nineteenth Session, 1998), U.N. Doc. E/C.12/1998/24 (1998), para. 14).

enable the individuals to bring a complaint to the treaty bodies authorised to supervise each human rights treaty. Currently, the number of human rights treaties having an optional protocol that enables the treaty body to receive complaints reached to four after the addition of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.¹

The adoption of the Optional Protocol to the ICESCR was a prolonged process which has officially started in 1990 with the discussions in the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.² These discussions led the committee to draft an analytical paper to be present at the Vienna World Conference on Human Rights in 1993. In the conference, development of an optional protocol enabling it to hear individual complaints about the violations of the ESCR was encouraged. The Former Commission on Human Rights was also encouraged by the world conference to cooperate with the Committee to study the possibility of an optional protocol. Accordingly, the commission requested a report from the committee.³ The report was presented to the commission with a draft of the optional protocol in 1996. It strongly argued that the protocol would help to realization of the social rights and also would encourage the governments to ensure more effective remedies for these rights.⁴ However, the debates in the committee revealed that not all members agreed with the necessity of an optional protocol and not all proponents of the protocol agreed on the content.⁵ Subsequently, the commission asked the members to comment on this draft, but only a few states responded this request in the following three years of the submission.⁶

After 2001 the process was revived again with the appointment of an independent expert. The expert, Professor Hatem Korane, presented two reports supporting the optional protocol to the Commission on Human Rights and recommended the commission to form a working-group to focus on the optional protocol. On his recommendation, an Open-Ended Working Group (OEWG) was established in 2002 and the first meeting of the group was held in 2004.⁷ After that date, the group held four more meeting on the issues of the nature and the scope of state obligations under the ICESCR; the justiciability of the ESCR and the benefits of an optional protocol and its practicability.⁸ However the main moot point of all five sessions of the group was the justiciability of the ESCR.

During all these five sessions while most of the representatives from the GRULAC (Latin America and Caribbean Group) and African Countries were clearly supporting the protocol the countries such as China, Egypt, India, Japan, Poland, UK and USA did not agree with them on the justiciability issue and stated their opinions against the OP. On the other hand European Countries mostly remained reluctant by supporting the reinforcement of the ECSR but not clearly backing up the protocol.⁹

Despite all objections, a draft protocol was able to occur after lengthy discussions and it was unanimously adopted by the General Assembly on the symbolic date of 10 December 2008 which was the 60th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.¹⁰ Considering that the protocol was adopted unanimously, the attitude of the opposite states during the sessions can be interpreted as an effort to weaken the protocol and extend the process as much as possible. Langford explained this situation by stating: "Indeed some opposing States privately conceded that they knew the protocol would eventually materialise, but the strategy was to delay the process as long as possible".¹¹

IV. To WHAT Extent The Protocol Filled The Gap Between The ICESCR And The ICCPR

1 The Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1st, Geneva Academy, Geneva 2013) 3 (footnotes).

2 Arne Vandenberg & Wouter Vandenhoe. 'The Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: An Ex Ante Assessment of its Effectiveness in Light of the Drafting Process' [2010] *Human Rights Law Review*, vol. 5, issue 1, p. 207.

3 Claire Mahon. 'Progress at the Front: The Draft Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights' [2008] *Human Rights Law Review*, vol. 8, issue 4, p. 622.

4 Langford, (n 3) 6.

5 Mahon, (n 23) 622.

6 Vandenberg & Vandenhoe, (n 26) 208.

7 Mahon, (n 23) 623.

8 *ibid.*

9 Vandenberg & Vandenhoe, (n 22) 210-11.

10 *ibid* 216-17.

11 Langford (n 3) 7.

Different approaches to the human rights did not only resulted in two distinct covenants but also resulted in two different enforcement mechanisms for each of them. While an optional protocol embracing a compulsory periodic reporting procedure, an interstate complaint procedure, a friendly settlement procedure as well as an individual complaint procedure was granted to the ICCPR, the ICESCR was only endowed with a periodic reporting procedure until 2008.¹

The periodic reporting system is the only compulsory monitoring procedure for all state parties of the ICESCR. In other words, submitting a comprehensive report, within two years of the entry into force of the ICESCR and after that every five years is the only duty of the state party. The reports are about the measures taken by the state for the enjoyment of the ESCR and about the progress made in the enjoyment of these rights. These reports are examined by the state representatives and the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in a meeting. Finally, the CESCR gives recommendations to the state and if it is needed, can arrange financial assistance from other organizations to assist with the realisation of the rights.² Therefore, only bequeathing the ICESCR with the periodic reporting system because of the traditional view regarding the ESCR as unjusticiable left the covenant weak and vulnerable in comparison with its sibling covenant. However, the significant changes brought by the optional protocol closed the historical gap between the sisters.³

First of all, the adoption of the optional protocol has changed the traditional view and persuaded the governments that social rights are also justiciable. By breaking down the sixty-years taboo, the protocol provided a very significant improvement in the protection of the ESCR. Accordingly, the first article of the OP guaranteed a complaint procedure for individuals.⁴ This is the second improvement that is as important as breaking the taboo because as Kaime stated, to be effectively protected, individuals whose rights are guaranteed under the covenant must have an access to the protection mechanisms when their rights are violated or under the risk.⁵ In spite of the discussions in the working group on the selective approach and thanks to the last-minute attack of Pakistan and Algeria to include the right to self determination, a comprehensive approach for all the rights enunciated in the covenant adopted by the OP.

In addition to its communication procedure, the OP-ICESCR includes two other mechanisms in its scope; inquiry procedure and inter-state complaint procedure. 'The inter-state complaints procedure, regulated by article 10, is an opt-in procedure'⁶ which means that the two sides, the complaining and the defending state, should declare that they recognise the competence of the Committee in the case of an inter-state communication.⁷ Another significant improvement brought by the OP is the inquiry procedure which is regulated with article 11 stipulating that the CESCR may investigate a situation in a state party when it receives reliable information about a grave or systematic violation.⁸ It is important because it gives an opportunity for the committee to unveil the state violations which are not declared on periodical reports. The inquiry procedure is an opt-in procedure as well. Besides these, for the full realization of economic, social and cultural rights the protocol regulates the interim measures under article 5 and the international assistance and cooperation under article 14. Based on article 5, the committee can request the state to take interim measures in order to prevent irreversible damage to the victim or victims of the claimed violation.⁹ Additionally, the protocol contributes to the realization of the ESCR by providing international assistance and cooperation. According to article 14, with the consent of the state party, the committee can transmit the issue to various UN institutions to get advice, recommendation and helps. In addition, the article includes the establishment of a trust fund to provide financial and technical assistance to the state parties. As the protocol stated, it is being implemented to contribute "to building national capacities in the area of economic, social and cultural rights in the context of the protocol".¹⁰

Conclusion

1 Thoko Kaime, 'Whose Rights are They Anyway? A Critical Analysis of the International Supervision Mechanisms for Economic, Social and Cultural Rights' (ZAMLII) <<http://www.unza.zm/zamlii/comment/zj/v3706.html>> accessed 02.02.2014.

2 Odello & Statzu (n 2) 25.

3 Kaime, (n 54).

4 The Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, (2008), article 1.

5 Kaime, (n 54).

6 Langford, (n 3) 27.

7 The Optional Protocol to the ICESCR, article 10.

8 The Optional Protocol to the ICESCR, article 11.

9 The Optional Protocol to the ICESCR, article 5.

10 The Optional Protocol to the ICESCR, article 14.

Last February, Uruguay opened the door for the world to realize an ideal by providing the tenth ratification of the ICESCR Optional Protocol. Although the protocol was adopted on 10 September 2008, it was waiting for the ratifications of ten states to be entered into force. After the ratification of Uruguay, the protocol finally entered into force on 5 May 2013 and a dream came true after a long time.

The new enforcement mechanism brought by the optional protocol indicates a significant step in human rights protection. It can be said that for the first time since the Universal Human Rights Declaration was adopted, all the human rights become equal under international human rights law. By allowing individuals to lodge a complaint to the international community when their rights are violated, the new mechanism enabled the protection of fundamental social rights such as the right to food, the right to health and the right to work under international law.

The most important aspect that the optional protocol succeeded to bring forward was proving the full justiciability of the social rights. As a result, the International Covenant on the Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on the Civil and Political Rights, which has been enforced by the similar mechanisms for about forty years, are at the same level now. In other words the ICESCR caught up with his sister about forty years later.

However, the long process which started in 1990 and continued with lengthy discussions has not finished yet. In addition to Uruguay; Argentina, Spain, Ecuador, Mongolia, Bolivia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Slovakia, El Salvador and Portugal have ratified the protocol. But more states should ratify it to make the protocol reached its desired aim. As more states ratify the protocol worldwide, victim protection will become more significant and attainable on international level.

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Revisiting the Issue of Interdisciplinarity and Disciplinary Distinctions in Social Sciences

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Abstract

Interdisciplinarity depicts a theoretical and pedagogical approach and a set of academic practices that has been increasingly more popular and widespread. Being more than a general term describing theoretical, pedagogical and institutional activities, interdisciplinarity has radically altered the conception of disciplinary distinctions and caused various disciplines to redefine their symbolic and methodological boundaries. Moreover, academic communities are on the way of changing their symbolic and institutional territories, very solidly defined at times, upon influence of interdisciplinarity. This article focuses on the concept of interdisciplinarity with respect to the relatively long history of disciplinary distinctions and attempts to critically analyze the various definitions of and problematic points regarding the concept.

Keywords: Interdisciplinarity, Disciplinary Distinctions, Postmodernism, Social Sciences, Methodology.

Introduction

Interdisciplinarity, when it first emerged as a concept, simply described a more efficient method of education by bringing together the methods and knowledge of different disciplines. However, this approach led to the questioning of the epistemological assumptions of different disciplines and ways of acquiring knowledge and, through the very perspectives it provided, led to a radical set of transformations. Moreover, interdisciplinarity has become almost a keyword not only in terms of academics of today, but also in the business world and in different professional fields. With interdisciplinary programs that are becoming increasingly common in universities and interdisciplinary approaches that are increasingly influential and important in different academic practices, interdisciplinarity has become a hallmark of contemporary education and approaches.

However, we see that the term is often used to create a conceptual confusion and is simply perceived as a side-by-side introduction of different areas of expertise. On the other hand, it is also true that the concept of discipline notion tends to define a particular specialty or specialization practice and, in particular, to create 'disciplinary disciplines' with the same specialization practice on the institutional level. This is a fairly accurate observation especially in areas such as cultural studies or communication that have begun to take root in the institutional sense. However, when the basic rationale of interdisciplinarity is understood, it would be clear that this is only a seemingly contradiction, that interdisciplinarity is not merely a discipline of different disciplines, which is to bring the boundaries of these disciplines together. In this relatively long historical light of the division of social and human sciences into objective disciplines, this paper aims to problematize interdisciplinarity, to reveal how interdisciplinarity emerges and to reveal the theoretical implications of interdisciplinarity, which is a concrete practice of interrogating traditional disciplinary distinctions.

Disciplinary Distinctions in Social Sciences and the Rise of Interdisciplinarity

Discipline is conceptually related directly to the notions of hierarchy and power. The discipline that derives from the word *disciplina* in Latin refers to a kind of master-apprentice relation in the learning process and necessarily implies a specialized and valued knowledge that some have and some do not possess (Moran, 2010: 2). Discipline speaks of a certain degree of coherence in the sense that it has been "encased in stainless steel" as Frank (1988: 100) says. However, the etymological effort for the concept of discipline, of course, hardly provides us with an understanding of the epistemological and ontological assumptions of the concept, its place in the modern knowledge creation process and its institutional background. In order to understand these structures, it is necessary to look at the basis on which the distinctions between disciplines occur. In this sense, it is useful to return to one of the most popular and basic texts on the emergence of disciplinary approaches and distinctions between disciplines. The 1996 report of the Gulbenkian Commission, which imposes an

ambitious mission of restructuring social sciences (Wallerstein, 1996), is in fact a late manifestation of the embodied interdisciplinary tendency in social sciences. This manifesto, which rejects disciplinary divisions, European universalism and methodological positivism altogether, is trying to reinforce a belief that scientific knowledge can be combined on a pluralistic basis. The report basically follows the historical distinction between the natural and social sciences, helping to keep track of the disciplinary crisis that social sciences have faced today. It is observed that the distinction between the disciplines of social sciences in the period of 1850-1945 has strengthened both in the sense of the dominant science paradigm as well as in the institutional sense. This is also the period when social sciences completely purify itself from the idiographic historical roots. Disciplines of different social sciences (such as economics, political science, and sociology), which define themselves on a nomothetic basis, are in need of finalization by emphasizing a number of disciplinary divisions among themselves, which are specific to their fields (Wallerstein, 1996: 31). We can say that the process of building these disciplinary boundaries, which have been successfully established in both institutional and paradigmatic sense, has been dragged after the 1945s.

Several different tendencies are striking in the period after World War II. Especially after 1960, in social sciences the intellectual boundaries between different disciplines become increasingly unclear, but a relative resistance to this obscurity in institutional sense is observed (Wallerstein, 2004: 23). Secondly, there was a gradual disappearance of the differences in intellectual spheres dealing with the Western and the non-Western world. Another point is that as the interdisciplinary distinction becomes unclear, the culture gains an increasingly decisive role as an area of study. Moreover, with the "cultural turn" which "encompasses a wide array of new theoretical impulses coming from fields formerly peripheral to the social sciences" that emphasize the "causal and socially constitutive role of cultural processes and systems of signification" (Steinmetz, 1991: 1-2) the paradigm of cultural studies has had a significant role in dissolving of disciplinary boundaries.

We observe that this process, which begins with field studies and gradually takes the form of methodological and epistemological sharing of different disciplines, is not simply a sharing of information. It is possible to explain the effect of interdisciplinary studies with the changing definition of theory. Nowadays, without any restrictive definition in human and social sciences, the 'theory' does not refer to discipline-based forms as it used to be. Today, with the intense influence of the interdisciplinary approach, the theory refers to a "combination of some specific kinds of theorizing that have acquired a metadisciplinary universal status" (John, 1996: 29). Post-structuralism, feminism, semiotics, psychoanalysis are examples that can be given to these forms.

The history of the idea of being sensitive and open to very different areas, which are the basic principles of interdisciplinarity, can be dated back to Antiquity. We see that in ancient times there is a belief that true knowledge can only be obtained by feeding from very different areas of expertise. For example, Aristotle (1952: 161) stated that a well-educated person should not restrict himself to a specific field, he must feed and acquire skills from all sources of life. However, it should be noted that interdisciplinarity is a modern concept as it is operational today and is directly related to the concept of modern university. Thus, interdisciplinarity is a movement, a set of practices and an approach, which, as mentioned earlier, occurs in response to and after the disciplinary separations that became increasingly evident in the Western world in the 19th century.

Interdisciplinarity is often defined by reference to the limitations of a particular discipline at the analysis level and the establishment of knowledge on the basis of reciprocity. For example, according to a widespread definition, interdisciplinary studies refer to a process of solving an issue or problem that is too complicated or too comprehensive to be adequately addressed by a single discipline or area of expertise (Klein and Newell, 1998: 3). However, this definition does not explain the methodological properties of the concept but rather talks about its functions. Obviously, exploiting the concepts and methods of different disciplines itself does not make a research interdisciplinary. In the words of Stember (1998: 341), the interdisciplinary approach involves the integration of knowledge produced by different disciplines on a particular subject. But this integration does not simply mean assembling. The information, concepts, tools, and rules used by different disciplines should be integrated in a way that after this process much more analysis power would be uncovered from their respective totals. It is this methodological maneuver that gives strength to interdisciplinarity. In this sense, it is necessary to point out the difference between multidisciplinary and interdisciplinarity. While multidisciplinary refers to bringing together different disciplines without expecting them to intersect on a well-defined matrix (Cluck 1980: 68), interdisciplinarity denotes a process necessarily involving a unifying interaction (Klein 2000). In this sense, the elements of a multidisciplinary approach may complement each other or intersect, but the communication between these disciplines is assumed to be

minimal (Hanisch and Vollman, 1983). Because there is no real integration between these disciplines, the multidisciplinary process does not create an epistemological or methodological change or difference in these disciplines.

When one of the main sources of interdisciplinarity is thought to be pedagogical, the inevitable link between interdisciplinary research and education emerges. Along with the question of disciplinary boundaries, one of the main objectives of interdisciplinary education is to develop critical thinking. In the context of interdisciplinarity, this is only possible with ability to make a transition between cognitive and theoretical structures of the disciplines and to compare and contrast their methodological principles in their different areas of research. Bradbeer (1999: 382) stated that the three main problems encountered in the provision of interdisciplinarity in education is being able to develop an interdisciplinary approach, sufficient understanding of the possibilities that disciplines have within themselves and synthesizing different disciplines. These problems are becoming more complicated when the epistemological preconceptions and discourses of different disciplines and the educational strategies and traditions of these disciplines are considered. If we go back to the differences between multidisciplinary and interdisciplinarity, we can better understand how critical these differences are in interdisciplinarity. The fundamental difference of interdisciplinarity from multidisciplinary, that is, the ability to intersect different disciplines on the basis of a well-defined matrix, requires the observation of these epistemological and pedagogical differences and the integration of these differences in the general framework of the interdisciplinary approach. In this case, interdisciplinarity in this context is far beyond bringing together different disciplines; it aims to unify them in a coherent whole. As a result of both institutional developments and interdisciplinarity, we observe that many interdisciplinary perspectives are disciplines of their own (e.g. archeology, cultural studies, communication sciences, urban studies, historic preservation).

However, a seemingly paradoxical situation with the observation of 'disciplined interdisciplinary spheres' arises as a result of the criticism of interdisciplinarity. These criticisms that focus on the disappearance of the disciplinary boundaries and the popularization of interdisciplinarity, particularly agree on the disappearance of the historically founded methodological criteria and the ambiguity of the traditional fields. Abbott (2001: 121) speaks of an increasingly apocalyptic point of view at the academy. In the academic world, which is shaped by this point of view, professors of English language are doing anthropology and calling it cultural studies, economists are doing sociology and calling it family economics. Clifford (2005: 31) made a similar observation that in recent years there has been a sort of "disciplinary disarray" in which "things fall apart" and the "center cannot hold". In this mess, he says, cultural studies dominate the academic world. It should be noted, however, that such criticisms are, in a sense, aimed at the interdisciplinarity approaches at the extreme poles. There is also the opinion in the view of advocacy of interdisciplinarity that does not prefer establishing a duality between disciplinarily and interdisciplinarity or denying disciplinarity altogether but claim that these are complementary elements. It should also be noted that this approach argue that any attempt to protect disciplinary boundaries as such tend to neglect the complicated relationship between knowledge and power. Kelley (1997: 21) argues that we can not escape from disciplinary approaches because we are shaped by a set of disciplinary traditions, and that interdisciplinarity reinforces the position of disciplines at the center of the modern problem of knowledge. Hence, interdisciplinarity still operates within an academic language, which, while forming its own paradigm and discourse, is also influenced and necessarily shaped by disciplinary boundaries.

Some Problems of Interdisciplinarity

Although the interdisciplinarity is becoming increasingly popular and emerging as a defining paradigm of contemporary research processes, we can see that the paradigmatic and discursive differences and distances created by the disciplinary distinction embody itself in institutional sense. Especially the research, performance and promotion criteria based on the traditional disciplinary distinctions constitute the foundational basis of academic community that sustains its influence and protects its boundaries. We can easily observe that the interdisciplinarity largely influence the criteria based on disciplinary distinctions and the traditional academic community concept. This effect threatens the boundaries of academic communities, while at the same time it tends to change the relationship between the communities. Becher and Huber (1990) find that there is a hierarchical relationship between academic communities and that 'pure' sciences or natural sciences stand in a hierarchically higher place than the social sciences. Cole's (1992) explanation of which variables this hierarchy built on would help us to observe the influence of interdisciplinarity. The most important and relevant variables are high degree of quantification, methodological and theoretical compromises within and among academic communities, and a verifiable set of predictions based on theories (Cole, 1992: 107). Clearly, with the widespread adoption of the interdisciplinary approach, these features that are attributed to the pure sciences are increasingly being questioned. The

tendency to quantify has been replaced by the widespread consensus on the significant contribution of qualitative research. The direct effect of this is the threatening of the methodological and theoretical reconciliation between and within academic communities in pure sciences. Similarly, social sciences which have tended to be nomothetic and expected to be located in a high place in this hierarchy have gradually felt the need for the contribution of the idiographic human sciences. Hence, interdisciplinarity has not only directly affected the hierarchy between pure sciences and academic communities of other sciences, but also directly influenced the hierarchical positioning of academic communities in these two spheres. On the other hand, the impact of the interdisciplinarity on the relationship between academic communities significantly influences the basic academic practices of different specializations. Elzinga (1987) has already identified this phenomenon for the Western world in the 1980s and has attributed increasingly project-oriented academic activities to the reduction of disciplinary distinctions. The activities that are increasingly appreciated in the academic world are project activities (Elzinga, 1987: 16), which develop in accordance with the needs of economic centers and significant problems identified by different centers. While not being the subject of this paper, the overriding importance of project activities might result in the fact that academic communities would show less interest in dealing with basic epistemological and ontological problems and develop theoretical analysis that rely on practice.

Academic disciplines draw their boundaries and become regulatory systems through a number of institutions such as universities, research centers, associations, scholarship institutions, and academic journals. These regulatory systems can be conceptualized as cognitive systems that improve their vocabulary and cultural systems that contain norms and values about how to work on problems (Buanes and Jentoft, 2009: 448). These organizing, cognitive and cultural systems are disciplines since they are dealing with the subject from a particular perspective and generating a set of principles and methods (methodologies) on how to work on it. However, as Buanes and Jentoft (2009: 449) have noted following an analogy they have established with political systems, academic disciplines can take on a variety of forms ranging from very loosely structured 'anarchies' to very rigid hierarchically organized systems. In the same conceptualization, loosely structured disciplines that do not have a hegemonic paradigm are defined at an immature stage. Merton's idea that sociology reaches very few conclusions since it has many different areas of research refers to this 'immaturity' of sociology discipline in this sense (DiMaggio, 1997, cited in Buanes and Jentoft, 2009: 449). In other words, when we look at the concept of discipline in this way with an evolutionist scheme, it is seen that one of the basic conditions of producing a cumulative scientific knowledge is possible through the disciplines which are perceived as regulatory, cognitive and cultural systems and imagined as closed systems. The basic question is how the interdisciplinarity that is supposed to contradict this kind of scheme and which is supposed to wrap the foundations of this fiction will provide cumulative knowledge production. This is a pedagogical question, including the transfer of knowledge as much as it is production. The absence of paradigm, or the absence of a particular method, which is often put into interdisciplinarity, is in fact just the criticism developed on the basis of this disciplinary tradition and its basic principles.

A fundamental trend observed in these criticisms is a parallelism between the postmodern approach and the interdisciplinary approach. This parallelism lies on the fact that the two approaches question the legitimacy of disciplinary distinctions. The fact that postmodernism is against the disciplinary distinctions or has a "radical interdisciplinary character" (Rosenau, 1992: 6) do not make postmodernism interdisciplinary. It should be noted that there are many differences between interdisciplinarity and postmodernism both in terms of methodology and epistemology. If a postmodern methodology is mentioned, it can only be understood by the notion of schizoanalysis and a semiotic multicentric approach that operates within the framework of this concept (Murphy, 1989). Along with the idea that the fact can have multiple meanings synchronically and there is no ultimate reading of a 'text', postmodern tradition does not conform the concept of reality and conventional sense of methodology. Szostak (2007) compares postmodernist and interdisciplinary positions in terms of different aspects in his valuable work. For example, while postmodernist position advocates that there can be no scientific method to produce claims of universal truth, the disciplinary position merely asserts that the strengths and weaknesses of different methods are present, and thus that each discipline might contribute to an integrative approach (Szostak, 2007: 66). At the same time, the interdisciplinary position does not explicitly state the radical positions of postmodernists that prefer intuition over reason and reject the whole idea of progress, or it can not adopt a radical attitude to this area (Szostak, 2007: 72). One of the most distinctive features that separates the interdisciplinary position from the postmodernist position is the fact that the interdisciplinary approach, as mentioned earlier, believe in an integrative approach that can produce claims of truth. Moreover, the belief that amalgam, which can be formed as a result of specific contributions of different disciplines during integration and disintegration, is more capable than that of individual methods in the discovery of reality is basically separating these two positions.

Conclusion

The main difficulty in using interdisciplinary approaches in both research and pedagogical areas is due to the confusion of the concept with multidisciplinary. Another difficulty arises from the implementation of integration which fundamentally differs it from multidisciplinary. First of all, this process, which is based on the methodologically and epistemologically consistent analysis of different disciplines, the use of different tools specifically designed for the subject area and the establishment of the basic principles of the interdisciplinary field, undoubtedly presents its own difficulties. These difficulties continue even for the more entrenched interdisciplinary fields such as communication sciences, cultural studies, or urban studies. Another problem related to this point is that the social sciences, as explained in the first sub-section, defines a nomothetic field of research historically. In addition to the difficulty of establishing the interdisciplinarity in fields such as sociology, economics and political science, which are historically described in the nomothetic field, there are difficulties created by intersections of those fields with the disciplines of philosophy and history which are historically described in the idiographic realm. This creates new challenges for disciplines such as women's studies, comparative literature, cultural history research, and a host of other problems related to disciplinary boundaries. One of the fundamental criticisms of interdisciplinarity is the ambiguity or limitlessness of the methodology, but in fact, it becomes a 'non-disciplinary discipline' as a result of the interdisciplinary integrative approach as we have seen from the differences between interdisciplinarity and postmodernism. Therefore, the goal of these criticisms should be read more in terms of relatively less-developed interdisciplinary approaches.

Another radical transformation brought about by interdisciplinarity is, as mentioned, felt in the concept of academic community and in its interrelated institutional and structurally embodied relations. As noted, this is particularly a question of increasing importance of project activities in academic performance and knowledge production. This is of course a positive development in terms of questioning the strict boundaries between academic communities and their hierarchical relations, and the negative effects of these boundaries on the realization of the meritocracy. However, the dependence of the awards of academic performance and academic practice on project execution leads to the gradual depreciation of theoretical studies specific to their own fields of different disciplines and relatively well-established disciplinary fields. The production of cumulative scientific information is not merely an issue of problem-solving. The mentioned process tends to limit scientific knowledge to this issue, and the role of interdisciplinarity in this process is remarkable.

When interdisciplinarity is perceived in superficial terms, it is simply defined as cooperation of different disciplines. We are often faced with such perceptions in project activities and in pedagogical processes. In fact, interdisciplinarity is a process in which conventional disciplinary distinctions are questioned and, as explained in the present work, it refers to a process of 'non-disciplinary discipline' which generates an integrative approach rather than new disciplinary boundaries. We can easily observe good examples to this process in deep-rooted interdisciplinary fields such as cultural studies, communication sciences, archeology, urban studies, etc. So an interdisciplinary field will contribute positively to the production of cumulative scientific knowledge as a 'non-disciplinary discipline', as long as it questions the knowledge-power relations operates within the structuring of disciplinary boundaries and is being embodied through institutional and symbolic formations.

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Reflections on the Environmental Impact Assessment Processes in Turkey

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Abstract

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) process is a procedure that the environmental impacts of decisions on people, fauna and flora, soil, weather, climate, land, cultural heritage, etc. are taken into account before the decisions are made. Moreover, the EIA process has gradually been evolved to cover social aspects. However, Turkish legislation and implementation of EIA process seem to have significant problems when it comes to assessment of decisions on social aspects. This article will offer a critical account on the EIA process in Turkey with regard to the analysis of social impacts. The study will especially focus on whether the EIA reports in Turkey deal with the medium and long-term social impacts of the decisions in real terms and whether these reports have practical benefits in decision making processes. Moreover, the author will specifically ask whether EIA reports in Turkey assess the investments in terms of usefulness and sustainability. The main argument in this study is that those significant merits of the EIA process directly depend on the strength, efficiency and applicability of democratic participation mechanisms.

Keywords: Environmental Impact Assessment, Turkey, Social Impact Assessment, Democratic Participation, Sustainability

Introduction

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) process is a procedure that the environmental impacts of decisions on people, fauna and flora, soil, weather, climate, land, cultural heritage, etc. are taken into account before the decisions are made. EIA is a process that has been evolved into its current state almost in the last four decades. There has been a growing interest in environmental issues, which focuses on the notion of sustainability and reaching to goals of economic development by establishing a harmony with environment. This awareness was reflected in legislation as well to regulate different activities in accordance with principles of environmental protection and prevention of associated problems. The role of European Commission in this process is decisive and the EIA process has been a major consequence and realization of this environmental awareness. Although there are many definitions existing in literature, the following definition is operational for our purposes:

EIA is a process, a systematic process that examines the environmental consequences of development actions, in advance. The emphasis, compared with many other mechanisms for environmental protection, is on prevention. Of course, planners have traditionally assessed the impacts of developments on the environment, but invariably not in the systematic, holistic and multidisciplinary way required by EIA (Glasson et al., 2005: 2).

Thus EIA as a systematic and holistic method not only specifies the possible environmental impacts of the projects but also deal with the ways to take measures to prevent these impacts. As Gilpin (2000: 4-5) states EIA not only investigates the "likely effects of a proposed policy, program, or project on the environment" but also it offers "alternatives to the proposal" and "measures to be adopted to protect the environment."

This paper aims to examine the environmental impact assessment processes in Turkey, which are regarded as one of the most effective tools globally in reducing environmental problems. EIA applications in Turkey will be examined in terms of legal processes and difficulties in implementation, and efforts will be made to understand how the EIA process has undergone a major transformation. In this context, one of the main objectives of the study is to explain the link between EIA processes and social factors. The EIA process appears to be a product of a sustainable development framework and a human-focused approach to the concept of ecology. Being also an academician, the author is a social impact assessment expert who has participated in various levels of EIA processes since 2000 in Turkey. Through this experience and

knowledge, it is examined how stakeholders perceive the problems in relevant legislation and difficulties in implementation in the EIA processes in this study. While addressing the structural problems in the EIA processes in Turkey, the author also examines the social awareness to the environment and the effects that this problem has on the EIA issues, which are as important as these structural problems. The main assumption of the study is that EIA processes in countries such as Turkey where social awareness to environmental problems are mostly perfunctory. In this context, even if the legislation on EIA processes is formulated flawlessly, structural problems arise in the implementation of these processes.

The fact that the EIA processes in Turkey are not developed through adequate environmental awareness does not mean that only the cultural and social structure can be blamed for the deficiencies and problems in the implementation and relevant legislation. Today, many environmental problems are resulted from the fact that policy makers tend to prioritize development in their choices between environment and development. The results of such decisions lead to environmental and social problems cannot be compensated in the future. Waiting for increased environmental awareness in the solution of ecological problems will lead to a number of problems that cannot be solved in the middle and long term. At this point, instead of policies that prioritize development, an understanding based on principles of sustainable environment must become dominant. It is necessary to examine the structure of the perception that is common in member countries of European Union that environmental constraints and individual interests are parallel phenomena. This would enable us to reveal the facts that prevent the formation of such perception in Turkey and to think about which the steps should be taken to form such a perception.

The Basic Principles of EU Environmental Policies

There is no doubt that for European Union politicians, environmental problems are far more critical than the politicians of neighboring countries who are not members of the Union. The growing awareness of the environment in the EU countries, the increasingly stronger green movement, and the fact that these countries play a leading role in the international arena cause environmental problems to take more place on the public agenda. In member states of the European Union, environmental sensitivities play a decisive role in all political decisions taken about everyday life.

Increasing numbers of disasters such as floods, droughts, forest fires, the increase of carbon dioxide emissions from houses and transportation vehicles, the decrease in quality of life due to pollution and noise especially in urban settlements, and many other environmental problems have become increasingly part of everyday life in Europe as well as other industrialized regions. The fact that the European Union exhibits a minimum of a common political attitude against environmental problems stems from the existence of environmental problems that have become part of everyday life. On the other hand, the cost of eliminating environmental problems threatens the sustainability of economic activities. The most basic condition of economic sustainability has become environmental problems. In this sense, it has become compulsory for the countries of the Union to designate a common environmental policy or to develop a common view towards the environment.

As the scale of all economic sectors such as agriculture, industry, energy, tourism, transportation grows, the environmental problems increase and these problems undermine the economic activities that create them. Today, many researchers are clearly demonstrating a deep relationship between the economy and the environment. However, EU and European countries' policies and awareness towards environmental issues have also evolved from total negligence to an accentuated emphasis on environmental issues. For example, as Jordan (2005: 3) states the word "environment" was not found in the 1957 Treaty of Rome. He maintains that with the increasing environmental awareness in the late 1960s and early 1970s, the member states of European Economic Community have begun to work on environmental issues for better European integration especially in the 1972 United Nations Environment Conference in Stockholm. Consequently, European Commission first prepared the Programme of Action on Environment in 1973. Since then the member countries' emphasis on environment have increased both in terms of legislation and implementation of basic principles.

Although created by environmental sensitivities, the European Union's understanding of sustainable economy and environment is an understanding based entirely on the individual's growing needs and based on economic development. The acceptance of this political point of view by all the member states is primarily due to concern that economic competition should be fair. The environmental problems we face today must undoubtedly be addressed on a global scale beyond the national borders. However, the commonality of the views of the member states of a nuclear activity is related to the fact that the thorium clouds will not require any visa to cross the national borders between France and Britain, as well as a standard in the production costs of energy and creation of a competitive economic space in unity. This partnership does

not mean only the protection of a cleaner environment and ecological equilibrium, but also the creation of a common and competitive market.

Moreover, the freedom of movement of capital, goods and people is mainly based on fair competition conditions to be provided within the European Union countries. In short, what makes the European Union a political, economic, cultural and environmental union is itself in the conditions of fair competition. In order for different political approaches to environmental problems not to be obstacles to fair competition, it is necessary to create a common environmental policy, common approaches and a social demand to support this policy. Today, the rise of the environmentalist social movements in the European Union countries in parallel with each other is based on a common market understanding as well as a movement to prevent environmental problems. Such a social demand is necessary to legitimize the additional costs that are created by the means to be used to solve environmental problems and which, in the end, must be paid by the citizens. This environmental demand will create common policies within the European Union that will be developed against environmental problems. These common policies, while raising environmental standards, will be the founders of fair competition as well. In short, environmental problems are caused by the unlimited needs of the individual. Individuals created an environmental perception at the point where the environmental problems threatened their daily lives. This perception has made it a political imperative to establish certain environmental standards. These standards ensure fair competition conditions that form the basis of the European Union. We can call this cycle a cycle of environmental awareness and economic interest.

When we look at the basic principles of the EU environmental policy, it is possible to see the cycle we are trying to convey above. The primary principle of the European Union's environmental policy is integration. Within this guideline, sustainable development is only possible with the harmonization of environmental protection measures with all the policies of the European Union. Integration requires that development be within the boundaries where it has not destroyed itself. With the integration principle, the individual is encouraged to make a request to exchange their short-term interests with their long-term interests. As Musu (2008: 3-4) maintains integration principle aims to integrate different dimensions to environmental policy: "legal, administrative, economic, and participatory." He asserts that the main aim of this principle is to "compare different possible instruments so as to use them in the most efficient way." The second principle is preventive principle, and this principle again emerges as one of the basic principles of sustainable development. Economic sustainability is more important than economic profitability in all circumstances. This principle, which aims to prevent environmental problems before they are created, excludes a self-destructive economic understanding. The cost of such exclusion requires citizens to pay the cost or walk in order to be able to see a beautiful landscape. An environmental policy, where everything is made easily accessible, is incompatible with the preventive principle. In order to eat in front of a beautiful landscape, it is necessary to walk or to pay a large amount of money. In both cases, the landscape will be less affected by human factors and preserved. Moreover, the preventive principle calls for ways to make an investment without causing the problem, rather than creating a problem and then solving it. The third principle is precaution principle. Precautionary principle emphasizes the unpredictability of environmental impacts. If there is a suspicion that an activity will have a negative impact on the environment, it aims to prevent the activity, even if it is not scientifically proven. The fourth principle is the "polluter pays" principle. If there is any damage occurred in any economic activity, the responsible party pay the costs of that particular activity. The last principle is the subsidiarity principle. This principle is based on the fact that the service is provided by the institution closest to the public. This principle, which places responsibility on local governments, emphasizes the complementary effect of the European Union. This principle, which states that local governments are responsible for environmental management, emphasizes the link between environmental issues and the social structure. However, this principle is also subject to many criticisms. As Glachant (2001: 13) maintains some interpreters consider this principle as having a weakening effect on EU environmental policy through which the EU's power on the scope of environmental issues could be restricted.

Environmental Impact Assessment processes have been the most basic environmental control agent that these principles have come to life. EIA processes can also be seen as the implementation area of these basic principles within the European Union. Even though these principles live with many agents in everyday life, EIA processes are the main source of these principles. It would be correct to say that these principles have shaped European Union EIA legislation in practice. As Löber (2011: 44) stated EIA has a novel approach to the environmental issues at hand:

EIA ... seek to overcome the vertical approach to environmental issues, i.e. the goal was to integrate environmental policies into other policy fields. They require that environmental issues be considered across all sectors; previously, problem solving

remained strictly within the borders of the addressed sectors. This vertical policy-style could not consider the environment as a whole, thus measures to solve one problem often had adverse effects on other environmental issues.

Moreover, the prerequisite for these principles to survive in EIA implementation is the public pressure to ensure that these principles are implemented correctly and are included in legislation. In order for this kind of public opinion to be formed within the framework of individual preferences, it is primarily necessary for the individual to develop a medium- and long-term perspective that prioritize environment over development. This is fundamental to determining the legal framework and the effectiveness of the EIA processes.

Some Problems of the EIA Processes in Turkey

The legal source of EIA processes in Turkey is the EIA directive, which has undergone 17 major and minor changes from 1993 to 2017 in total. According to a statement made by the Chamber of Environmental Engineers, the EIA directive, published in the European Union in 1985, has only been amended three times. This can even be seen as a proof of the perfunctory nature of the EIA processes in Turkey, which inevitably generates the lack of interest in fighting environmental problems and in environmental protection. When the concept of EIA first emerges in Turkey, it can be seen that the legal regulations in this area are far from aiming to balance the environment and the economy and to realize the basic principles we consider above. EIA first entered environmental legislation in August 1983 with Article 10 of the Environmental Law No. 2872. However, the EIA Regulation has been published only after 7 February 1993, almost 10 years later in various negligence and delays. With the provisional Article 3 of the first published Directive, the projects for which approval, license, permit, and expropriation decisions were taken before the enactment of EIA Regulation of February 1993 were exempted from the EIA process. A legal gap has been created for this 10-year delay: The projects of which the implementation projects have been approved, or a permit, license or approval or expropriation decision has been taken from competent authorities in accordance with the Environmental Legislation and other relevant legislation (or has been selected in accordance with the relevant legislation, activities taken) prior to 7 February 1993 were exempted from the EIA process.

Furthermore, when we look at the amendments made in the directive over the years, it is possible to say that the EIA directive has gradually moved away from the five principles we have listed above. The results of policies by political governments that make the EIA process an “obstacle” in front of the investor and interpret the environmental protection-use balance by prioritizing “use” principle are also consistent with the EIA statistics of the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization. The number of projects evaluated between 1993-2012, which had positive EIA decision was 2,792. The number of projects for which the EIA is not required decision is 39,649. The number of projects which had negative EIA decision is only 32. In this sense, the EIA processes have ceased to be processes that will provide the basic conditions of a sustainable ecology and a sustainable economy that will balance ecology and economy in both practical and legal senses. This is confirmed by the European Union official report of 2016 (European Union, 2016). Moreover as many commentators point out, there are important problems related with the qualifications of the people and establishments that prepare EIA reports in Turkey (2010: 132). There are also many shortcomings in the preparation of the EIA reports which conflict with the requirements and methodology of the EIA process. As Ürker (2012: 73) states Environmental Consultancy companies, especially those who prepare EIA reports and complete the related procedures, can prepare reports in a very short time with the encouraging of the related ministries, by copy paste plagiarism without even seeing the project area. The Ministry of Environment and Urbanization, which has the authority to supervise and make decisions about the relevant processes and reports, encourages the urgent realization of the projects rather than putting emphasis on the issue of the protection of environment.

Showing many indications of the imbalance between economy and ecology, Turkey has recently become one of the countries increasing the rate of pollution the fastest, while attaining high figures in terms of economic indicators. However, this phenomenon cannot be said to increase environmental awareness. The number of individuals in Turkey who have to make a choice between economy and ecology and prioritize ecological concerns is very limited. Such inquiries are widespread among environmental groups that are marginalized by the vast majority of the population. The problems arising from the fact that natural equilibrium is sacrificed to economic growth have been concern only to a limited number of environmentalists, sensitive groups, experts, etc. The reasons for this situation is populist policies as well as excessive specialization in the academy and the fact that Turkey does not have a economic and social structure enough to support strong environmentalist political attitude. It is not possible to talk about a strong environmentalist movement or a formation that will bring ecological problems to the public agenda in Turkey. Though there are small local groups that sometimes take a stand against specific projects, they cannot form a national agenda in general, or the national level of environmental

awareness they have created is very short. It is possible to relate these irresponsibility or lack of interest in ecological problems to many factors in Turkish society. However, the most fundamental of these is the fact that due to high level of economic development differences between regions, ecological awareness cannot take precedence over concerns of economic development. According to the results of Kadir Has University Social-Political Trends Survey held in 2016, Turkey's biggest problem is seen as terrorism.¹ Unemployment and high cost of living are also at the top of the problems that are seen as important. Interestingly, environmental problems have not even taken place as a category in this research. Even this observation reveals the inadequacy of environmental awareness in the Turkish society. In addition, 71.7 percent of the respondents said that there was an economic crisis in Turkey. According to a research conducted by the Konsensus research company in 2017,² the percentage of respondents who regarded environmental problems as one of the most fundamental problems of Turkey is only 2%, and thus environmental problems seem to be the least important problems. Again in the same survey, unemployment is second with 40%, inequality in income distribution is fourth with a 23% and inflation / life cost is fifth with 21%.

These numbers suggest that when there are problems that are seen more vital by the society, a sufficient level of environmental awareness is not possible. In 1972 Stockholm Human Environment Conference, Indira Gandhi voiced a similar statement: "There are grave misgivings that the discussion on ecology may be designed to distract attention from the problems of war and poverty". And she continues: "Are not poverty and need the greatest polluters?"³ On October 30, 1984, a statement by the Minister of Culture and Tourism of the Republic of Turkey defended the same view: "Thinking about environmental problems to us is like necktie to a porter. Foreign experts say that if your income per capita is not at least \$ 7-8 thousand, thinking about environmental pollution is a luxury for you".⁴ Since 1972, it is not hard to predict that the biggest problem in India is still poverty. However, for Turkey, where per capita income is close to 10,000 dollars, it is not understandable that concern for environmental problems is still seen as luxury. In the last 33 years, we are still observing that environmental sensitivities are not sufficient in Turkey. In a country that is late in the process of industrialization and urbanization and having difficulties in the functioning of its political system, it can be seen natural that ecological problems are not regarded as one of the main problems. But this will inevitably lead to worrying problems in the long run. Duru (2013: 5) mentions the relationship between urbanization and the development of environmental awareness:

There are important links between the fact that we are late in the urbanization process ... and the underdevelopment of green movement in our country. From this point of view, it can be suggested that the problems arising from the coexistence of a large number of people in a small space recently begin to emerge. Topics such as traffic, garbage are only a problem on the agenda of one or two latest generations. In short, late emergence of such problems might be said to cause the delay in taking common action for solution and the emergence of strong environmentalist movements.

Thus, as many commentator states, "environmental concern is related to personal memory." (Hussey and Thompson, 2000: 3) The delayed urbanization and industrialization in Turkey has caused the rural to be always remembered with backwardness and the identification of industrial investments, bridges, dams and many urban facilities with modernity and development. This perception hinders the development of environmental consciousness that questions urban facilities in the long run. In Turkey, the analysis of the politicians' responses to the groups that oppose the projects that may cause environmental problems, or bring these projects to the public agenda is very illuminating. These responses are also an expression of the late urbanized and industrialized Turkish society, longing for cities with large, wide streets. It is not possible to expect children of a generation who used to live in villages without roads, carry patients to the hospitals on their back, work in candle light to show ecological awareness to a gigantic hydroelectric power plant or a major highway project. This perception of backwardness in Turkish society leads to the definition of EIA processes as meaningless and useless by the individuals.

Conclusion

The basic condition for the realization of European Union's five basic principles of EIA processes is the change of the individual's view of environmental problems. Unless the environmental demands of the individual are expressible, it seems very difficult to realize these five basic principles in both legal sense and practical sense. Increasing the awareness of

¹ <http://www.khas.edu.tr/news/1498>

² <http://www.konsensus.com.tr/turkiyerin-en-onemli-sorunlari>

³ <https://www.theguardian.com/global-development-professionals-network/2014/may/06/indira-gandhi-india-climate-change>

⁴ <http://www.cumhuriyetarsivi.com/katalog/192/sayfa/1984/11/10/7.xhtml>

individuals to environmental problems is the most fundamental condition that will bring EIA processes in Turkey out of its perfunctory state. Individuals' environmental demands will be both a challenging element for politicians, and create a basis for an environmental rationality for the private sector. Individuals involved in EIA processes and involved in these processes as an element of resistance with ecological sensitivities will lead the private sector to gain an environmental rationality. One or several EIA reports that are canceled as a result of social reactions would ensure that both political decision-makers and the private sector gain environmental awareness. In order to make people with medium- and long-term concerns for environment effective in EIA processes, it is necessary for environmental groups in Turkey to work on the current social problems of today and develop an approach dealing with local needs, not global ones. However, as we stressed earlier, due to Turkey's unique structural problems, explaining EIA processes solely through environmental issues or the protection of nature will make it difficult for individuals to adopt the principles of the process.

Participation in the EIA processes will increase as the EIA process is linked to the individual's daily life. Defining EIA processes as a solution to more local, more familiar problems such as poverty, shelter, and drought, instead of a distant, foreign issue, where people do not feel individual impacts, such as climate change would make the process more efficient and understandable for people. It can be said that nuclear power plant projects, urban transformation implementations, hydroelectric power plant constructions and mine exploration activities are increasingly faced with more social resistance in recent years in Turkey. But this reaction is far from being an expression of a general ecological resistance. It is clear that main concern of people who have taken action against the construction, mining and energy investments is more the damage to their vital sources and the intervention to their living spaces rather than the environmental problems associated with these projects. Similarly, the basic reason for the increasing involvement of the local people and the villagers in the EIA processes in recent years is also related with their more practical needs. The question of whether it is possible to create an individual that emphasizes ecological concerns from such resistance is an important question. The best way for making the citizens to understand that it is also economically beneficial to deal with ecological problems, even if not in the short run, is to make the EIA processes compatible with the five basic principles of the European Union.

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I wear Prada, because I want to.

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Abstract:

Previous studies on luxury consumption indicated that women may use luxury consumption as a self-promotion strategy during within-sex competitions, as these luxuries improve their advantages against same sex rivals for mates. Many of these studies rely on costly signalling and intra-sexual competition theory, and they suggest female intra-sexual competition in a mate attraction context triggers women's spending on luxury products. The focus of this paper is to understand the gender-related motivations, specifically for female consumers in the luxury market and to compare and contrast the new findings with the previous studies. The finding of this study demonstrates other motives in female luxury consumer behaviour rather than relationship, self-enhancement and competition.

Keywords: women, empowerment, motives, culture, luxury consumption, gender trait change

Introduction:

Over the past three decades, the luxury-brand industry has experienced unprecedented growth: the global market for personal luxury brands was estimated at €224 billion in 2015, delivering a healthy growth of 5% year on year (Bain and Company 2015). Female luxury consumers account for a big chunk of the luxury market, as they are willing to spend large sums of money on conspicuous luxuries, such as Louboutin shoes, Louis Vuitton purses, or Armani dresses (Chao and Schor, 1998; Stokburger-Sauer and Teichmann, 2011). American women acquire on average three new handbags each year (Bev et al, 2011), prominently flaunting designer brands such as Fendi, Gucci, Louis Vuitton, Marc Jacobs, Christian Dior, Prada, and Chanel (Nunes et al, 2010). In the United States alone, spending on luxury goods amounts to as much as \$525 billion per year (Bev and Zolenski 2011), with women's products accounting for over half of this consumption (D'Arpizio 2011). Given women's passion for pricey possessions, why do women desire luxury goods?

Previous studies show male and female luxury consumers demonstrate different motivations for purchasing luxury products and, therefore, may differ in terms of their value perceptions toward luxury brands (Tynan, McKechnie, and Chhuon 2010). Several researches have shown that men ostentatiously spend their money on luxury brands to signal their mate value to women; however, research on the motivations for female luxury consumption is rather scarce (Hudders, 2012; Wang and Griskevicius, 2014).

Hudders et al (2014) in their article, *The Rival Wears Prada*, investigated the Luxury Consumption as a Female Competition Strategy and concluded some interesting results which shows females have different attitudes and purposes toward the personal self-enhancing luxury products and the non-self-enhancing products. There are a number of studies which investigate female consumer buying behaviour in luxury shopping through an understanding of romantic relationships, as it's believed that luxury goods are known to serve an important function in relationships for men and, accordingly, that such goals may help to attract romantic partners (Griskevicius et al. 2007). This study's focus is to investigate what additional or alternative motives to romantic relationship, mate-guarding and signalling function may exist for female luxury shoppers when they spending their money on luxury products.

Theories

To understand the female motivations in buying luxury goods, various studies and researches have been conducted and some studies have relied on costly signalling and intra-sexual competition theory (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Miller, 2009; Nelissen and Meijers, 2011; Saad, 2007, 2011; Saad and Vongas, 2009; Sundie et al., 2011) to explain the females' motives

in luxury shopping by suggesting that female intra-sexual competition in a mate attraction context triggers women's spending on luxuries. Intrasexual competition occurs when individuals compete to gain access to limited resources that they do not want to share (Cox and Fisher, 2008). This involves same-sex competition for access to potential and desirable mates (Rosvall, 2011) and competition to retain a mate (Schmitt and Buss, 1996). Wang and Griskevicius (2014) found that women use luxury consumption as a mate retention strategy. More specifically, their studies indicate that women display luxuries to deter same sex others who are perceived as a threat towards a romantic relationship.

In addition to male retention strategy, signalling theory in this context indicates that women's luxury products function as a signalling system directed at other women who pose threats to their romantic relationships. Additional studies revealed that women use pricey possessions to signal that their romantic partner is especially devoted to them. (Griskevicius et al. 2007)

Men and women differ in the characteristics they pay attention to when selecting potential mates (Buss, 1999; Miller, 2000). Women tend to look for reliable men with high social status and good financial prospects, such that they mate with men who are both able and willing to invest their time and resources into a relationship (Buss, 1999).

These preferences are adaptive because they enable women to select a mate who will help them ensure the survival of their children, thereby increasing their inclusive fitness. Men, on the other hand, highly value youthfulness and physical attractiveness in women. These preferences evolved because these observable features signal fertility and reproductive potential, which are characteristics that can maximize the reproductive success of men via increased numbers of healthy children (Buss, 1999).

The bedrock of the findings above, is what is called 'gender role' which is a set of societal norms dictating the types of behaviours which are generally considered acceptable, appropriate, or desirable for people based on their actual or perceived sex or sexuality. The extension of the concept of gender roles on consumer behaviour results in conceptions of femininity and masculinity in purchasing products.

Research on gender differences in consumption generally states that the different life orientations of men and women influence their consumer behaviour. While men strongly follow agentic goals, that are, life goals directed toward task-oriented thinking and performance-motivated acting, women more strongly follow communal goals, that are, life goals directed toward social and emotional relationships with others (Meyers-Levy, 1988; Prakash, 1992). Research, however, has also recognized the fact that gender roles are becoming increasingly blurred. The changes in gender roles and the possible impact of that on consumer buying behaviour of luxury products is one of the main focuses of this research to investigate whether female luxury shoppers buy luxury products to compete with other females and to retain their partners or whether there are other underlying factors those have been ignored in many of the previous studies.

Many of such previous studies have the following in common: 1)They are mostly quantitative, 2)They are conducted in developed countries, 3)Females' age and cultural differences haven't been taken into account and 4)the dynamics and changes in sex-typing such as possessing more male traits haven't been fully investigated across the researches.

Methodology:

The need for a more comprehensive study across the various cultures and female age range to uncover more variables in females' motive in spending money on luxury products led this study toward a more in-depth study through a semi structured interview and qualitative study in four phases:

Phase one: Qualitative research in London luxury market

Phases two: Qualitative research in Tehran, Iran

Phase three: Qualitative research in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Phase four: Comparisons, analysis and conclusion

The focus of this paper is to identify what are the motivations behind female luxury shopping in addition to what was suggested in previous studies and whether the result of this study confirms the previous findings or not therefore, in order to answer the main question of this paper, qualitative research design was chosen to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations. It provides insights into the problem or helps to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research.

The data collection of phase one of this study was completed between May and August 2017. For an in-depth understanding of the intention female luxury shoppers, a qualitative research design has been selected. A semi structured interview which enabled females to answer the questions and express themselves freely was designed. There were around 20 questions asked in each interview in London and each interview took between 35 to 75 minutes. The sample was mostly selected through referral and personal contacts in London Fashion Shows, opening and launch of new luxury brands and shops. Females who took part in the interviews were between ages 20 to 52 and that was because no female above age 52 consented to be interviewed. In addition to interviewing 24 female luxury shoppers, a colleague put me in contact with an experiences personal shopper in Harrods which was very helpful in understanding the underlying motives of female in buying luxury products. All respondents were informed about the general aims of the study, their anonymity was guaranteed and all gave full consent. All interviews were recorded and transcribed mostly by myself and the manual coding system was used for data analysis purpose.

The interviews mainly focused on the purchases of personal fashion luxury products such as luxury sunglasses, handbags, jewelleryes and outfits rather than other luxury items such as cars, collectable items and mobile phones.

Result:

Brand image and following friends and celebrity trends were the most important variables mentioned by female shoppers across any ages. Respondent 5 (R5) who was 45 years mentioned:

"The reason I buy a piece of jewellery or a new luxury handbag is when I see someone that I know has a beautiful jewellery or handbag, I feel curious and I investigate the brand or the collection and I buy a similar or even nicer item [...] my friends are the source of information and motivation for me".

R5 she has no feeling of competition to anyone and sometimes she doesn't even tell her husband about her shopping and she mostly wear her new luxury goods when she goes out with her female friends or on her own as she feels better about herself and she feels she looks nicer.

R11, who buys at least one luxury fashion items every two weeks said:

"If I see a middle age lady wearing so many luxury items I think that lady is a successful career woman, I don't think her husband necessarily bought them for her [...] but if I see any female is wearing a lot of luxury items with a lot of logos on them and the lady has a lot of make up on her face, I feel a bit sad for her and I think she is lonely and looking for a partner rather than she is trying to secure her current relationship".

Sixteen of respondents mentioned they buy luxury fashion products because they believe items are well-made, beautiful and durable and they feel more confident wearing them. R11 said:

"when I buy a foundation for my face, it always gives me confidence when I buy it from Dior or Chanel rather than a high street brand such as Revlon or L'Oreal, maybe they are the same but I feel better when I buy a Chanel foundation, I have the same feeling toward my scarves".

R20 a lady in age 37 said:

"I found it very insulting when people think I buy luxury stuff to attract men, I have been working since I was 18 and now I can afford beautiful luxury stuffs, I buy them because I like them and because I can afford them, why is this so complicated to understand? I always wanted a Prada handbag, finally, I bought it because I could."

Some of the respondents admitted that when they wear luxury clothes they feel sexier and more confident and they agreed that they might look better for their partners but they didn't feel their personal relationship needed guarding by displaying their luxury items to other females.

R3 said:

"It is probably fair to say if I need to go to my husband's office I make sure I carry an expensive handbag and wear luxurious outfits [...] I want to make my husband proud and to do a bit of show off of his success".

Only two respondents, one in her late twenties and one in early twenties mentioned demonstrating luxurious items indicates a better relationship with their partners and as a result they felt other female don't dare to target their partners and to flirt with them.

E, the personal shop assistant in fashion department in Harrods who has been working in Harrods Fashion Department for fourteen years and in her current position, who had a great insight about why females buy luxury fashion products added:

"There are many reasons why females spend a lot of money on luxury clothes, most of the time because they feel better about themselves, their bodies, their images and their looks but mostly they buy luxury items in a habitual way, they never have shopped differently, most of our customers are females who come from rich families, they were born in rich families, married to another rich person and buying luxury items for them is exactly like buying non-luxury items from a high street department store by someone with a modest income level. They buy luxury items because that's the only way that they know to shop".

She continued:

"We have two types of customers; the common type in Harrods is like the one I mention earlier; very wealthy customers and the second types are customers who buy luxury as a reward to themselves or when they can afford it, most of the time they think about quality and value for money and they select the product very carefully, when they book an appointment with me or my colleagues, they always mention they want to look better or slimmer or posher and they only mention their partners when they think the partner might not like what they are buying and use statements such as 'my husband doesn't like snakeskin leather handbag or leather pants' but customers hardly mentions things that their partners like".

E thought now, more number of females buy luxury products just because of the quality and functionality of the products rather than buying them for attracting men or compete with other women. She said even Asian and Middle Eastern clients don't bring the husbands or partner for shopping as often as they use to in the past and they make the decision quicker and independently. She mentioned that luxury fashion producers added more items of clothing for the use at home such as cashmere pyjamas and in-house-wears in comparisons with the past. She thought that's because females seek for more comfort in fashion and luxury products and they enjoy buying them for their quality and comfort rather than enhancing their look and male attraction.

Most of the respondent felt uncomfortable with the idea that the reason for their luxury shopping is mate retention strategies and they found that irrelevant. Five respondents were single and three of them mentioned they purchase the luxury products only for their own satisfaction and not even for the mate attraction.

Findings:

According to Mpanganjira, M (2014) research shows that customers have a range of underlying motivations triggering their shopping behaviour, but there are essentially two types of shopping motives: 1-Utilitarian: The conscious pursuit of an intended consequence. Essentially, meaning you're shopping "to get something done". 2-Hedonic: Related to intrinsic and emotional responses. In other words, you're shopping because you love it. It has established that most men tend to follow the utilitarian approach whereas most women tend to follow hedonic approach. If this approach is applicable to luxury buying behaviour, it shows a strong link between the female buyers to the luxury products or the actual shopping. These links have been reflected in the interviews when female shoppers mentioned they like to buy luxury products because of the quality, features and durability. Some respondents called the process of shopping pleasurable and socially entertaining.

The previous research didn't identify the 'empowered female luxury shoppers' intention as an important motivation for female luxury purchases. The idea of "I buy because I can" couldn't be linked to Intrasexual Theory and Signalling Theory. The result of previous research wasn't break down to dependency/independency of female or their age or cultural background. The changes in gender roles and therefore the impact of such changes on decision making process of luxury products hasn't been fully explored in many previous studies and so do on the money allocation and budgeting in the household and the impact of it on luxury shopping. Many of the respondents emphasized on the fact that they do not buy luxury products to attract long term potential partners nor to guard their partners.

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The impact of cultural intelligence in an international company – 2st level survey

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Abstract

Different cultures – different language – different names – different behaviors. In literature, different cultures are mostly described between continents and borders. International companies reach their limits in implementing new top down strategy to all subsidiaries across the planet. Different work methods in different areas and even in different departments can frustrate the responsible international manager. Cultural intelligence can help to minimize the storming time and loss of efficiency of new international teams. Good trained managers (on Cultural Intelligence) do at least speak a view words of the language of the new colleagues and pronounce the names of the team members in the right way. In the first part of the paper it was examined how biased people can be if they hear foreign names. Names even can decide on if someone gets a job or not. The 2nd part of the survey carried on the examination of the cultural differences within a company. The 1st part was done with respondents from different companies. It is interesting to know, especially for the managers, how the employees feel and think. How they work and how they prefer to communicate. The 2nd part describes the 1st survey, consists of a sequence of four steps which will be performed within the group. In total 28 companies are parts of the group on three continents (Europe, Asia and America).

Keywords: Cross cultural management, cultural intelligence, globalization, international business, international management

JEL Classification: F02, F23, F42, P45

Introduction

First Part: In every culture people give names to their children. More or less of them have meanings in their culture. Names are very individual salutations between human beings. A time it is difficult to pronounce the name in the right way. But the right spelling shows the respect to your communication partner. And how biased are we, when we hear a name without having a face to it? Do we imagine a face to a specific name? Do individual with foreign names have difficulties to get a specific job? The survey was performed between the 1st of May and 10th of May 2017. In total 11 questions in relation to names were asked.

Second Part: This part was the continuation of the survey "Step 1". The second step describes the cultural differences within a company. The survey was performed within the two companies (one in Germany and one in Austria) which are under the same holding. The aim is to find out how big the cultural differences between these two companies are. Both companies have similarities like same business type, sharing the same name, speak the same language, bordering each other and are part of a bigger holding. Is that enough to share the same company culture? If not, how big are the differences? The survey was performed in Austria in July 2017. In total 26 questions were asked. Six questions are added compared to the Step 1. In total 18 filled questionnaires were collected and 44 were sent to potential respondents. The response rate was 40.1%. Statistical evaluations were done in both parts with SPSS.

Meaning of Names

All over the world and through all culture human have names (Le Rouzic, 2000). A name gives us a unique personality and separates us from the rest of the herd. In the region where human grow up names always sounds familiar because we hear them every day. In other regions and countries different names appear in the linguistic pronunciations. For foreigners sound the new names somehow strange because it is something new. Something new or new cultural behavior (misunderstanding, behavior pattern ...) can lead into fear or rejection of the new culture (Flader, 2008). A cultural shock

can cause sickness and the wish of something familiar and if it's just to hear the native language. A cultural shock works as follows. Phase 1: Euphoria – a lot of new impressions and new language makes the human happy. Phase 2: Alienation – the starting high spirit evaporate. Too many changes at once. Phase 3: Escalation of Alienation – want to reject the cultural. Why the locals do it this way and not our ways? Phase 4: Cultural Learning and partial adaption of the new live style (Flader, 2008). As soon as the human accept the new situation the faster the new lifestyle will eliminate the cultural shock. As every behavior has its origin also names have an origin and also a meaning. Cicero, for example will be chosen because we can't pronounce Socrates, is from the Latin "cicer", which means chickpea. Chickpea is a kind of vegetable. Curtis, another English name, means "short leggings". Let's be honest, no one wants to see a guy in capris (Hayes, 2013). If a name means something terrible or something good – names have a meaning.

What will happen if in your usual environment new people from abroad move in? Different names are on the door bell which locals can't even pronounce. The first part of the survey tries to find out how people act when they hear foreign names.

Corporate Culture

Each and every human has its own culture. Every individual is thus simultaneously a member of several cultures: for example, a physicist at Harvard University, of German origin and German mother tongue, having acquired US citizenship, would have at least five identities to reconcile in everyday life (Artl, 2009). In a company many people work closely together and share offices with other colleagues. In that kind of environment it's important to respect mutually and to reduce the own wishes. Cultural differences can cause easily troubles within a group of employees. Especially when two companies merge corporate culture is substantial for a good performance. If it's not taken care of, workers create either active or passive resistance against the new situation. Special attention should be on a rise of resignations, on higher sick leaves and productivity (Wirtz, 2003). Basically we understand the term "Culture" like thinking in patterns, value standard and forms of interaction between humans in their natural and social environment (in comparison to Krystek, 1992).

Corporate Culture is defined "as the entirety in a company existing either aware or unaware cultivated, symbolic and linguistic values, thinking pattern and code of conduct (in comparison to Ulrich, 1993). When new colleagues are hired change the corporate culture with their own characteristics – mostly unconscious.

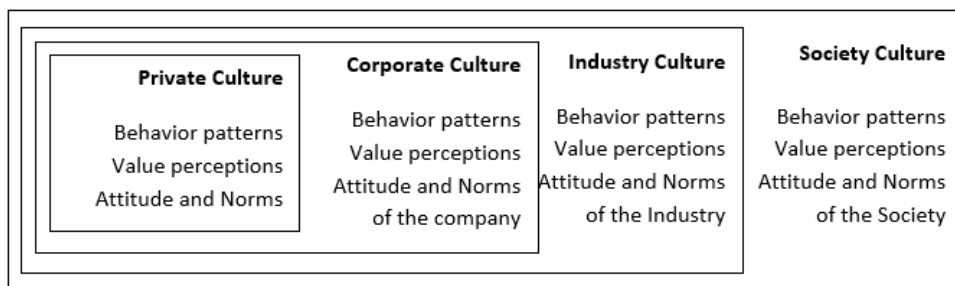


Figure 1: Corporate Culture and their surrounding Cultures (Bleicher, 1991)

It is seen in the figure 1 that the private culture is the nearest area. It reflects how humans are raised. Children learn very fast from other people who are close to them. Lived tradition and values will be hand over to the next generation at home. These learned behavior patterns will be used in school and at work. When parents trained their child to be polite to others the youth will rarely misbehave in school or at work.

Every company has its own corporate culture. If the lived culture is good or not depends on perspective of the observer. Japanese corporate culture for example dates back to the post-world war time. The culture in Japan is in a changing phase (Rothlauf, 1999). The cultural differences will be mostly used when westernized Managers fail in business in Japan (Niesen, 2014). Statements like: "the Japanese corporate culture is just different like ours." will be used to explain the unavoidable. The basic need of the Japanese people is to contribute to the harmony of the society and they workforce only function when at least a minimum of harmony is available. That's why manager should avoid criticizing colleagues directly (Rothlauf, 1999) – which is in our corporate culture common practice. The ability is high that the corporate culture will be

the scapegoat when companies go through hard times, which can end up in insolvency. Symptoms of corporate relevant topics are for example (Homma, 2014):

A high fluctuation of highly qualified and/or normal workers.

The leadership style of some managers will lead to frustration and tensions of the employees.

The time of response on customer enquiries are too long and cause critics.

The organization is busy with themselves instead with the customer.

High sick days – compared in the sector.

In some departments distrust and lack of cooperation are discovered.

Every individual add a small part to the corporate culture with the private culture. For leaders especially important is to be aware of the role they show to the work force. If the leader / manager are inaccurate the employees will be mostly too.

The culture of some industries is even seen from outstanding people. For example the hotel and tourism industry is known that it's a tough job with lots of hours, working on weekend, high stress during season and the communication does not have a nice way. In this industry only workers who can bear or be part of that culture will survive for a longer time. In other words each industry sector has its own culture and only people who like the work environment work there.

The more people come together the more diversity is seen. Tyler amplifies: "Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" in the year 1871. A lot of external influences shape our view and opinion. When you ask people to introduce themselves to others, their answers will look like this: I'm Jim. I work in accounting. I take care of all the payroll paperwork. Mostly I work with the lawnmower and small engine division, but I'm beginning to work more with the flowerpot division (Peterson, 2004). They mostly identify themselves with work or with a soccer club or a nation / region. You will find rarely people who talk about their private life, where they come from and so on. Especially at the start of a conversation with strangers. The best way to break through insularity and explore more about a culture of a society is to buy only a one way ticket to Burundi in the middle of Africa. Just to be kind to give them a liter of fresh drinking water for their arrival there. So if they ever wanted to make it home, they would be absolutely obliged to interact with someone incredibly different from themselves. They would be forced to learn a bit of a foreign language, to use body language, to modify their communication style, to listen attentively, to keep an open mind and in general to undergo a bit of cultural evolution ... or never get home (Peterson, 2004).

Change the Cultural Aspects

As we know, the cultural of every individual took years to improve. To change private culture, embossed through the years, is very difficult. Only open minded people who accept differences will see the world from other perspectives.

This fact should be known by managers, who announce a culture change for their company. They have to accept that a planned cultural change takes years rather than months, and that culture is in any case changing all the time irrespective of any plans to change it (Stanford, 2010). A corporate organization is a kind of living organism. Workers leave the company and new worker with their private culture imprinting will be hired. All of them contribute and change to the corporate culture with time. It is even necessary for managers who want to change work habits / culture to cancel work contracts and hire new people who will fit into the new company organization.

The more universal the culture is the more difficult or almost impossible is to change the culture. Migrants are seen as one big factor to change the culture of a society. It's not the religion alone also their previous lifestyle collides with the existing culture. It will take decades to finally know in which area the culture changed in which extend (Vertovec, 2015).

Overview of the Survey

The survey has 5 steps. The first step was took place between March and May 2017 and explored the cultural intelligence of different respondents who don't work in the same company. This survey was done to get the first impression about cultural intelligence from young professionals. The second step was divided into two parts. The 1st part explored the situation about foreign names and the 2nd part was performed in one business unit of an energy supply company (in this

case - Austria). The focus was on cultural differences within a business unite (between departments). The steps 1 & 2 and the steps 4 & 5 will be performed as online surveys. Step 3 will be performed as quality interview. A qualitative interview is the best way to get the real opinion of the managers in the headquarter and to read in between the lines.

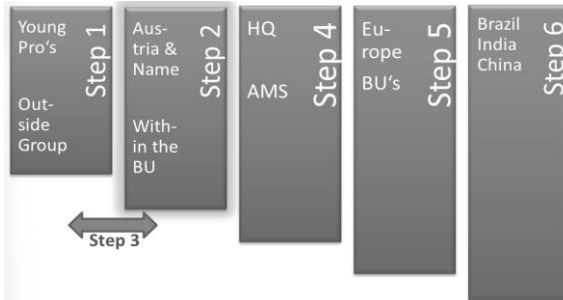


Figure 2: Steps of the survey

Source: Own diagram

Overview of the Online Survey – Names

The goal of this survey was to find out if people biased when they hear a foreign name without knowing the person and also without a photo. Do people categorize names regarding their own cultural impressing? The online survey was performed between the 1st of May and 10th of May 2017. All together 169 started the survey and in total 126 finished the survey with 11 questions. The survey has a completion rate of 74.56%. The origin of the names (in total 6) were Austria (2x), Uganda (2x), Arabic (1x) and Tanzania (1x).

Names used	Female	Male
Namibia	Jennifer Shekupe Nkosazana	Charles Tale Mosegi
Austria	Katharina maier	Markus Kofler
Uganda		Kagizo Tebogo
Arabic		Ibrahim Alhamad

Figure 3: Names used Source: Own diagram

Result of the Survey - Names

The 1st question was about the gender. All common names were proper classified. Even the names from Namibia were chosen right dou to the common first names – Jennifer and Charles. The only name which confused the respondents was the Ugandan name Kagizo Tebogo. In this case the baptismal name was removed. Only 70.75% chose the correct gender. The given name is necessary to identify the gender of a person. In this case the first name was not known well by the respondents (see figure 4). The 2nd question is about the mother tongue of the names. The following languages were available: German, Chinese, Arabic, Africans and French. To choose the right language is difficult due to migration background. The language for the Austrian names was selected up to 99.32% (both) correctly. 93.06% selected the Arabic name correctly. In figure 5 it is seen that the Ugandan name was selected up to 72.79% for African language. Compared to the other two African names where the female got 59.72% and the male 32.19% correct selection is the result of the Ugandan name due to the fact that when the names comprised a Christian name it might be possible that they live abroad or in one of the former colonies of the European powers.

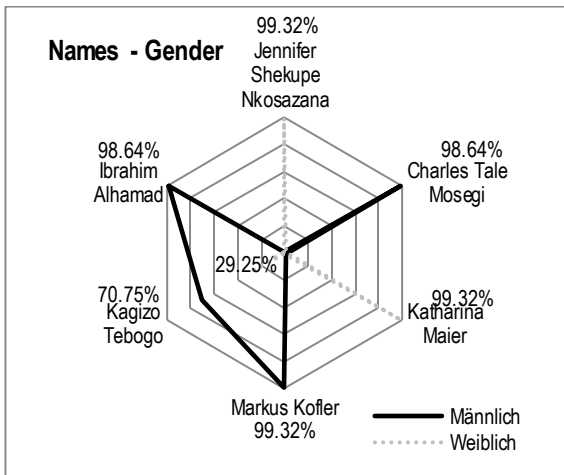


Figure 4: Names – Gender Source: Own diagram

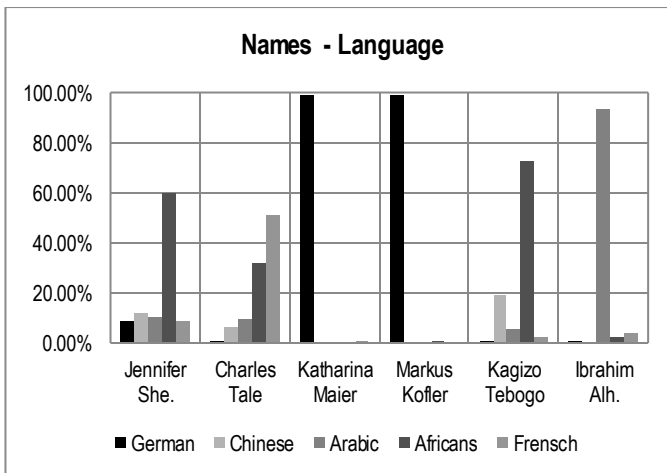


Figure 5: Names – Language Source: Own diagram

Charles Tale confused the respondents the most. The highest selected language was French with 51.37% compared with 9.03% for Jennifer Shekupe. The Chinese language only was selected high only with the name Kagizo Tebogo with 19.05% .

The result of the ethnic origin of the names is shown in figure 6. It is clear for the respondents that the Austrian names are up to 99. 22% (both) European origin. Also the Arabic name was selected up to 93. 02% as Arabic origin. The Ugandan name (Kagizo Tebogo) was selected correctly by up to 68. 99% (African origin). Only the two names with Christian names were difficult to categorize. Even Oceania was selected up to 10. 16% . The African origin was selected at both names the highest. For the female 46. 88% and for the male 37. 30% selected correctly .

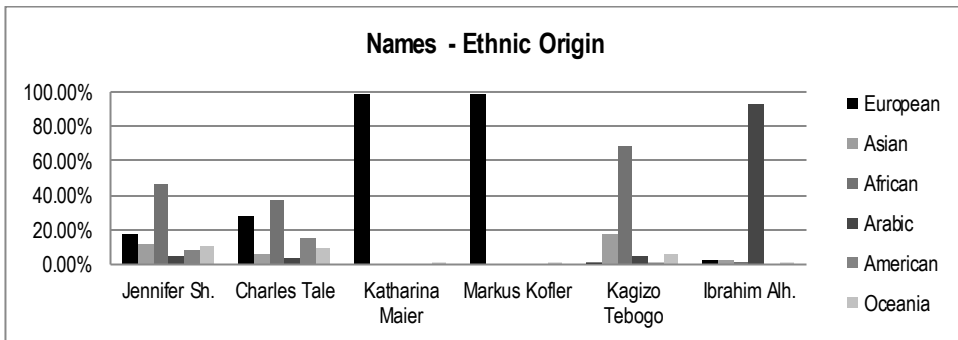


Figure 6: Names – Ethnic Origin Source: Own diagram

The next question discusses the environmental protection. It is known that in developed Arabic countries energy plays a subordinate role. When countries have enough energy to even export it, the citizen will not take care and think about environmental protection. Accordingly is the result. The highest environment protection score got the Austrian names opposed the fewest score got the Arabic name. Females got higher scores rather than males.

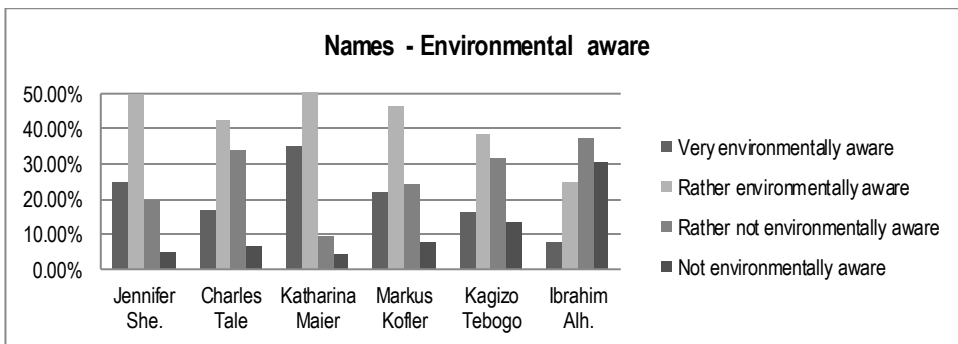


Figure 7: Names – Environmental aware Source: Own diagram

In societies hobbies play a big role. Every culture has its own favorite sports / hobbies / activities. British like Cricket, Rugby and Soccer. Americans like American Football and the Germans favorite sports are soccer (Evivam, 2017). But when people hear foreign names, they associate it with local or with exotic hobbies. To the selection six activities and no activities was available. Activities were swimming, climbing, hiking, betting, cultural activities and charitable work.

Multiple answers were possible.

	Jennifer She.	Charles Tale	Katharina Maier	Markus Kofler	Kagizo Tebogo	Ibrahim Alh.
Swimming	72	60	83	70	53	48
Climbing	53	50	69	82	49	47
Hiking	56	61	81	79	51	47
Charitable activities	72	58	71	58	59	53
Betting	29	43	41	53	39	53
Cultural activities	77	69	74	62	65	66
No activities	16	18	14	15	24	23
Total	375	359	433	419	340	337

Figure 8: Names – Hobbies Source: Own diagram

Unknown names are more associated with cultural activities. The highest scores got the Austrian female (433) and male (419). The second highest scores got the names from Namibia (incl. Christian names) and the fewest scores got the foreign names without Christian name and the Arabic name. The respondents are probably sure about the local activities. The females (African and Austrian) have the highest scores in cultural activities. The highest score in betting got the Arabic name as the second highest score behind cultural activities. It is seen in figure 8 that the Arabic name is less associated with sports activities and is almost equal with the Ugandan name. As soon as Christian names are involved the selection "no activities" is chosen very less. Others have at least 10 points more.

In the survey of foreign names it is clearly seen that the respondents were biased. When a name is familiar hobbies and language are probably the same. As long as Christian names are still involved the respondents have it still easy to choose gender and language. Especially the Namibian names with Christian names gave the biggest difficulties when it comes to choose the ethnics.

In general it can be said that only names (without additional information) can confuse the respondents. When a society communicates sooner or later barriers will fall and aversions will be minimized.

Overview of the Online Survey – Step 2 Austria

The survey of Step 2 was performed between the 26th of July and 26th of August 2017. In total 44 mails were sent to employees in one business unite. 75% (33) respondents opened the online platform to read / see the introduction. 28 respondents started and 20 finished the survey. The survey has a completion rate of 71.43%. The average time was about 5 min.

The business unite which was chosen is located in Austria and part of an international group with 27 other business units located on three continents. All business units together have more than 15,000 employees.

Result of the Survey – Step 2 General

The first questions were about general information like gender, age, work experience and highest education. The second part was going more into details in migration background, are you understood within or outside the department. The third part of the survey covers the five questions how to find define cultural intelligence. The first three parts are also performed in the first step of the dissertation (with young professionals – outside the business units). The result of all part investigations will finally cumulated to a big dataset to get significance out of the data. In the first step 42 filled and in second step (Austria) 20 filled questionnaires were collected. In both surveys no significance, due to few respondents, in each survey were detected. The more questionnaires were collected the chance of significance increase.

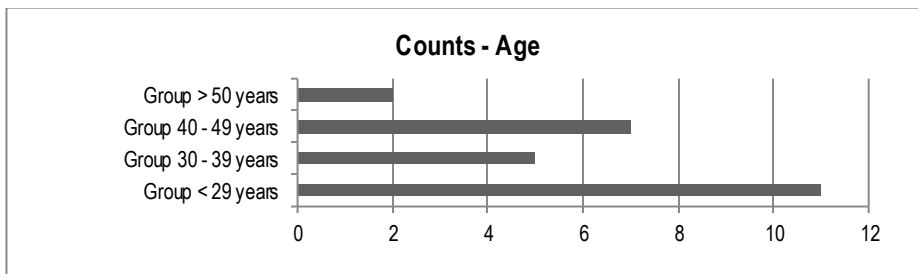


Figure 9: Counts – Age Source: Own diagram

In the survey of the second step 56% were females and 44% were male. The educational level is as follows: 32% (8) have a finished apprenticeship, 32% (8) have a high school certificate, 28% (7) have done additional schools after secondary school and 8% (2) have a university of applied science educational level.

It is seen that the biggest group of employee is in the group up to 29 years. Only 2 employees are older than 50 years. The group of the 40 – 49 aged employees is the second biggest.

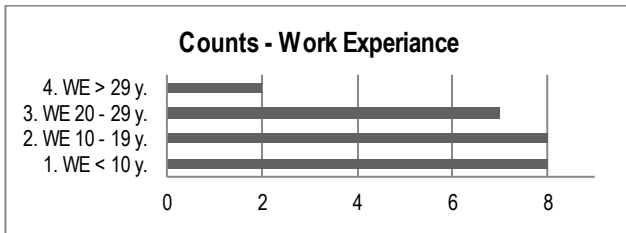


Figure 10: Counts – Work Experience, Source: Own diagram

In addition to the age 2 employees have more than 29 years of work experience. Group 1 (8 counts) has less than ten years of work experience. The majorities of the respondents are in group 2 and 3 and have between 10 and 29 years of work experience.

Out of 25 respondents only 2 (8%) employees have a direct or in first generation (parents) migration background.

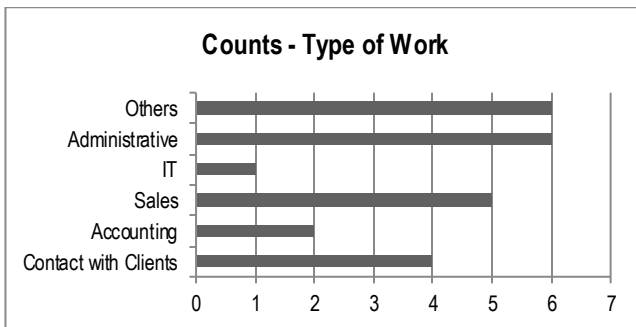


Figure 11: Counts – Type of Work, Source: Own diagram

It is seen that the biggest part of the organization works in the back office to facilitate the operational continuity of the company therefore the majority of the respondents don't have contact with clients. Only four in the head office and five of the sales respondents communicate directly with clients.

To work with customers need employees who are more extroverted rather than employees who work in the accounting department. IT specialists are more introverted and focused on things – like computers.

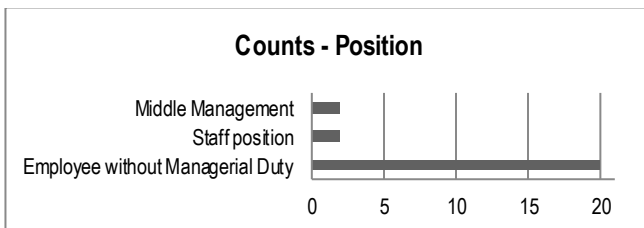


Figure 12: Counts – Position Source: Own diagram

Most of the employees (83.33%) are in position where they don't have to manage other colleagues or even a budget. Only four respondents are counted with responsibilities for other employees and budgets. Managers and positions below the CEO (e.g. staff position) in general should have a higher cultural knowledge rather than “normal employees” to lead their staff into the right direction.

The next questions cover the cultural differences within a department and between other departments. When people work together, maybe in the same office, than at least they should understand (not only by language) and bypass possible cultural differences. Cultural differences within a department can lead into a reduction of productivity and an increase of mistakes. Normally more employee work on one business process and mistakes can occur. A good coordinated team will find the mistake and eliminate them. If people don't work together mistakes can lead into financial loss and company's reputation. The result of the survey was as follows:

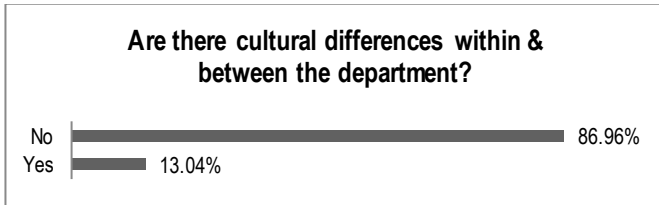


Figure 13: Ratio – Cultural differences between and within departments Source: Own diagram

Both questions were answered the same. 86.96% feel that there are no cultural differences within the department and even between other departments. In total 20 respondents selected no differences. Only 3 respondents selected “yes” there are differences within and between the departments. In general it is a good sign when employees feel / think that there are no differences.

The control questions show a slightly different picture of the previous questions. It shows a stronger team spirit within the department but between other departments the team spirit drifted apart.

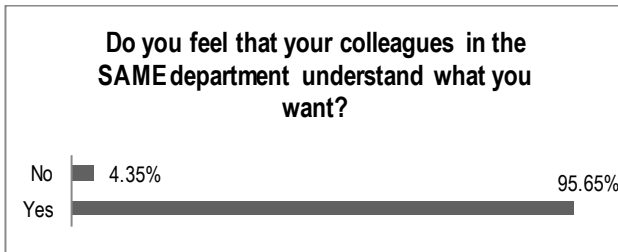


Figure 14: Ratio – Cultural differences within the department Source: Own diagram

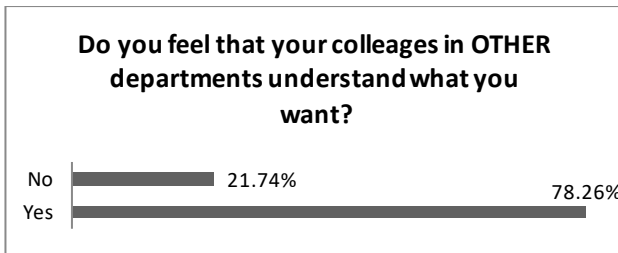


Figure 15: Ratio – Cultural differences between departments Source: Own diagram

The result from figure 13 (do my colleagues understand me – SAME department) is more clear and confirms the previous question about the cultural differences within the department. There was only 1 respondent who selected “NO”. A good team spirit exists in the departments. Disparate answers were selected with the question about the communication between OTHER departments. The result from figure 14 doesn't show the result from the previous question, where only 4 respondents answered that there are cultural differences. More respondents (21.74%) are the opinion that their cases / needs / urgencies are not understood in other departments.

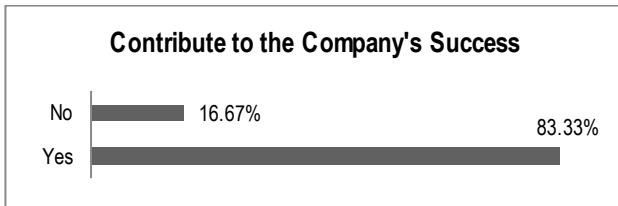


Figure 16: Ratio – Contribute to the Companies Success Source: Own diagram

Most of the employees have the feeling that they contribute to the company's success. Out of 24 respondents 20 indicated yes that they contribute to the success. Only 4 respondents feel that they are doing some work without any value to the company. This result can be an indicator that the respondents are attached with the company. It is the responsibility of the managing director to assure every employee the importance of his person and work to further increase the productivity.

Result of the Survey – Step 2 Cultural Intelligence

The following results describe how the employees want to work. It is expected that every department has its own median which will not correspond with other departments. For example the accounting department will not take a high risk at the work due to higher financial impact compared with the marketing department which needs to take higher risk in advertising to be recognized in the field. If it is so the following tables will explain. Brief description of the Main_Work: 1 = Contact with Clients (e. g. Call Center), 2 = Accounting dept., 3 = Sales dept., 6 = IT = dept., 7 = Administrative dept., 8 = Others (3x Marketing, 1x Logistics, 1x Disposition). Brief description of the groups: 1 = 0 – 24; 2 = 25 – 49, 3 = 50 – 74, 4 = 75 – 100.

In general the majority (63.16%) prefer to work in a team. The tendency in the result is that more than 42.11% want to work only in a team. The other extreme is that 26.32% want to work only along. Even one respondent from the sales department want to work alone before mingle with other people. The group 1 is more outspoken than the administrative department. All employees in group 1 want to work more in a team.

The group 8 is very interesting due to ambivalent perception. All marketing employees want to work more alone rather than in a team. Both logistics and disposition prefer to work in a team (>75.00%). The marketing department should be normally more extrinsic motivated to work together with other departments. Especially with the sales representatives a good communication is indispensable. Also an ambivalent picture shows the result from group 7. The tendency is going to work more alone and not in a team. It might be forgotten that processes can only be managed together in an interdisciplinary team. Standalone processes which only be worked off in one department are very rare. The accounting department also wants to work more alone rather than in a team. It is the nature of the workers in an accounting department to be more "alone" with their numbers and not have contact with clients.

Main Work *. Work preferences

Main_Work * Alone_Team_Group Crosstabulation

Count		Alone_Team_Groups				Total
		1	2	3	4	
Main_Work	1	0	0	1	3	4
	2	1	0	1	0	2
	3	1	0	0	2	3
	6	0	1	0	0	1
	7	2	0	1	1	4
	8	1	1	1	1	5
Total		5	2	4	8	19

Figure 17: Main_Work, Alone_Team_Group Source: Own diagram

Brief description for the group Security_Risk_Group: 1= 100% Security, 4 = 100% risk. The result of this question is evenly distributed. 50% will not take any risk in the job and 50% will take risks. It is seen in figure 17 that the sales representative

don't want to take risks in their job rather than the group administrative where slightly more employee take risks. Also the group others take more risks than the group contact with clients. In general no trend is seen in the result.

Main_Work * Security - Risk

Main_Work * Security_Risk_Group Crosstabulation						
Count		Security_Risk_Group				Total
		1	2	3	4	
Main_Work	1	1	0	1	0	2
	2	0	0	0	1	1
	3	1	2	0	0	3
	6	0	1	0	0	1
	7	2	0	1	2	5
	8	1	0	3	0	4
Total		5	3	5	3	16

Figure 18: Main_Work * Security_Risk Source: Own diagram

Main_Work * Flat - Hierarchy

The next question describes how the employees prefer to work. 1 = Flat organization, 4 = very Hierarchy organization. Startups have due to few employees or one-man companies have in general flat hierarchy in the organization. The question for every founder is when to start with the development of the organization. It might be possible that employee will leave the company as soon as the organization will be developed and management levels will be established.

Brief description for the group Flat_Hierarchy: 1= 100% Flat, 4 = 100% Hierarchy. It is seen that the group 1 (contact with clients) have evenly distributed selected. In every category one person selected. The group 2 (Accounting Department) selected one time the lowest and one time the highest sections. In this situation the head of department has to try to find a way to fulfill both wishes of the employees. The group 3 (Sales Representatives) prefer more structured organization. For them it must be clear where to go by problems – to have a clear picture of the system they work in. Group 7 (Others) like it more flat. There are employees from the marketing department who needs their room to be creative. Hierarchy organization will just limit them to be innovative.

Main_Work * Flat_Hierarchy_Group Crosstabulation						
Count		Flat_Hierarchy_Group				Total
		1	2	3	4	
Main_Work	1	1	1	1	1	4
	2	1	0	0	1	2
	3	0	0	1	1	2
	6	0	0	1	0	1
	7	1	0	2	2	5
	8	2	1	1	1	5
Total		5	2	6	6	19

Figure 18: Main_Work * Flat_Hierarchy Source: Own diagram

How to solve a Problem

In some situations employees can't go further with their work / process. These issues occur when problems rise in their area of responsibility. But the question is: "who to ask?" In "normal" departments is the first way is to ask their colleagues and the head of department. If this is not possible for any reason the next is to ask outside their closer work colleagues. This question was asked among the employees.

It is seen in figure 19 that 50% want to find a solution within the same department. 9 counts or 45% will ask directly the manager of the department. Only one count (5) will ask the IT Department to solve their problem. This respondent may faced some technical problems in the past. No respondent selected the possibility to keep the problem by him / her self. This can be interpreted that the problem will be solved with an acceptable way (time, respect ...). It is also seen that no solution will be looked for outside the department. Maybe the problems are specific problems which can't be solved from outside.

Solution	Counts
Ask my Manager	9
Ask the IT-Department	1
Keep the problem by myself	0
I speak in the break about the problem	0
Suche eine Lösung innerhalb der Abteilung	10
Suche eine Lösung außerhalb der Abteilung	0
Total	20

Figure 20: How to solve a Problem Source: Own diagram

*Main_Work * Direct – Indirect Communication*

Communication is one of the core cultural competences which individuals own. In this world 6,500 – 7,000 languages exist (Pereltsvaig, 2012). Most of them have in addition also their subdialects. Communication is the basic to exchange / interact with people. But how to communicate in the right way across different cultures can be difficult. Mistakes in communication are common and can irritate the listener. The next question explored the communication within a company. Do employees prefer the direct or the indirect communication? Direct means that the employees talk face to face with the supervisor or write a mail direct to the manager not using others (colleagues) to address issues.

It is seen in figure 20 that more than 85% of the employees prefer the direct communication. Even 50% prefer the highest quarter of direct communication. Only 25% prefer a slightly indirect communication. The other 50% prefer a mixture between direct and indirect communication. Maybe it is important for these employees to choose the right communication channel for each and individual issue differently, depending on the actual needs. Only the group 8 (others) choose more indirect communication. They mainly work in-house and don't have direct contact with customers. Even the marketing department prefers to communicate more indirectly. The sales representatives prefer direct communication which is perhaps needed when they talk face to face with the customer. In group 1 (contact with clients) some employee prefer to communicate.

*Main_Work * Indirect_Direct_Group Crosstabulation*

Count		Indirect_Direct_Group			Total
		2	3	4	
Main_Work	1	0	3	1	4
	2	0	0	2	2
	3	0	0	3	3
	6	0	1	0	1
	7	0	1	4	5
	8	3	2	0	5
Total		3	7	10	20

Figure 21: Main_Work * Indirect_Direct_Communication Source: Own diagram

slightly more indirectly rather than directly. It is interesting to see that the group 2 (accounting department) prefer to communicate direct. It is said that accountants are more introverted and focused only on the task.

*Main_Work * Task_Relation*

Task oriented employee only see the work which should be done within a certain time. It plays only a subordinate role if they are liked in what they do or not. The task is in focus. Relation oriented employee think before they hand over work to their colleagues. To have a good relationship between the employees is important and is the basic condition to be happy at work.

It is seen in figure 21 that the selected quarters are equally distributed. 50% prefer more tasks and vice versa. But the highest scores are mentioned in the center (in total 75%). The IT-department (group 6) prefer purely to work on tasks. The group 1 prefers to work more relation oriented but not 100%. Only one employee selected the highest quarter (almost 100% relation oriented). The group 3 (sales department) like to work more task oriented and not relationship oriented. In general it can be said that the result is quite ambivalent. No clear picture / tendency are seen in this company.

Main_Work * Task_Relation_Group Crosstabulation

Count		Task_Relation_Group				Total
		1	2	3	4	
Main_Work	1	0	1	2	0	3
	2	1	0	1	0	2
	3	0	2	0	0	2
	6	1	0	0	0	1
	7	1	0	2	0	3
	8	0	2	2	1	5
Total		3	5	7	1	16

Figure 22: Main_Work * Task_Relation Source: Own diagram

Conclusion of the Online Survey – Step 2 Austria

The first Part – foreign names

Names play a huge role in the way to success in many ways. Does someone want to rent a house, apply for a job, ask for some help. Names trigger if a person will get something or not. Officially it is not allowed to write in an ad that a company only looks for locals. But in the background applicants with foreign names fall out of the race only because of this reason.

Either way, the right pronunciation of the name is crucial. Not respecting cultural differences can lead to clashes. Just treat all people as individuals, the thinking goes, and soon, peace will guide the planet and love will steer the stars (Markus, 2014). Inhabitants of a region fear in general change for example when foreigners migrate to their area. It's a kind of cultural change which everyone has enough of them. We all have many different cultures crisscrossing through our lives, from major cultures like nations, genders, and social classes; to subcultures like professions, hobbies, and even sport-team fandom (Markus, 2014). Given names are part of the closest cultural characteristics. It is hard for inhabitants to put names into the right category as long as no other information / picture is available to them. We all think in boxes, how we raced up, and put people / names / issues into a particular category. To avoid this trend is to break somehow the cycle. Being aware of the culture cycle is the first step to controlling it. Once you know that the environment is full of primes that shape your behavior, you can begin to consciously override these cues, or even replace them with more desirable one (Markus, 2014).

It is the responsibility of a managing director, for example, to hire the best applicant for a specific job, independently from the given name of the person. Names should not trigger any decision from the side of the receiver. To know that we are biased in many ways can help to gather more impressions from a person so that the opinion regarding a specific person can change.

The second Part – survey within a company

The survey shows the actual result of the company's culture. The survey within the company did not show any significance due to fewer respondents. Only descriptive statistic was used to analyze the results. In the following surveys more filled questionnaires will be collected. Other subsidiaries will be contacted and responsible managers at headquarter interviewed.

The five questions regarding the cultural preferences showed an ambivalent picture. Only the communication shows a higher trend to direct communication rather than indirect communication in general. The employees in general prefer to work more on task level and not so much on relationship basis. The result of "How to solve a Problem" shows clearly that the employee prefer to solve problems within the department and don't involve additional departments or colleagues from the other side of the company. Also the direct manager plays a big role to solve problems. The results of the question "Security vs. Risk" shows that the respondents prefer not to take risk in their job. In companies where innovation drives the business risk is omnipresent. Of course, it is the duty of the managers to mitigate the risk as much as possible. In this examined company the employee prefer to be on the saver site.

The result of the question "Flat vs. Hierarchy" structure goes towards more hierarchy structure within the company. People want to be guided. Flat organizations often do not have clear ways of reporting and responsibilities. This character also

changes due to the type of the company. Startups have more flat organizations. As soon as the company grows (with staff) levels must be implemented. People who like flat structures may leave the company because of this.

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Technological Change in Turkish Manufacturing Industry: The Case of Gaziantep City

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Abstract:

Ensuring competition in global economy, the production of high value products within the country and the reduction of current budget deficit; in other words, increasing the output of industries manufacturing intermediate goods and end products, which have high import dependency, are major targets of Turkey. The state of technological infrastructure of manufacturing industry in the country as well as the process of change that the industry undergoes are essential for the realization of these targets. New technologies play an important role in the competitiveness and economic development of cities, region and the country in the international market. In particular, the use of new technologies in manufacturing industry and companies' capacity for innovation are prerequisites for businesses to enter a tougher competition in the global economy as well as for cities and countries to persevere on the larger scale. In this respect, the main purpose of this study is to examine the technological transformation of the manufacturing industry in Gaziantep, which is positioned in the top five among Turkey's exports and employs a considerable work force, in comparison to the technological change experienced by the manufacturing industry in Turkey. In the study, the technological level of manufacturing industry in Turkey and the technological change process of manufacturing industry in Gaziantep are presented between 2009-2016 with key indicators. The findings of this study reveal that the current level of technology the city of Gaziantep manufacturing industry has had is far behind the level Turkish manufacturing industry has reached.

Keywords: Technological Innovation, Competition, Gaziantep, Turkey

Introduction

Developed countries, especially in the different geographical areas of the world after the Second World War, achieved a rapid growth trend with strong industrial structure and increased their prosperity levels. Although developed countries have many dynamics on the basis of this growth and development adventure, the most important factor is the existence of manufacturing industry. It is the driving force behind the manufacturing sector of the economies of developing countries such as Turkey and developed countries of the present day (Doğruel ve Doğruel, 2008). The wave of globalization which has started to spread over the world since 1990 has been developing countries in international markets, and in the meantime Turkey has entered a serious competition.

Manufacturing and exporting of the manufacturing industry, which has an important place in the Turkish economy, has seen a significant increase in recent years. This increase is mostly due to the increase in production and exports of low tech products. However, today as the transition to the 4th industrial revolution has begun, it is necessary to further increase the share of the production and export products of the industrial goods within the "high and medium-high technology" group, which will further develop the manufacturing industry. To realize this, it is necessary to make the necessary arrangements and plan the policies and strategies of the central government very well.

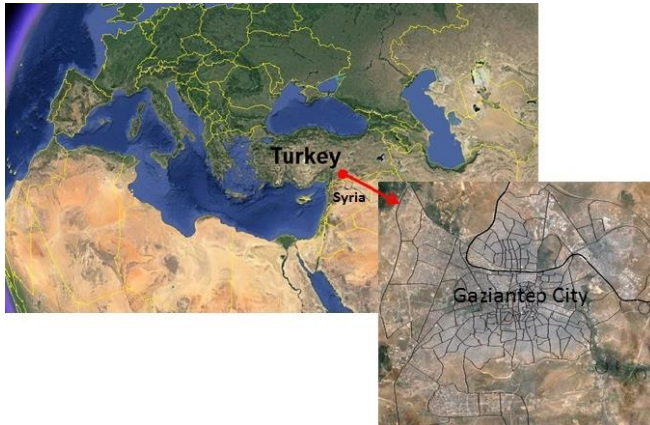


Figure 1: The location of the city of Gaziantep

This study covers the technological structure of the manufacturing industry in Turkey and in particular Gaziantep (Figure 1), which is an important commercial, industrial production center and border city in the south of Turkey. Moreover, regional and recent international migration route has transformed the city of Gaziantep into an important consumption center in the last twenty-five years. From 1990 onwards, the economy in the city, which is trying to be integrated into the global world, is mostly based on industry and service sectors (NUTS-2, TRC1 Industry 33.3% , service 54.6% TURKSTAT, 2017). The export volume, which is considered as an important variable in terms of economic weight, reached to 6.1 billion dollars per year in Gaziantep and the country's manufacturing sector constituted 4.4% of total exports and led to the rise to 6th place in 81 provinces (TURKSTAT, 2017). Gaziantep which is considered as a brand and model city for other cities in Turkey (Keyman and Lorasdağı, 2010), is the second rank after İstanbul in terms of the number of firms in the regional distribution of the top 500 companies exporting in 2012 (Bölgesel Gelişme Ulusal Stratejisi, 2014: 80). Therefore, Gaziantep city, which has an advanced economy in its region, is a medium-scale competitive city in global scale, attracting some of the migration in the region and being one of the new industrial centers of Turkey.

Technology, defined as the ability to produce, use and spread information, is an important factor in determining international competitiveness and economic growth, or in other words, the welfare of societies (Saygılı, 2003). From the earliest times of the Industrial Revolution to the day-to-day technological change, many theoretical and empirical studies have been carried out on economic growth, employment and development (Taymaz, 1997). Technology which has been shown to be one of the main reasons for the increase in unemployment as well as economic development and quality of life (Taymaz, 1997), plays an important role in the transformation of the international competitive power and in the spatial dimension of the manufacturing sector. Although there are many different and important classical and neo-classical approaches to technological change in the literature, this study has been examined in the context of the Schumpeterian Theory (creative destruction). According to this theory, technological innovation has been regarded as the engine of economic development in a long period of time. According to Schumpeter's (1942) theory, technological innovation has long been regarded as the engine of economic development (Swedberg, 2003). Again, according to Schumpeter (1942), the process of technological change can be "destructive" at the same time as being a "creative" process maintained by innovations (Swedberg, 2003). In fact, this theory tries to explain the technological differences between firms, and therefore the mechanism of "creative destruction" is related to technological developments (Avcı, Uysal and Tasci, 2016). At the same time, this technological development or change process foresees the redistribution of resources among firms, professions, sectors and countries and suggests that those who can not compete with this process may disappear (Taymaz, 2001). Therefore, the use of new technologies and the need to innovate are essential to the increasing competitiveness of the global economy and the survival of firms and even countries in this process.

In fact, the aim of this study is to determine what kind of goods are based on the production of the existing industry in Turkey and micro scale in the city of Gaziantep according to the density of technology. Moreover, this study investigates

whether there is a change towards the higher technology industry in the manufacturing industry of Gaziantep in comparison to Turkey within the context of development levels. Data for the study NACE Rev. 2, the manufacturing industry consists of 24 sub-sectors with two digits. Today, however, some traditional manufacturing sectors are shifting towards technology that is more advanced. For this reason, some sectors are classified as two-digit, while others are classified as three or even four-digit. In this study, the manufacturing industry was divided into four groups by OECD according to the technology density of each sector. Therefore, some sectors can be included in one of four groups as high, medium-high, medium-low and low technology group in two, three or even four digits (Table 1).

Table 1: Classification of manufacturing sector by technology level

ISIC Rev. 4	Sectors	Group types according to technology
21	Manufacture of basic pharmaceutical products and pharmaceutical preparations	A
26	Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	A
303	Manufacture of air and spacecraft and related machinery	A
20	Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products	B
254	Manufacture of weapons and ammunition	B
27	Manufacture of electrical equipment	B
28	Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	B
29	Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers	B
302	Manufacture of railway locomotives and wagons	B
304	Manufacture of military combat vehicles	B
309	Manufacture of other transport equipment n.e.c.	B
325	Manufacture of medical and dental instruments and supplies	B
182	Reproduction of recorded media	C
19	Manufacture of coke and refined petroleum products	C
22	Manufacture of rubber and plastic products	C
23	Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	C
24	Manufacture of basic metals	C
25	Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	C
301	Building of ships and boats	C
33	Repair and installation of machinery and equipment	C
10	Manufacture of food products	D
11	Manufacture of beverages	D
12	Manufacture of tobacco products	D
13	Manufacture of textiles	D
14	Manufacture of wearing apparel	D
15	Manufacture of leather and related products	D
16	Manufacture of wood and of products of wood and cork	D
17	Manufacture of paper and paper products	D
18	Printing and reproduction of recorded media	D
31	Manufacture of furniture	D
32	Other manufacturing	D

A: High Technology, B: Medium-High Technology, C: Medium-Low Technology, D: Low Technology

Source: EUROSTAT

In addition, in this study, the Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT) has been utilized for manufacturing, number of firms, employment, and foreign trade data related to the manufacturing industry. Moreover, in order to determine how the manufacturing industry performs in the Turkish economy, the number of firms in each sub-sector and the share of employment and foreign trade within the manufacturing sector are determined by processing the data for specific years. In this way, the relative size and importance of the sub-sectors within the manufacturing industry has been determined relative to the technology levels. However, the fact that data other than foreign trade data related to Gaziantep are not published by the statistical institution has been a major obstacle to this study.

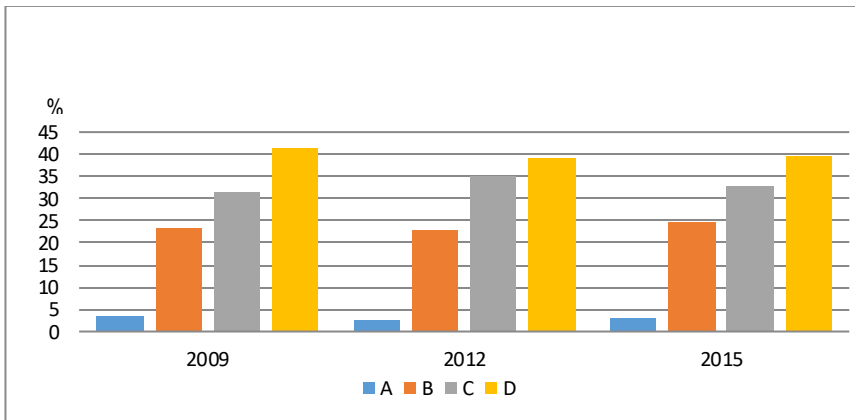
Turkish Manufacturing Sector:

The fact that many economic crises occurred from 1980 to the present day and the application of different development and economic programs in various periods coincide with important structural transformations in the Turkish economy. Therefore, this bumpy process has also been found in manufacturing industry. Especially during periods of economic crises, the manufacturing industry has been in a downturn. However, except for the crisis years, the manufacturing sector economy has generally maintained its position as the driving force or locomotive in general (Doğruel and Doğruel, 2008). Increasing production is essential for a country, a region or an urban space to grow quickly and continuously. In this case, with the economic growth, the share of the manufacturing sector in the economy is foreseen to increase. According to the data from the World Bank (2017), the share of the value added of manufacturing industry in GDP in the period between 1980 and present in Turkey reached to 24% in 1998. Later, however, the share of manufacturing industry in GDP fell to 19% in 2016. (World Bank Data, 2017).

Technological Change in Turkish Manufacturing Sector:

Significant changes have taken place over time in the technological structure of the manufacturing industry, whose share in the world has declined considerably. For this purpose, according to the OECD grouping, the Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), NACE Rev. 2 published data were used.

Figure 2: Production Value by Technology Level - Turkey

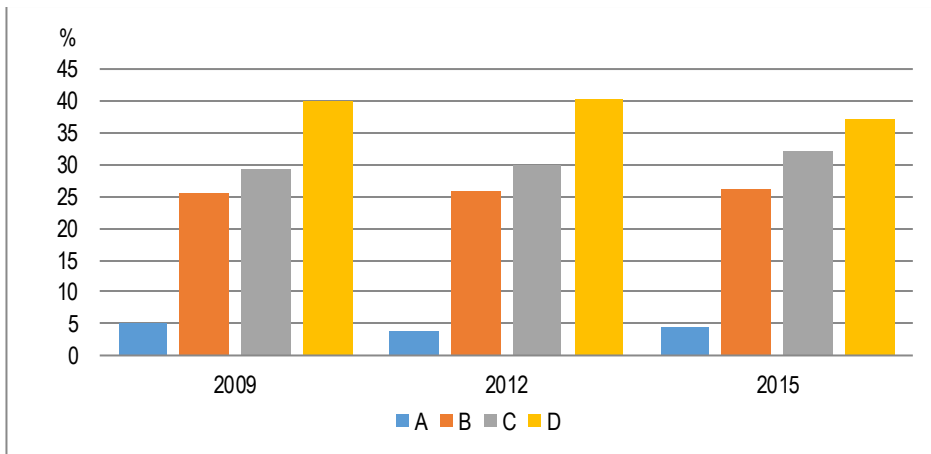


Source: TURKSTAT, based on 2017 data, created by the author

In Figure 2, Turkey's production value "production value" shares are compared to the four technology groups of 2009, 2012 and 2015. Low-tech (D) production, which is 41% in 2009, remains at 40% by 2015, indicating that there is not much change. However, the production value of the medium-high technology (C) manufacturing industry is slightly increasing compared to 2009, especially in 2012. This small proportional increase in the medium-low technology manufacturing sector is related to the decrease in the share of low technology. A noteworthy situation is the decline in the share of the high-tech (A) manufacturing sector in recent years. The share of production value of medium-high technology (B) in recent years shows that there is a shift in medium-high technology from high technology. As a result, despite the decline in the high-tech manufacturing sector in the last ten years in terms of production value in Turkey, low-tech and medium-low-tech manufacturing sectors continue to maintain its importance.

In addition to the production value, examining the technological change in the Turkish manufacturing industry as "added value" will make this work even more meaningful. The "added value", which is defined as the value added to the product at each stage of production, is given in Figure 3 as the share of the products entering the four technology groups in the total manufacturing sector. Accordingly, the share of the goods entering the low tech group in the total manufacturing industry declined in the added value again from 2009 until 2015, after an initial slight rise. Products supported by scientific and AR-GE studies are products with high "added value". A large majority of these products are in the high and medium-high technology manufacturing industry group. Therefore, the share of the goods entering the high tech group in the "value added" of the manufacturing industry has not changed much in the years stated and remained below 5%. There has been a steady increase in the share of goods entering the medium-high and medium-low technology group in Turkey. Although this seems to be positive, the share of goods in the low and medium-low technology group within the total manufacturing sector in Turkey was 70% in 2015, indicating that there is not much change compared to 2009.

Figure 3: Added Value by Technology Levels - Turkey



Source: TURKSTAT, based on 2017 data, created by the author

It may not be enough to determine the changes in the level of technology in the Turkish manufacturing sector as "production value" and "value added". For this reason, while approximately 200 thousand companies operate in the low-tech manufacturing sector in 2009, the number of firms decreased by 1% between 2009 and 2015 (Table 2). This decline suggests that the sector has improved beyond the workplace growth in the manufacturing industry as a whole. Similarly, employment in the manufacturing sector increased by 37% between 2009-2015 compared to the number of employed in the low-tech group, but its share in the total manufacturing sector fell to 52.33% in 2015 from the previous turnover.

Table 2: Number of Firms and Employment by Technology Levels – Turkey

	2009		2015		2009		2015	
	Number of Firms	%	Number of Firms	%	Employment	%	Employment	%
A	805	0,25	1.129	0,34	58.106	2,25	75.335	2,05
B	30.024	9,36	32.011	9,55	448.075	17,3	674.130	18,34
C	90.362	28,2	104.579	31,2	677.974	26,2	1.002.441	27,28
D	199.624	62,2	197.592	58,9	1.400.618	54,2	1.923.137	52,33
TOTAL	320.815	100	335.311	100	2.584.773	100	3.675.043	100

Source: TURKSTAT, based on 2017 data, created by the author

While 805 firms in Turkey were active in 2009 in the high-tech group, the number of firms in the period 2009-2015 increased by 40%. The 30% increase in employment in the same technology group (42% in the manufacturing industry) is the first indication that the industry is in a development (Table 2). In addition, low and medium-low technology industries dominate the manufacturing industry in Turkey with a share of over 90% still at the number of firms. The same group has also formed an important business area in the country's economy with an 80% share in terms of employment in the manufacturing sector in recent years.

Table 3: Exports by Technology Levels (dollars) - Turkey

	2010		2012		2014		2016	
	Export	%	Export	%	Export	%	Export	%
A	3.365.705.110	3,16	4.493.535.793	3,1	4.617.639.862	3,1	4.250.014.981	3,2
B	34.166.301.623	32,1	41.003.582.226	28	46.836.427.927	32	44.594.513.293	33
C	33.693.070.132	31,7	54.374.531.213	38	43.149.075.746	29	38.077.881.021	28
D	35.122.289.055	33	44.434.286.355	31	53.863.278.673	36	47.863.838.611	36
TOTAL	106.347.365.920	100	144.305.935.587	100	148.466.422.208	100	134.786.247.906	100

Source: TURKSTAT, based on 2017 data, created by the author

When the export structure of the Turkish manufacturing industry sector is analyzed, the exports of the total manufacturing sector have decreased compared to the previous year in 2016, with an increase from 2010 to 2016 (Table 3). Within the total manufacturing industry sector, there is a 30% increase in exports of goods entering the high and medium-high technology group in 2010-2016 period. The share of these two groups in the total manufacturing sector reached to 36.2% in 2016 from 35.2%. Therefore, this is an important development for the high and medium-high technology manufacturing sector when compared with other shows. The share of exports of low-tech goods in the total manufacturing sector increased 36% from 33% in 2010 to 36% in 2016. While the exports of goods in the medium-low technology group increased by 13% between 2010 and 2016, the share of the total manufacturing sector in the same period decreased from 31.7% to 28%, unlike other technology groups. As a result, Turkey still has a significant share of 64% in 2016 (Table 3), as is the case for low and medium-low technology group exports in 2010.

Table 4: Imports by Technology Levels (dollars) - Turkey

	2010		2012		2014		2016	
	Import	%	Import	%	Import	%	Import	%
A	19.220.854.379	13,2	20.437.364.457	11,6	23.809.992.283	12,6	26.071.868.042	15,5
B	64.059.659.203	44	75.747.691.529	42,8	81.528.761.676	43,3	77.105.791.033	45,8
C	41.905.517.490	28,8	57.030.937.381	32,3	57.400.226.636	30,5	43.243.657.348	25,7
D	20.528.779.820	14,1	23.593.845.006	13,3	25.765.570.161	13,7	21.805.122.298	13
TOTAL	145.714.810.892	100	176.809.838.373	100	188.504.550.756	100	168.226.438.721	100

Source: TURKSTAT, based on 2017 data, created by the author

Looking at the technological level of imported goods in the manufacturing sector, goods in the high and medium-high technology group increased by 24% in the period of 2010-2016 and their share in the total manufacturing sector increased from 57.2% to 61.3% (Table 4). As mentioned earlier, the share of exports of high and medium-tech goods in the same period was 36.2% in 2016 and the share of imports was 61.3%. While the imports of goods produced in low and medium-low technology groups increased by 4% between 2010 and 2016, their share in total imports decreased from 43% to 38.7%. This indicator shows that Turkey is moving towards high and medium-high technology group regarding imports (Table 4). This situation shows that the manufacturing industry in Turkey is more and more dependent on external markets and

increasing current deficit. The way to improve this negative situation is to increase the added value created in this sector, especially with the number of products and firms competing globally, which would increase the level of technology of the manufacturing industry.

Gaziantep Technological Change in Manufacturing Sector:

According to ISIC Rev.3 and Rev.4 classification obtained from TURKSTAT NUTS 1 (province) scale, 2, 3 or 4 digit data were used in the analysis of goods produced in Gaziantep's manufacturing sector according to 4 different technological group. In this part of the study, it was not possible to determine the technological change in the manufacturing sector of Gaziantep because the production, added value, number of firms and employment statistics were not published by the TURKSTAT. On the other hand, Gaziantep is making the changes in the level of technology in manufacturing sector from the data of the firms exporting and importing in the city.

Table 5: Indicators of Foreign Trade Performance of Gaziantep Manufacturing Sector, Dollar

	Export	Import	Capacity of Foreign Trade	Balance of Foreign Trade	Rate of Exports Meeting Imports (%)	Rate of Deficiency (%)
2010	3.427.447.370	2.890.191.224	6.317.638.594	+537.256.146	118,6	-
2012	5.418.998.298	4.437.431.868	9.856.430.166	+981.566.430	122,1	-
2014	6.528.850.315	5.016.756.745	11.545.607.060	+1.512.093.570	130,1	-
2016	6.103.605.663	3.935.309.515	10.038.915.178	+2.168.296.148	155,1	-

Source: TURKSTAT, based on 2017 data, created by the author

The total foreign trade volume of Gaziantep province, which was 6.3 billion dollars in 2010, reached 10 billion dollars with an increase of 59% in 2010-2016 period (Table 5). However, Gaziantep's foreign trade volume in the manufacturing sector reached its peak year of 11.5 billion dollars in 2014. Between 2010 and 2016, the rate of exports meeting imports varies from year to year, with the exports being higher in all years, giving "foreign trade surplus". In other words, exports in Gaziantep have been surplus in every period and this shows that the city of Gaziantep is a net exporter.

Table 6: Exports According to Technology Levels (dollar) - Gaziantep

	2010		2012		2014		2016	
	Exports	%	Exports	%	Exports	%	Exports	%
A	4.119.006	0,12	10.616.162	0,2	23.460.690	0,36	21.501.319	0,35
B	280.220.243	8,18	343.124.853	6,33	539.137.402	8,26	498.009.276	8,16
C	630.808.514	18,4	800.845.438	14,8	869.923.431	13,3	702.682.103	11,5
D	2.512.299.607	73,3	4.264.411.845	78,7	5.096.328.792	78,1	4.881.412.965	80
TOTAL	3.427.447.370	100	5.418.998.298	100	6.528.850.315	100	6.103.605.663	100

Source: TURKSTAT, based on 2017 data, created by the author

In the Gaziantep manufacturing sector, exports of goods produced in the high technology group increased by 422% (4 times) in the period of 2010-2016 and total exports of Gaziantep reached from 0,12% to 0,35% in the same period (Table 6). In the exports of goods produced in the medium-high technology group, there was not much difference between 2010 and 2016 and its share in total exports reached 8,16%. In the medium-low technology group exports increased by 11.4% compared to the period 2010-2016, but in the same period the share of total exports decreased from 11,5% to 18,4% (Table 6). Therefore, the greatest decrease among the technology groups was realized in this group. The decline in this group emerges as an "increase" in the low tech group. That is, the share of low-tech goods in total exports with a record increase of 94% in the period of exports of 2010-2016 has increased from 73% to 80% in the same years (Table 6). The increase rate in the low tech group in Gaziantep is about 3 times higher than the increase in total export volume of Turkey (Table 3 and 6).

When we look at the technological dimension of imports in Gaziantep, it is remarkable that there is the same export. When the imported goods are examined according to the technology groups, the highest share is in the medium-high technology group. The share of the total manufacturing sector in imports declined from 75% to 61.6% during the same period, although imports of intermediate goods and especially 20-code products were up by 11.8% between 2010 and 2016 (Table 7). Another technology group that has fallen is the medium-low manufacturing group. Since the production of a large part of the goods in this group has been replaced by the Gaziantep industry, there has been a serious decline both in quantity (13% decrease) and share (4.57% to 2.92%) between 2010 and 2016. Another significant aspect is the increase in imports of products in the low-tech group. While the share of this group in Turkey's total imports decreased, there was a 127% increase in Gaziantep between 2010-2016. Its share in total imports also reached from 18% to 30% in the same period. While imports of high technology products increased by 198% in the period of 2010-2016, in other words about 2 times, the share of total imports increased from 2.53% to 5.54%. As a result, while the share of imports of high and medium-high technology products in Turkey's imports was around 61% (Table 4), Gaziantep city imported 67% of medium-high and high technology products (Table 7).

Table 7: Imports by Technology Levels (dollar) - Gaziantep

	2010		2012		2014		2016	
	Import	%	Import	%	Import	%	Import	%
A	73.234.922	2,53	91.697.587	2,07	137.058.782	2,73	218.169.694	5,54
B	2.165.993.253	74,9	2.998.796.974	67,6	3.418.939.088	68,2	2.422.423.714	61,6
C	132.159.874	4,57	157.386.229	3,55	130.328.984	2,6	114.869.509	2,92
D	518.803.175	18	1.189.551.078	26,8	1.330.429.891	26,5	1.179.846.598	30
TOTAL	2.890.191.224	100	4.437.431.868	100	5.016.756.745	100	3.935.309.515	100

Source: TURKSTAT, based on 2017 data, created by the author

While the manufacturing industry in Turkey gave foreign trade deficit each year, it was seen that the city of Gaziantep gave "foreign trade surplus" in contrast to the trend in Turkey (Table 5). While the share of exports in Gaziantep's exports, especially in 2010, constituted 3.2% of the total exports of the Turkish manufacturing sector, it increased by 56% in 2010-2016 period and reached 4.4% of Turkey's total exports in 2016. Gaziantep is ranked 6th in Turkey in 2016 after Istanbul, Ankara, Kocaeli, Izmir and Bursa with this export performance (TURKSTAT, 2017). On the other hand, imports in Gaziantep in 2010 accounted for 2% of total imports in Turkey, an increase of 73% in 2010-2016 period and reached a share of 2.3% in total imports in Turkey in 2016.

3. Conclusion:

The high and medium-high technology group of the manufacturing sector, which is regarded as the locomotive of economic growth, is a sector that has grown rapidly in recent years especially in the developed countries, has increased the level of prosperity and has added high value. The share of manufacturing industry, which is now decreasing in developed countries, is developing very slowly in Turkey and it is a sector which has a decreasing share in GNP in recent years. This situation proves especially that the number of firms in the high and medium-high technology group, the number of employed persons, the production value of the produced goods and the added value are low. Moreover, Turkey has shown that it is an importer in this sector. In particular, imports of products in the high and medium-tech group exceeded 100 billion dollars (60% of total imports). The production of domestic low and medium-low technology products meet the need of production consumption and some of them are exported. However, the city of Gaziantep has imported relatively high and medium-high technology products which are not different from the general situation of Turkey. Besides, both production and export of goods in the low and medium-low technology group, which are considered as traditional production, are much more than the exports of Turkey. At the same time, the fact that exports of low and medium-low technology goods in Gaziantep, which is close to 92%, show that it is an industrial city based mostly on labor-intensive production. This is a sign that the production technology of the city of Gaziantep is unfortunately far behind developed countries and Turkey. Regarding this production model in traditional style and export sustainability, there are serious questions for both Turkey and Gaziantep city.

The lack of sufficient data on production in this part of the study of Gaziantep city is a weakness of this work. Nevertheless, foreign trade data provide information about the production technology of Gaziantep city which is limited to us. Cities such

as Gaziantep should plan technological innovation for a long time in order to compete with the other important cities of the world in manufacturing industry. In fact, this process of technological change takes place with innovations, but in this process there is a risk of destructive features for firms and employment opportunities that can not perform especially technological innovation in the places where the manufacturing industry like Gaziantep is the frontline. This may perhaps lead firms to take their place of residence (ie, the redistribution of the space) into their agenda. As a result, as innovations or technological developments emerge in the context of evolutionist theory, it is important not to forget that traditional production areas like Gaziantep can get out of the way in time and that another city can take its place.

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Identifying the Influential Factors on Social Impact Assessment of Reconstruction Projects in Historic Site - A Case Study on Jameh Mosque Street, Yazd, Iran

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Abstract

Social impact assessment (SIA) is a process that provides a framework for gathering and analyzing information to determine intended and unintended social consequences of changes and developmental interventions on human environment. This assessment that emphasizes on social and cultural issues, is more important in historic site that have more tangible social role than the new parts of the city and these areas should be preserved by planning and subsequent evaluations due to their cultural heritage value. The aim of this paper that evaluated social impacts of reconstruction project of Jameh Mosque Street of Yazd city in Iran when it came into operation, is to identify specific indicators for SIA in historic site through the use of general indicators and matching SIA process to the historical and cultural context of the heritage site. In order to achieve this goal, the research is based on SIA approach also descriptive and inferential statistics and focus group methodology were used to analyze the environment data. Hypotheses and measuring variables tested by analytic hierarchy process (AHP) and qualitative analysis with domain matrix. Accordingly, the estimation and selection of the effects of the project and its prioritization are based on some factors such as the importance and degree of feasibility that have different result in heritage site than the new urban areas. Finally, an operational framework and some strategic suggestions were made to improve the general process of SIA to use in heritage site and maximizing the efficiency of similar projects in every historic areas which leads to the consent of stakeholders.

Keywords: Social Impact Assessment (SIA), Historic site, Culture, Yazd.

Introduction

In terms of Armour, social impacts are changes that occur in people's life style, culture including customs, beliefs, values and the last one in society (Armour, 1992). The Inter-organizational Committee on Guidelines and Principles for Social Assessment (1994) (cited in Glasson 2000) defined social impacts as 'the consequences to human populations of any public or private actions that alter the ways in which people live, work, play, relate to one another, organize to meet their needs, and generally cope as members of society'. The purpose of urban rehabilitation projects is to improve the physical and spatial quality. Physical changes are very tangible, but changes such as economic, social and environmental are not easy to understand. Changes that have far greater effects than physical changes. On the other hand, if these changes occur in a sensitive environment, it will have far more impact. The environment-sensitive, valuable environments that are highly vulnerable to various reasons.

Thus, this paper presents a list of significant factors to access the social impacts of revitalizing and reconstruction projects in historic site, using specific part of Yazd as a case study of dense urban city facing redevelopment plans after UNESCO inscribed the city on world heritage list.

Social impact assessment - the origins, definition and necessity

In the 1970s, the origins of social impact assessment come from the Environmental impact assessment (EIA) model in the USA (Bryan, 2009). This method emerged to assess the impacts on society of the projects before they go ahead. Though today pre-conflict, in-conflict and post-conflict are as three possible SIA time point (Barrow, 2010).

Although there is no unique definition of SIA, it can be understood from description of individuals, groups and communities. In a research context, social impact assessment is a sub-field of the integrated social sciences that is developing a knowledge base to allow a systematic appraisal of impacts on the day-to-day quality of life of persons and communities whose environment is affected by a proposed policy, plan, program or project (Burdge, 1999: 4) also Vanday knows social impact assessment as a process to managing the social issues related to planned intervention (Vanclay 2003a, 2006).

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Guidelines and Principles, 1994: 1).

Reconstruction and reviving projects can be seen as a strategy focusing on the physical improvement but has direct and indirect effects not just on the physical. The historic site is not only preserved for its historical and architectural values, but also for rich identity and social values that are brighter than the new parts of the city (Swensen, 2012).

Methodology

Research is based on SIA approach also descriptive and inferential statistics and focus group methodology were used to analyze the environment data. Hypotheses and measuring variables tested by analytic hierarchy process (AHP) and qualitative analysis with domain matrix. The survey method of research is performed using data collection tools such as observation, interview and questionnaires. It is necessary to determine the sample size of statistics. Accordingly, the sample size is 80 questionnaires using Cochran's formula. 58 questionnaires were distributed among residents and 22 questionnaires distributed among the shopkeepers of Masjed Jameh Street. In order to resolve the probable problems of the questionnaire and to ensure its comprehensibility, a preliminary draft was carried out with the participation of a number of professors and experts in the field of urban planning and its validity order confirmed then its reliability was confirmed by Cronbach's Alpha method with a confidence level of 96%. Subsequently, questionnaires and interviews were completed randomly in the site. Finally, the data were analyzed using SPSS software.

Indicators of social impact assessment

To identify the indicators and variables for assessing social impacts, suggested indicators of theorists and communities such as Inter organizational Committee on SIA (1994), Rabel Burdge (1999), Bureau of Reclamation (2001), Taylor (2004) and Finsterbusch (1981) are introduced.

Table1. Proposed criteria by experts

Inter Organizational Committee on SIA (1994)	Burdge (1999)	Bureau of Reclamation (2001)	Taylor (2004)	Finsterbusch (1981)
Population characteristics means present population and change as a result of the proposed action	Population impacts means changes in number, density and distribution	Population means changes in number, density and distribution and resulting composition	Population impacts means changes in number and density	Community inputs: labor, natural resources, financial resources, economic and cultural facilities
Community and institutional structure refers to the size, structure and level of organization of local government	Community and institutional arrangements means changes in attitudes, values, and in government and employment	Community composition means changes in image, power structure, conflicts with outsiders and alteration in present institutions	Changing people's life style, Attitudes, beliefs and values	Social Outputs: Quality of Life (employment, housing, access to services, etc.), social (appropriate social relations, education, health, good mental status, etc.), Political (public participation, freedom and civil rights, equality and justice, etc.).
Political and social resources refers to the distribution of power authority, interested and affected parties and leadership capacity.	Communities in transition refers to alterations in power with the arrival of different groups and agendas	Community attitudes, identity and institutional structures means changes in attitudes, values, local government and employment	Change in social organization	Structures of the community: general structures and concrete social structures (government, labor market, commodity market, credit market, educational system, system Welfare, religious and cultural institutions, voluntary associations, the planning system, etc.)
Individual and family changes refers to factors that influence daily life, to include attitudes, values, perceptions and social networks	Individual and family level impacts means changes in family and individual relations and conduct of daily life	Individuals and families means changes in family structure, social relations and perceptions of change in daily life		Activities of the community: Understand the activities that individuals perform in various areas of work, personal life, family and social life
Community resources	Community	Community		

refers to patterns of land use, community services and indigenous people	infrastructure needs means changes in community services and the tax base	infrastructure needs means changes in infrastructure as a result of a proposed development		
		Social justice and indigenous responsibility means effect on equity , human rights and participation in change decisions		

A panel of experts, government officials and stakeholders (residents, employees and space users) invited to participate in the process of developing a list of critical factors for evaluating the social impacts of reconstruction and renewal projects in historic site. During the in-depth interviews and fill in the questionnaire they provided the list of critical factors (table 2).

Table2. List of obtained variables

Indicator	Cause of measurement	Measurement method	Affected group
Quality of Life	Reasons for leaving the neighborhood	Questionnaire and interview	Residents
Immigration	Demographic Impact Assessment	Questionnaire and interview	Residents
Environmental health	The impact of the plan on neighborhood health	Questionnaire, interview and observation	Residents and Neighborhood shopper
Safety and security	Neighborhood Security	Questionnaire and interview	Residents and Neighborhood shopper
Car access	Identify the changes caused by restricting cars	Scrolling the trip	Drivers
The presence of tourists	The inclination of travelers to attend the historic neighborhood	interview	Tourists and Neighborhood shopper
Relations with neighbors	Determine the amount of social communication	Questionnaire and interview	Residents and Neighborhood shopper
Desire to leave the neighborhood	Estimated loss of social and human capital	Questionnaire and interview	Government and Residents
The desire to renew the historic site	Understanding the causes of the lack of renewal plans of the historic site	Questionnaire and interview	Government and Residents
Change Job Opportunities	Identify the prospect of economic prosperity and social conditions	interview	Neighborhood shopper
Participation	Impact of project exploitation on people's motivation	interview	Government, Residents and Neighborhood shopper

Case Studies

The case of reconstruction project of Jameh Mosque Street as a part of historic site in Yazd will be used to test the list of indicators.



Figure1. Jameh Mosque Street

Identify impacts and attributes

The SIA's variables help the researcher to list a possible impact based on the role of these variables on the social context of case study also the list is on the impact of "SIA variables" on "sensitive areas" within the geographical and human geographic ranges of planned action and consideration of "important stakeholders" (Simpson, 2000).

To identify the influential factors in assessing the social effects of the projects in historic site, the features of the possible impacts must be identified. This attribute of probabilistic effects is measured by the effects of the Jameh street project and scored with AHP method in the Expert Choice software. The output is the priority of these parameters.

Building the AHP Models

In order to prioritize the characteristics of the criteria for assessing the social impacts of historic site projects, a hierarchy tree is developed. The model consist of 8 alternatives (Variable attributes) and 13 indicators (most important impacts of Jameh street). The elements of hierarchy tree is presented in table 3. The goal is exist at the top of the control hierarchy for the model. The goal is to identify and prioritize influential characteristic of the criteria to assess social impacts of urban projects in historic site. The 13 indicators employed for the analysis. These indicators are prepared according to the technical criteria and in accordance with the context of the project (historical context of Yazd city). It must be accepted that the selection of impacts and attributes is a collaborative effort made in the context of the value system (Fazeli, 2012) and they can be defined in follows statements.

The impacts that are likely to occur and the extent of their effects are high and those that are less likely to occur, but the extent of their effects is high, are more important.

The effects on the most vulnerable groups, such as the elderly, the disabled and children, are prioritized

The effects that have long affected the environment are prioritized.

The effects that can produce additional and more cumulative effects are prioritized.

The effects that can have security implications or challenge overall policies are priorities.

The effects that are causing conflict and tension on the basis of social sensitivities are more important.

The effects that bring about huge economic costs to society are prioritized

The effects that will contribute to the improvement of the historic site as a valuable area of Yazd are prioritized.

The impacts that promote social values among residents of the Jameh mosque neighborhood.

Table3. Domain Matrix for Jameh Mosque Street

<div style="text-align: center;"> Impact / Attributes </div>	Vulnerable groups 0.113	Existence of the effects 0.102	cumulative effects 0.160	Security Consequences 0.045	Social sensitivities 0.165	Economic costs 0.056	social values 0.182	High intensity effects 0.177
Return of former residents to the neighborhood (L: 0.026)	0.086	0.716	0.350	0.096	0.364	0.175	1.00	0.545
Reduced noise pollution (L: 0.064)	1.00	0.634	0.975	0.125	0.147	0.596	0.426	0.514
Facilitate the movement of pedestrians (L: 0.167)	0.514	0.469	0.637	0.160	0.642	0.341	0.656	1.00
Reduce air pollution (L: 0.039)	1.00	0.491	0.642	0.090	0.107	0.086	0.264	0.105
The aesthetic quality of the landscape (L: 0.051)	0.139	0.379	0.439	0.176	0.881	0.166	0.784	1.00
Increasing economic prosperity (L: 0.072)	0.192	0.634	1.00	0.212	0.238	0.279	0.731	0.988
Disruption in the movement of residents with vehicle (L: 0.036)	0.832	0.339	0.367	0.142	0.474	0.303	0.367	1.00
Increasing people's security (L: 0.120)	1.00	0.288	0.497	0.468	0.590	0.164	0.994	0.393
Constraints on the provision of infrastructure (L: 0.033)	0.271	0.273	0.344	0.335	0.194	1.00	0.050	0.486
Revitalizing historic site (L: 0.126)	0.114	0.323	0.814	0.082	1.00	0.249	0.784	0.848
Improving the social relationships of residents (L: 0.208)	0.130	0.212	0.468	0.062	1.00	0.051	0.788	0.382

Increasing citizen participation (L: 0.024)	0.133	0.244	0.683	0.276	0.736	0.295	1.00	0.569
Preservation of cultural heritage (L: 0.033)	0.138	0.750	0.353	0.122	0.566	0.137	0.936	1.00

According to the result of the model, the impacts that promote social values among residents of historic site are the most influential factor for assess social impacts of this area and Followed by the intensity of the impact, Social sensitivities and cumulative effects. Security consequences and Economic costs are ranked as the least influential factors. The result presented in figure 2.

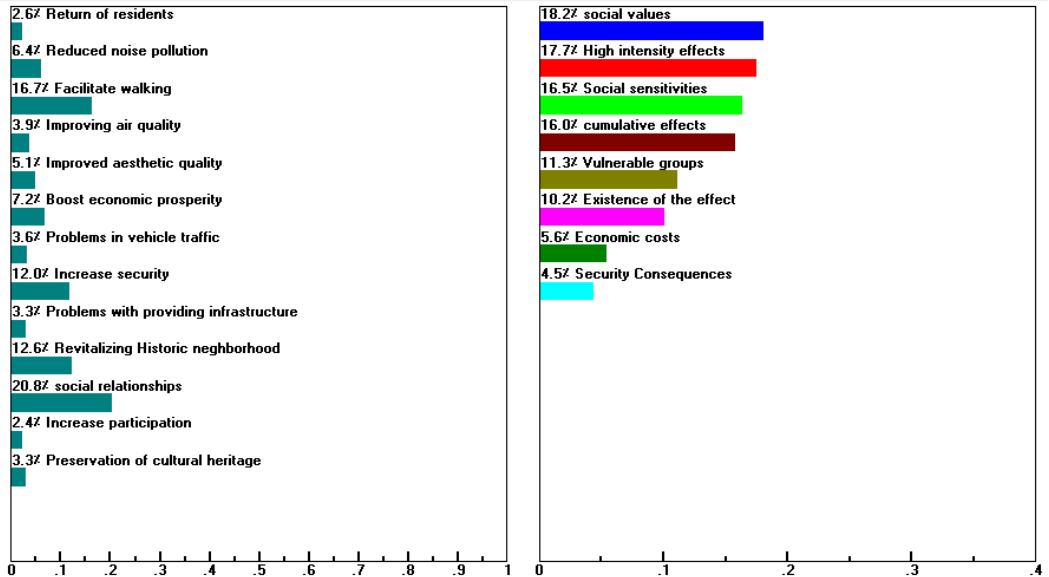


Figure2. Graphical results of Model

Conclusions

Social impact assessment is necessary for every change in the city to inform decision makers about the consequences of their decisions. The social impacts of projects in historic site are different than the other parts of the city because of rich identity and social values in this area so it is essential to identify and prioritize the significant features of the historic site and to be used in the SIA's process based on the score of each other. The first important factor is to adhere to the principles, views and social values of the inhabitants of the historic neighborhood and any changes that cause a change in the lifestyle of these people must be applied carefully. The second most influential factor in evaluating historic neighborhood projects is paying attention to the severity of the effect. The possibility of compensating for the negative consequences in this area is low and sometimes leads to the loss of historical value or social and cultural life. The third one is paying attention to the problems that residents have a special sensitivity towards them such as racial and religious prejudice, gender inequality and beliefs. In the historic site, this factor is so strong that it can prevent the implementation of the project. The fourth most important factor in assessing social impacts is to pay attention to the effects that lead to subsequent consequences. These next implications usually have effect greater than the initial and the physical and spatial capacities of historic site may not be ready to face these consequences. At last but not least, attention to vulnerable groups, the sustainability of the effects

over time, economic costs and security consequences are the significant factors for historic neighborhood. Finally, it is essential to determine the characteristics of each effects at the stage of predicting possible effects in SIA's process to determine the importance of each effect base on scores earned by their prioritization and decisions are made to enhance or eliminate the effect.

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"The Big Sister Model in Educational Training" The Art of Mentoring and fellow Mentoring" (BSM)

Warda Sada-Gerges (PhD)

Abstract

In an ongoing search for new models to streamline college training and mentoring, a different training model was developed called the "Big Sister Model". This model was experienced for five years in the kindergarten-training program at the Kay College of education in Israel. Within this model, two female students are trained in each kindergarten: one in the third college year and the other in the second. Together with kindergarten staff, the two students plan the class curriculum and activities. A third-year student, who possesses additional one year experience in practicing (veteran), has the opportunity to mentor a 2nd year student who also has the opportunity to observe the training of the third year and get more experience. This process provides a good staff relationship and develops interpersonal relations based on social and psychological elements, which points to a huge positive change in behavior, interpersonal relations and its motivations. In peer mentoring, the mentor accompanies, analyzes, supports, instructs, empowers and provides necessary knowledge in the mentoring process. It undergoes a process of empowerment, leadership, and success (Power et Al, 2011). This study is a continuous action research that aims at examining the effectiveness of the "Big sister" training model. When a third-year student mentors a second-year student, her personality will be accordingly empowered. Moreover, she is exposed to another year of the second year training program, once when she receives guidance in the second year and once more as a 3rd year student mentor. The second-year student enjoys continuous training throughout the day with a close colleague in addition to the training teacher and pedagogical mentor. In addition, she reveals the contents and skills of the third year allowing her ongoing internalization over time all third-year program. In the effectiveness of the training, we also sought to deeply examine the areas that this model promotes and strengthens as well as, how much the students perceive it as a training benefactor compared to the regular model in a control group.

Key words: Peer mentoring, preservice training program, mentor, mentee, college, leadership

1. Introduction

Kaye College of education is located in Be'er Sheva in southern Israel, and therefore reflects the population in the region. Approximately 50% of students enrolled are Bedouin (males and females) who attend various specializations. Bedouin¹society is conservative and controlled by traditional customs and norms, so the existing educational concepts are not always compatible with new educational concepts and sometimes even contradict them. Most of the students are female by time. Bedouin female teacher represents the new educational approach on one hand, and is being fed by the social traditional perception on the other hand. This puts her in a conflict situation and pushes her to preserve the status quo, or to lead to a change in the environment's perceptions (Abu Asbeh, Karakra, A. & Arar, and H. 2007). Empowering her personally and professionally, designs her professional identity to be able to lead and face new challenges and match them to her community needs (Moghadam, 1993; Giddens, 1994; Gilat, 2010).

¹Bedouins in Israel are a minority within the Arab minority, part of the population of original Palestinian Arabs who remained in Israel after 1948 war (Abu-Saad, 2001).

Table 1: Birth and Death Rates among General Population in Israel, Muslims in Israel and Moslems (Bedouins & others) in the Negev, 2008

Demography characters	Bedouins /Negev	General population /Negev	Moslem population/ Israel	General population/ Israel
Age structure under 14	55.1%	33.8%	41.4%	
Births/1000	43.3	25.9	28.5	21.5
Fertility	6.91	3.68	3.84	2.96
Infant mortality rate/1000	10.6	7.2	7.1	3.9
Gross Mortality Rate	2.2	2.9	2.5	5.4

Bedouin Female students usually enroll in college soon after finishing high school. Their ages usually are 18-22. Some of them are already engaged and some got married and have kids. Usually, Bedouin woman education is directed to women's traditional channel of childcare (see Statistical yearbook of Bedouin, 2004, 2013). Thus, most of the Bedouin females study humanities and social sciences in the university and colleges, which allow them to join the teaching field that is perceived as a female profession (Espanyoli et al., 2003). Therefore, Bedouin female students choose this field of specialization at the teacher training colleges, which will prepare them to be teachers in kindergarten or school.

College studies bring the Bedouin female student into a change in personality; enlarging their educational and professional knowledge they require to understand and effectively do their job, they will have an eye and a window to other cultures that affect their social and educational perspectives, and get more qualifications in professional, social and life skills (Sada-Gerges, 2013).

Table 2: Female Bedouin percentage in Ben-Gurion University and in the Kaye-the Academic College of Education in the years 1998-2002 and 2011

Year	High studies Institute	Bedouin students	Bedouin female students	% Bedouin female students
1998-2002	Ben-Gurion University	244	54	22.1%
	kaye college	339	216	63.7%
2003	Ben-Gurion University	319	142	44.5%
	Kaye college	430	282	65.58%
2011	Ben-Gurion University	472	311	65.8%
	Kaye college	405	303	74.8%

The curricula in the college are designed to provide adequate and sufficient educational and professional tools to Bedouin female students, which are foreseen to facilitate and support their job as kindergarten and preschool teachers in dealing with the children. However, the curricula do not provide enough personal and social tools needed to promote the necessary changes that female Bedouin students tend to initiate in their conservative community and to stand in front of halts which may be impeded or stop them (Sada-Gerges, 2013).

Training and experiencing the teaching process is a main part of the learning development at the college where the student internalizes the materials and bridges between theoretical learning and experience. So pedagogic training at Kaye College is a matter of many challenges. The unique structure of Kaye College and the relationship between the college's visitors requires a constant search for challenges and reforms. However, in order to seek for a new challenge that matched the characteristics of Bedouin society, all the second, third and fourth-year students were recruited in-group interviews in order to hear their opinions and what they thought about what they have had gone through to the college and see on the field. One of the challenges offered was a new training model called the "Big Sister Model, the art of mentoring and peer mentoring" a peer-mentoring program which was suggested to strengthen the training process.

What is Pedagogic Guidance Program?

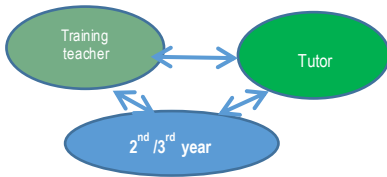


Figure 3 Regular Training Model

According to the Ministry of Education in Israel, College Pedagogic mentoring program is a program in which a college mentor teacher send her / his students to practice the teaching in the field (Walkington, j., et. al., 2001, Hudson, Peter B., 2013). He or she is supposed to provide guidance and feedback to students undergoing teaching in the training classes. In this case, we talk about the kindergarten as a training class. Usually, one or two (mostly) students from the same year (2nd or 3rd-year) do their practicing in training class. Mostly, each student does a separate activity according to the subject and the missions required in the kindergarten. Second-year student usually works in small groups while the 3rd year student is more integrated in managing the circle time activity in addition to the group activities. She is responsible for managing the day's agenda together with the kindergarten staff in several days during the year. The two students work together and separately. At best, a joint work plan is written in cooperation with the teacher and under her supervision. However, it does not always work out. The pedagogical tutor visits the student in the garden, staying for about one to two hours and sometimes more. She watches and follows the student and the children's reactions to the activity she has prepared and performs. Duration of activity is about half an hour. When the student finishes the activity, the counselor asks to sit down with her to give feedback on what she has seen. Sometimes the teacher also joins this feedback session

In the regular training model, the three remaining vertices of the training is a teacher-instructor teacher and a pedagogical instructor (Bates, A.J., Ramirez, L., Driis, D., 2009). Every student has the mentoring circle shown in (Figure1).

2. The Big Sister Model, The Art of Mentoring and fellow Mentoring (BSM):

2.1 Developing and Implementing Steps

Relying on the known ancient saying of Roman philosopher Seneca: "while we teach we learn", the peer mentor program was suggested to assimilate what is learned because the best way to understand a concept is to explain it to someone else (Paul, A. 2011). Third-year students will be empowered by the fact that they guide their colleagues, explain to them and building a relationship of teamwork. Thus, long-term exposure further, assimilates the contents, and enables the student to better manage his knowledge. This is what BSM project.

According to CaelaFarren, expertise leading people to mastery and creative management, "Peer mentoring is a form of mentorship that usually occurs between a person who has lived through a specific experience (Peer Mentor) and a person who is new to that experience (the Peer Mentee). "Mentors, who may be older or younger than you, are those who know more about a certain area of expertise than you do. Mentoring is a learning and development partnership between a professional, with in-depth experience and knowledge in a specific area and a protégé seeking learning and coaching in the same area" (Farren, C., 2006). The Peer Mentor may challenge the mentee with new ideas, and encourages the Mentee to move beyond things that are most comfortable. Thus, through peer mentoring, the mentor accompanies, analyzes, supports, instructs, empowers and provides necessary knowledge in the mentoring process. It undergoes a process of empowerment, leadership, and success (Power and Al., 2011; Roberts, A. 2000).

2.2 Why "Big sister"?

Big sister in the Bedouin or Arab society is a main character in the house after the mother; she helps in cleaning, cooking, and child caring (Al-Hassani. A., 2012). She tries to be a good modeling for her brothers and sisters and take responsibilities that empower her leadership skills. This name of the project was inspired by one of the first year students who described her mentor as a big sister after one year of peer mentoring. Later on, after discussing the project with the college president this name is adopted.

2.3 The project avatar:

The very beginning- 1st step:

It began in Fall Semester 2007 with the goal of increasing the internalization of training process during the college studies for the preschool students. It was motivated by two reasons:

During a collective interview, Bedouin female students in the early childhood program students expressed their fears of being sucked into the traditional teaching system when they finish college and join the teaching system in school, as did some of the college-graduated students, who adopted the traditional ways in teaching after finishing their studies in college. This reason led to the question:

Is the college training program and curricula enough for initialization the modern teaching process? How to strengthen the internalization process? It was suggested to adopt a peer-mentoring model. A peer mentor is defined as a resource, a helping hand, a sounding board, a referral service, providing both personal and professional support for students in the early stages of a graduate program. In peer mentoring, the mentor accompanies, analyzes, supports, instructs, empowers and provides necessary knowledge in the mentoring process. It undergoes a process of empowerment, leadership, and success (Power and Al) research (2011). Various studies (Hoban et al., 2009) found that mentoring increases self-confidence, professional growth, self-reflection, and problem-solving abilities among new / novice teachers as well as mentors. It also promotes peer-to-peer collaboration

Moreover, researchers show that mentoring models based on mutual learning are very effective on the process learning, since the mentor, who is a slightly more experienced colleague, and the mentee, together adopt a position of research, engages together in collaborative reflection, and builds new understandings and each one plays an important role in providing personal and professional input in the process Learning (Le Comu & Ewing, 2008).

Reviewing all the benefits of the mentoring process encourages the director to adopt it accompanying by action research.

At the beginning of the year 2007-2008, the first year grade-training program was stopped according to the new Ministry curriculum. Therefore, there was a need to bridge the courses they study and the practice. This requires assisting the students in preparing and implementing the activities in a real class during the intensive experience week, which takes place twice a year. For this purpose, one 3rd year student (mentor) was recruited to one or two students in the 1st year (mentee). Individual and group meetings were held to discuss the missions. Students (mentor and mentee) organized the individual meetings every two weeks. While the tutor organized the group meetings to reflect the previous steps, goals, and draw the next action map. Part of the students was from the same place so they met more often on different occasions. First-year students (mentee) earned some benefits from this mentoring program:

Getting help in planning and preparing activities in a kindergarten.

Reporting a nice and fast socialization in college.

Meeting and experiencing the educational process in kindergarten.

".. The mentoring process was excellent, it was fun for me, especially when we attended the kindergarten, in which we tried to deal with the children"... (Ahlam)

"... I learn how to make an activity plan". (Ameera)

"...my mentor was responsible and accompanied me in every step I did... she was like a **big sister** (Najat)

"... I recommend this program for any 1st year student..." (Nuha)

"...My socialization process was better in the college. I felt confident" (Hana)

Third-year students (mentors) also earned some benefits from this mentoring program:

They got an extra credit academic point for tutoring.

They earned social and educational skills by guiding the younger students,

They felt leaders and motivated by getting the chance to lead other students.

"... This program made me feel more confident."

"... Reveal more to my abilities." (Zqrayat)

"... Acquaint with other (new) people" (Rasha)

“... Feeling I can be a leader...” (Iman)

“... Learn from my mistakes of last year..” (Khadija)

These feedbacks and much more about the program bring the head of the department who was the mentor at the same time to develop it further. The same students in the 1st year asked for additional guidance in the next year. this moves the project to the second stage of intensive mentoring time.

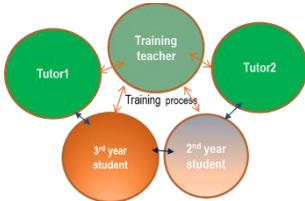


Figure4: Two Tutors Model in BSM

SecondStage: Two Tutors Model in BSM

Later in the Nextyear, the 2nd-year student was engaged with a 3rd-year student in the same class with the same teacher but there were two tutors who agreed to be in the program. Tutor1 of the 2nd year students and tutor2 of the 3rd year students. These two tutors have to be in touch with the training teacher, as usual, and visit their student. The two students, mentor, and mentee spend more time together in the same class: wacht each other, help each other and working together in many missions. Tutors' visits occurred mostly at the same days, which adds more visitors to the kindergarten besides. This somewhat hindered the class teachers to be less welcoming. Tutors and students arrange two meeting along the year to reflect the training process improvements and its benefits on students which move the project to the next promotion stage.

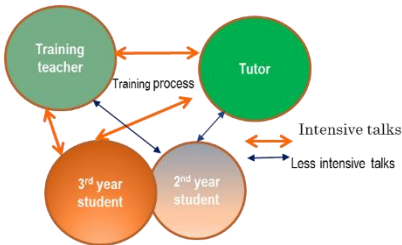


Figure 5: big sister peer- mentoring model

Third Stage: One Tutor for both students (Mentor and Mentee)

Later in the following year, the same tutor took two college year groups: 2nd-year students and 3rd-year students. She guides both groups in their curricula that is needed for each college year and bridges the issues. Meetings were conducted in separate groups and for the two groups together according to the subjects, plans and new issues arise during the training time on the field.

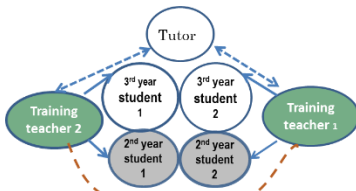


Figure 4: Working unit in two adjacent gardens

Fourthstage: Working unit in two adjacent kindergarten

This stage was promoted when field feedback meetings with one class feedback unit tutor, training teacher mentor, mentee, was taking place and the other class unit join them and share them with their experience which make the two units to have more expanded feedback meeting and the cooperation between the students is expanded to create mentoring team who works together as one unite aiming to contribute to the mentee's training development, the kindergarten curricula, and teamwork. There was a meeting during the day when the teacher assistant takes the class in an activity giving the team to work together once a week to build the final program activities to the next week.

Students usually make contacts with the teachers prior to these meetings to know the upcoming events and issues in the

kinder and plan the ideas to the teachers. This plan of ideas strengthens the relation between all class staff and students. It gave another meaning to the training program

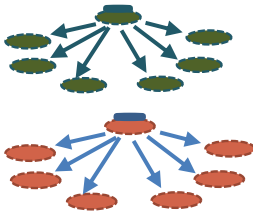


Figure 5: one group member mentoe her group

FifthStage: Creating a networking A In this stage the peer mentoring get another meaning. Every student felt the responsibility to check strengths and weaknesses in his training process. Additionally, all students in the two groups have to fill an anonymous questionnaire about every one in the group as they see them from time to time.

After sorting the points in categories, students take responsibility to work together to strengthen their points by helping each other, everyone with her strong points support others. It can be also showing special activities like telling a story, creative handmade jobs or any different thing she wants her fellows in the group to know. Both groups group members work together to support each other each make easier for everyone (Figure 5).

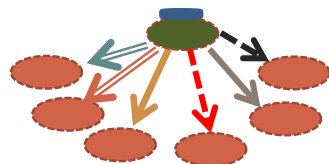


Figure 6:One group member mentors other roup

Later every group can choose one or more from its members to present an issue that she is expert in it to the other group (Figure 6)

These activities rise up during the discussions and add another meaning to the training and teaching process.

This model runs for seven years (it stopped in 2011 and 2016 when its director was in his sabbatical year. During every year two digital questionnaires were delivered to the students. All information discussed with the students that make the entire atmosphere nice and supportive.

3. Type of study, purpose, and participants,

This study is a qualitative action research study that follows the training process while implementing “the Big Sister Model (BSM). Since “Action research” requires ongoing collaboration between researcher and students during the training time. The participants were female Bedouin students in the Bedouin department of early childhood program; it starts with 1st-year students at “mentee position” while third-year students were the “Mentor”. During the process, it was moved to the 2nd-year student (mentee)], while 3rd-year student keeps their position as mentors. The study Hypothesis leans on the theory that peer mentoring is very efficient in promoting students skills (Power and Al research, 2011). By collaborating students in the research process and involving them in its purpose, which is to promote the training, and mentoring process. This brings them to be more active in reflecting their steps during their training to bring a promotion and skills enhancement that rise from their needs according to their experience. The tutor or college director get the students involved in reconsideration the type of subjects and decision-making. The range of cooperation varies greatly, from sharing all the considerations related to the research subjects to a more limited level of cooperation. The guiding principle is that the practical people are important partners in the process, whether or not they are major partners, and therefore must be included in decisions concerning their fate and the future. Moreover, providing the feedback is a necessary cognitive need, almost the motivation to understand the field of action and to give meaning to their actions. Moreover, the practice of the practical people mobilizes the level of motivation to cooperate in achieving the goals of the project and intervention feed it (Bridges, D. 2001; Gaventa, J. & Cornwall, A. (2001).

The entire number of participants in the project is 6. of the continuing steps. All the group (students and tutor) make their own group laws and group life, based on the principles of collective decision-making: stages and anchored in the principles of change, (when to meet, what to discuss, How to take decisions, where to implement and how..., through compromise, movement, and freezing (Lieberman, 1980; Forsyth, 1990). According to Fisher, (2003), in peer mentorship, different values and conflicts must be constantly explored and sought to settle them democratically. This action should be taken up to clarify the issues and questions, to their hearts, to decide them and to take decisions that take into account the interests of all those involved in the process (Fisher, K., 2003). The group is the main tool by which changes are made among the participants in the research, and it is used as a decision-making framework. The decision-making process is cooperative and subject to the rules of discussion. Starting from the first steps and continuing forward through evaluating and improving it according to the results and needs. Director, students and evaluating department are involved in getting the results of the new model training process.

4. Study questions

Since peer-mentoring program is a good way to empower students as described before, this study aims to answer the following questions:

Is it possible to put two students from different years in the same training kindergarten in order to improve their experience and empower them?

Is it possible to streamline training by using the “Big Sister Model” (BSM)?

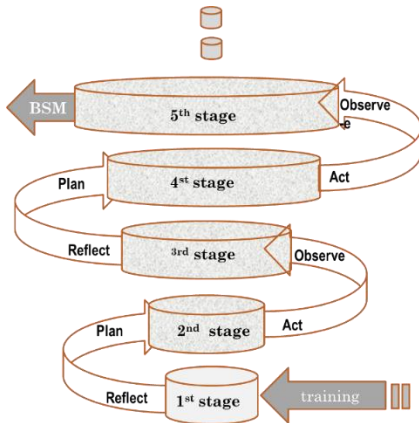


Figure 7: Spiral Promotion, step-by-step BSM

5. Research tool

The main research tools used for this study were the collective interviews group discussion. Besides the results of the monthly student training skills evaluating questionnaires and semester project questionnaire. This questionnaire was created during the implementing of the project to reflect the changes done during the project implementing and its impacts. The research strategy

This research has a spiral strategy that starts from the current situation, which was “the regular training system”. By reflecting all answers of the students and as a result of suggestion it was decided to do to “peer mentorship” as a first stage which was promoted according to the student’s backgrounds. Then every step comes after a previous step. As was described in chapter (2.3), it starts from the needs of the students who become the participants and co-researcher.

First stage: interviewing to reflect issues regarding the training system. The main conclusion from these interviews relying on another case study research done in the same place and time (Sada-gerges, 2017); this research has a spiral strategy, which starts from the current situation (The regular training system). Because of the reflection, peer mentorship was suggested at the first stage that was promoted according to the student’s backgrounds. Then every step comes after a previous step. As was described in chapter (2.2), it starts from the needs of the students who become the participants and co-researcher (Maynard & Furlong, 1993).

After one year in action and training taking into account all the notes, ideas reflected by the meetings of all the involved participants the program promote to another plan which led to Stage 2 Acting according to the plan and observing reflecting stage 3 and so on (figure7).

6. Results and discussion

6. I: BSM definition

Using a final questionnaire at the end of the every year to get a holistic description about the BSM was obligatory. Students give their opinion after being in the BSM for one year (as mentee) and for two years (as mentors). Nearly 14 students fill in an evaluating questionnaire every year for the last four years. Of course, this questionnaire will have more changes in the future since this program is dynamic and in a constant promotion. The participant Number in the last four years are 14 per year; 7mentors and 7 mentees (total=56). These phrases were repeated during meetings or previous open questionnaires.

“... My colleague in other training program was full of fears. I was relax..I felt more confident to go to a new class because I know that a big sister will wait for me their second year student speaking about the first day in the field...”: Second year student (mentee).

My mentor help me to find out my skills and to use it in the training activities...she is really leader.. I follow her and feel confident regarding the next year activities and context.): Second year student (mentee).

"...To help a peer is nice and gave me more confidence...I started to reveal more to my abilities...To know more about myself, to empower social skills... felt a leader": Third year student (mentor)

".. To be exposed another year to the same context was very good... I review with my mentee the same materials...."Third year student (mentor)

"...we have good team work. Everyone knows what part of the puzzle to put in the comprehensive picture/plan..." Third year student (mentor)

"My other colleague in other training programs works good but not relaxed, planned and well-structured like our team in the Big Sister Model": Third year student (mentor).

These phrases emphasize the contribution of the BSM. They were repeated almost in all interviews and questionnaires.

6. 1.1-Definission the "big sister model (BSM):

About 44 (20 mentors and 24 mentees) of 56 (78.6%) choose to define the model as it literally sounds and as it was suggested from the beginning (a). It can be explained that participants are still influenced by the Bedouin culture in defining the elder sister role at home and choose to use the expression to express the similarities between the two roles. This means how much the participants see the importance of this role and it implies that the relation between them is very close like sisters. They share emotional moments together as well:

"... We bring breakfast to eat together..." "I was in her marriage the spite that it is away from my home..." she makes me a happy birthday surprise sharing the kindergarten staff.", "I took her opinion about choosing my fiancée..."
2.Cooperation between the two sisters. Also phrases in 6.11.b (*I was with here in many things. Helped her to use books in the library, how to arrange hair cover, how to use excel to make charts*)

6. 1.2 The cooperation between the two sisters.

The big majority of the participant seems to agree that the cooperation between the two sisters takes place with all the activities as shown in the previous table (Part.2). A full acceptance(100%),i.e. all students (28) of mentors and 28 of mentees, was to the phrase "planning activities together" because it seems that being together in the field and close to the training teacher encourage them to use their time and prepare the activities. All plans should be involving the peers together because there is a comprehensive weekly plan leaning in every peer duties in the kindergarten so they have to match activities together. This also leads to the other phrase "mutual support" (Part2.g). Being together and planning one plan obligate them to support each other so their plan will succeed.

Other phrases also for major acceptance. The small differences might be because of everyone opinion about how much the activity is perfect.

6. 1.3. The contribution to the model

Sharing "decision-making" and "designing the future steps" (6.1.3 1,j) were unexpected issues. All the participants seem to feel contributing to the Model and like that. They were 6.of the discussions about improving the model or improving the tutor way of training the trainers and how to manage the relations between all partners. Sharing and being involved give satisfactory to the peers and make them responsible and committed to the program.

Table 4: BSMdefinetion

6.1	Defining the model:	Mentor (28)	Mentee (28)
1. Point out how you define the "big sister model (BSM)".	a. An older sister supporting a younger sister, or	20 (71.4%)	24 (85.71%)
	b. Two sisters: one experienced person and one less experienced person who help one another.	8%	4%

6. II:	2. How much you agree with these phrases about the cooperation between the two sisters.	c. Planning activities together	28 (100%)	28 (100%)
		d. Consultation	22(79%)	25 (89 %)
		e. Performing activities and supplementary activities	25 (89 %)	27(95 %)
		f. Mutual feedback	24 (86%)	28(100%)
		g. Mutual support	27(95%)	27(95%)
		h. Experience reflection	26(92.%)	26(92 %)
3. point out what is your contribution to the model	i. Sharing in making decision	28 (100%)	28 (100%)	
	j. Designing the future steps	25 (89 %)	22(79%)	

Mentor evaluation:

6. II.a. BSM Contribution to the Mentee / professional skills

Mentors evaluate their contribution to professional skills of the mentee (Daloz, L. A. 1990) in Table 5 6II.a. Half of them give score 5 (very strong) and 32% give score 4 (strong) to the phrase "Development of self-confidence of the mentee in the kindergarten" (II.a.1). This means that these mentors really think that they are a help to the mentee by supporting them to be more confident. Since, we speaking about training and teaching, this, of course, related to the other phrase (II.a.6): "How to implement an activity". Knowing what to do and how, in the training field, means to be confident. Thus, mentors understand they are supporting to the self-confidence. The same but fewer mentors seem to give the strong voting is what they give to the phrase (II.a.2): "How to develop a conversation with the children in the group". Talking and managing a conversation is very important to the mentee's professional skills especially when they work with a small group and introducing the activity to the children. Since the mentor was in this position in the previous year this is a strong point for her in knowing how to evaluate her support. Not all mentors have the ability and not all of them feel very good to support this skill or to train this skill. They know that the mentee has one more year of training before going out to the field. The phrases (6.II.a.) (7. How to treat children; 8. How to deal with learning problems; 9. How to deal with behavioral problems) are skills in which mentors cannot give full support on them because they are also still training these skills. However questionnaire answers show high scores, no. 4 (strong) and 5 (very strong). Most mentors (more than 60%) think they nicely supports the mentee. It is certainly very good and of course, it helps the tutor (the college mentor) to strengthening these skills better.

Phrase (6.II.a.10), (Give constructive criticism and make a reflection), Most mentors (64%), give high score or degree to the reflection they could give to mentee. Making a reflection to any activity put the reflector in a thoughtful and evaluating position that also enhance his way in making these activities. The phrase (6.II.a.11) (Be a modeling person), give the full picture about the responsibility that mentor feel commitment towards the mentee and the BSM by being a model person and try to give the good picture about the

Table 5: Mentor evaluation

6. II. Mentor evaluation		28				
II.a	BSM Contribution to the Mentee / professional skills Point out the following statements that you think you influenced on the mentee. Please rate from 1 (very weak) to 5 (very strong)	1 weak	2	3	4 strong	5 very strong
	1. Development of self-confidence of the mentee in the kindergarten	0	0	5 (18%)	9 (32%)	14 (50%)
	2. How to develop a conversation with the children in the group	0	0	4 14%	8 (29%)	14 (50%)
	3. Planning activities in the kindergarten	0	0	0	20 (71%)	8 (29%)
	4. Adapting activities to the subject, age and level of children	0	0	5 (18%)	9 (32%)	14 (50%)
	5. Preparing and creating ideas for activities,					
	6. How to implement an activity	0	0	0	14	14

					(50%)	(50%)
	7. How to treat children	0	0	9 (32%)	9 (32%)	10 (36%)
	8. How to deal with learning problems	0		8 (29%)	7 (25%)	13 (46%)
	9. How to deal with behavioral problems	0	0	9 (32%)	14 (50%)	5 (18%)
	10. Give constructive criticism and make a reflection	0	0	9 (32%)	9 (32%)	10 (36%)
	11. Be a modeling person	0	0	0	10 (36%)	18 (64%)
II.b	Are there other things that you think you influenced the mentee during the BSM? ...I was with here in many things. Helped her to use books in the library, how to arrange hair cover, how to use excel to make charts.....					
II.c	BSM Contribution to Mentor: Evaluate how BSM influenced on you Rate from 1 (very weak) to 5 (very strong)	1	2	3	4	5
	1. Self-confidence	0	0	0	4 14%	24 (86%)
	2. Development of training or mentoring skills	0	0	0	14 (50%)	14 (50%)
	3. Sense of leadership	0	0	0	13 (46%)	15 (52%)
	4. Feeling more responsible towards the kindergarten	0	0	0	14 (50%)	14 (50%)
	5. Improving observation skills	0	0	0	4 14%	24 (86%)
	6. Accept constructive criticism from the little sister	0	0	0	6 (21%)	22 (79%)
	7. Less stress created with the class partner comparing with the same level partner	0	0	0	3 (10%)	25 (89.28%)
	8. Assimilation of various topics and content	0	0	0	0	28 (100%)
II.d	Are there any more other things that you think you got or developed from your participation in the BSM? It was important to us to see the activities, which we work on it last year from another point of view again and evaluate it... amazing					
II.e	Do you regret being in this program? If you come back one year, will you choose this program or the other program? In the beginning, I thought it will be very hard, but I want to be because I appreciated my mentor and I want to be good mentor as well. This is the best thing ever happened to me in college.					

6. II.c BSM Contribution to Mentor

Like mentees, mentors speak about improving personal and social skills. Being “self-confidence” can come true by being responsible to show her knowledge to the mentee. This is different from the regular program when the two peers or students from the same college year (grade). In most situation even if they are best students and best friends sometimes competition rise in front of the training teacher and the tutor which makes one of them in most cases looks “bright” who is capable and know everything and the other less capable. In the BSM program, any mentor whatever she is bright or not, will be superior to her mentee by knowledge. First, she was in the second year and know its materials; second, she was exposed to the third year materials by being watching and working with her mentor in the same program and the same class, which make her more, relax and confident. She is experienced with one more year and knows what is she going to do in the current year, all this make her feel able to lead and develop mentoring skills (phrases II.c.1-3). Being confident allow also her to

“accept constructive criticism” from her mentee because she has been their last year and understand what her mentee can get from the observing her (phrase II.c.6).

6. III Mentee Evaluation

BSM Contribution to the Mentee / professional skills

Looking at table 6 allowing having a comprehensive idea about the contribution of mentoring process on mentee in the BSM from the Mentee point of view. The majority of students (mentees) give high score to the “phrases III.1-12” which expressing the goals of the BSM. These goals are known to the mentees as something to be reached during the program to enhance the training process and its impacts. Which means they think that they achieved the BSM goals. All mentees think that this program built self-confidence regarding the professional skills (89% scores 5, 11% scores 4). The same in developing activities in the training class (89% scores 5, 11% scores 4). Almost the same while talking about “Preparing and creating ideas for activities”. Being with someone supporting and more experienced improve the personality and the professional skills (Power and Al., 2011; Roberts, A. 2000).

The lowest scores that the Mentees give in evaluating what they got from the BSM where moderate scores to the phrases (3: not high not weak):

“How to develop a conversation with the children in the group” (21%), “How to treat children” (18%), “How to deal with didactical problems” (18%), “How to deal with behavioral problems” (21%). All of these phrases talk about the relation preserve student- child. These skills come from the experience and being more time with children to assimilate the way to treat the various characters of children.

These mentees have only one-year experience with children working mostly in a small group. These skills need more experience to be improved them. Other students who are the majority, think that they got good skills.

An impressed impact of the BSM on mentees is the reflection skills. Reflection aims to explore how improvement can come from collecting evidence training. Being part of the weekly reflection meetings: with the tutor, the mentor, the training teacher, give them the modeling reflection,

Table 6: Impact from the peer mentoring (BSM)

6.III: Impact from the peer mentor (Second year responses)	Strong 5	4	3	2	weak 1
1. Development of self-confidence	25 (89 %)	3 (11%)	0	0	0
2. How to develop a conversation with the children in the group	8 (29%)	14(50%)	6(21%)	0	0
3. Planning activities in the kindergarten	25 (89 %)	3(11%)	0	0	0
4. Acclimating activities to the subject, age and level of children	14 (50%)	6 (21%)	8 (29%)	0	0
5. Preparing and creating ideas for activities,	6 (21%)	22(79%)	0	0	0
6. How to implement an activity	22 (79%)	5 (18%)	1 (3%)	0	0
7. How to treat children	6 (21%)	17(60%)	5(18%)	0	0
8. How to deal with didactical problems	6 (21%)	17(60%)	5(18%)	0	0
9. How to deal with behavioral problems	14(50%)	8 (29%)	6 (21%)	0	0

10. Give constructive criticism and make a reflection	26(92. %)	7 (2%)	0	0	0
11. Be a personal example and modeling	26(92. %)	7 (2%)	0	0	0
12. be exposed to the next year curricula by watching the mentor activities	28 (100%)	0	0	0	0

All of answers show how much the students are satisfied from their mutual contribution. Most answers are strong to very strong which emphasize the sayings or the phrases as a stable statement with a "prove" regarding the BSM contribution.

7. Conclusions

Peer mentoring in the BSM adds another level in the social relation between students who practice teaching in the same class. There was less stress between the couple (the two preservice student), because they behave as a one learning-unit and they working as a team group to promote a shared project. The well-constructed professional development programme on BSM-mentoring promotes the quality of mentoring for enhancing preservice teachers' (Hudson, P.; Spooner-Lane, R.; Murray, M., 2013). Both of the students felt more self-confident in behaving during the training process; promote many skills: constructive reflection, team working preparing activities. They were exposed to another year training curricula, the second-year students learn about the next year curricula by watching the 3rd year training activities during the training day. The 3rd year students examine the second year-program curricula by mentoring and watching their mentees, which add assimilation and internalisation to the learning process. third year mentors add leading skills to what they promot during BSM (Grierson A. L.; Cantalini-Williams, M., Wideman-Johnston, T.; Tedesco, S. 2011). Besides the nice and supportive atmosphere of the team working and feeling relax and motivated to work together.

8. Recommendations

To continue in this program adding evaluation points or stations for participants skills with contrasting to other students from other training programs.

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A New Proposal to Teaching: The Beehive Interactive Learning Model in a Statistics Course

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Abstract

The purpose of the study is to present the Beehive Interactive Learning Model (BILM) and to provide an example of its application in an undergraduate statistics course. The model is developed by the researcher, who is a professor in Educational Measurement and Evaluation area in Turkey with over 15 years of teaching experience. The model is based on four main components; content, instruction, assessment, and motivational beliefs. The core principal of the model is to stimulate students' desire for learning. Both the instructor and the students are in the center of the model, placed in the beehives, referring to the hard work and constant interaction among students. The graphical representation of the model is presented in the paper. The model has been improved over a period of 10 years by adding new components and omitting some. The model requires the instructor to encourage active learning through class projects and performance assignments. It heavily relies on technology and the Internet; course portal provides online documents, an opportunity to download and submit assignments online, and to take online self-regulated quizzes with instant feedback. There are lab sessions requiring students to demonstrate their analyzing skills in SPSS. The model aims to pack the knowledge in a way that awakens everybody's desire to learn, satisfies the learner through successful hands-on applications and finally develops a sense of success, hopefully yielding positive attitudes toward the content and learning. The model is in the process of development and any suggestions are welcomed from the researchers around the world.

Keywords: Beehive Interactive Learning Model (BILM), learning, teaching.

Introduction

There are many ways a teacher can teach as there are many ways a student can learn. A quick search leads us to four learning theories; behaviorist, cognitivism, constructivism, and collectivism. In terms of the learning perspective, behaviorism and cognitivism apply teacher-centered instruction, while the constructivism and collectivism are more student-centered. In behaviorism, learning is considered as a response to an external stimulus. Cognitivism takes it a little further by considering learning as a process of acquiring and keeping the knowledge. Therefore learning is seen both as an internal and external process. In cognitivism, the instructor is responsible for helping students store and recall the knowledge as needed. Constructivism considers learning as a process of building the knowledge. In the learning process, we are aware that the knowledge is constructed over the previous information which the student already knows. Instructor's responsibility is to keep the learners active and encourage social interaction. In the student-centered classes, students are welcome to take a part in the design of each class according to their needs. Finally, in connectivism, learning is considered as a process of connecting different sources of knowledge in a network by the use of technology, therefore Internet. Among these, connectivism is the one which heavily relies on technology.

Eccles and Wigfield (2002) divided the learning theories into four categories. These are theories focused on expectancies for success (self-efficacy theory and control theory), theories focused on task value (intrinsic motivation theory and self-determination, flow, interest and goals), theories that integrate expectancies and values (attribution theory, the expectancy-value models and self-worth theory), theories integrating motivation and cognition (social cognitive theories of self-regulation and motivation), and at last theories of motivation and volition). In the same study, Eccles and Wigfield (2002) argued how to integrate theories of self-regulation and expectancy-value models of motivation.

Bandura (1977) developed the Social Learning Theory (SLT), stating behaviors, thoughts, feelings, attitudes and the social environment molds an individual's personality. In SLT, Bandura stated the importance of mediating mental factors for an individual to observe the behavior and imitate it. In the Behaviorist Model, the link between the stimulus and the response is considered as a black box, the source can be anything (e.g. beliefs/attitudes, motives, needs, perceptions); however, in cognitive model it is called as a mediational process occurring between the input and the output behavior. Bandura proposed four mediational processes: Attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation. We do not expect someone to repeat a behavior he/she did not notice (attention); in order to repeat the behavior he/she must recall it (retention); if it is learned, he/she can do it again as needed/wanted (reproduction); and finally anything is possible if he/she has the desire or the will to do it (motivation). The importance of will power on learning certainly was known from the beginning of mankind. Bandura (1997) was the first to suggest self-efficacy beliefs for facilitating effective instructional environment. He clearly defined and related it to the learning behavior. The sense of self-efficacy, also called confidence as commonly used, is explained as a source playing a major role in how one approaches a problem, goal, task, or a challenge. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish a task. Bandura stated that the current or past personal experiences of the learner are the most important source of self-efficacy. Therefore we can conclude that someone who had negative attitudes toward math would end up having a negative attitude toward statistics.

Over the years, SLT has become very influential on learning and development as considered by some researchers; e.g. Nabavi (2012) as the most influential. It is sometimes referred to as a "bridge" between behaviorist and cognitive learning theories because it encompasses attention, memory, and motivation (Munoz, n.d.). It is so much so that Ormrod (2008) called the SLT, Social Cognitive Theory. The way cognitive, behavioral, personal, and environmental factors interact with each other and influence the behavior is emphasized in Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (Crothers, Hughes, & Morine, 2008) as Triadic Reciprocal Determinism. Therefore reorganizing the environment, changing the beliefs about the course, or reshaping students' self-perceptions about themselves can influence their learning skills. Self-regulation is another source positively affecting student's learning. Self-regulated e-tests are regarded positively to increase student's self-regulatory skills in studies that frequent e-tests were offered to the participant students (Basol & Balgalmis, 2016; Maurer & Longfield, 2015; Maurer, 2006).

The purpose of the current paper is to introduce a new learning model called "The Beehive Interactive Learning Model" with an illustration of its application on a topic in a statistics course. Beehive Interactive Learning Model, developed by the author in her classes is based on a constructivist and connectivist perspective. The model heavily relies on the computer and Internet. The conceptualization of the model is provided in Figure 1.

Fig. 1. Beehive Interactive Learning Model

The name beehive refers to the hard work expected both from the instructor and students. There are four main components of the model; three on the sides and one in the center. The ones on the sides are content, instruction, and assessment. Motivational beliefs are in the core of the model throughout the course. The students and the instructor were placed in honey combs next to each other, suggesting maintaining instruction among students also between them and the instructor.

2. Beehive Interactive Learning Model

The Beehive Interactive Learning Model was developed over 13 years of teaching experience by the researcher.

Four Main Components of the Model

The model has four main components; content, instruction, assessment, and motivational beliefs.

2.1. Content

The model requires a blended course enriched by the use of flipped classroom activities, online quizzes with instant feedback opportunity. The design of the content in BILM will be explained in the Statistics II course taught by the author in the spring semester of 2017 in Gaziosmanpasa University. Statistics II was offered to the undergraduate program of Psychological Counseling area. In the statistics II course, which the model was applied there were seven main application skills that were aimed.

These were preparation of the data set, z tests, t tests, ANOVA, correlation, regression, and factor analysis. The semester lasted 14 weeks. Statistics I was offered in the fall semester to sophomores and all of the registered students that had taken statistics I in the previous semester. They were familiar with SPSS and were already able to obtain, review, and make comments on descriptive statistics and graphics. Therefore, we could say that the model is more suitable for courses requiring application level skills, graphical demonstrations, and memory of visual illustrations. BILM answered the needs in statistics II both for the students and the instructor. In the following heading, the instruction of the model is explained in detail.

2.2. Instruction

The main instructional tool is the course portal. The course was designed as a blended Learning Management System on MOODLE. The system has been active in World Wide Web since 2011. Students register to the system through their student ID and then have access to the course portal through Gaziosmanpasa University's Learning Management System (lms.gop.edu.tr).

In Figure 2, a screenshot of the course portal is provided.

Fig. 2. A Screenshot of Statistics II Course Portal

The main content of the course was defined by the Higher Education Council of Turkey and regular weekly courses were supported with blended learning environment through MOODLE. The course portal provided a link to download the materials for Statistics II. The syllabus was provided as well, covering the weekly topics and the course requirements. As an example, the instruction of independent t test was explained in detail.

2.2.1. An Example of the Instruction of BILM

First, the topic was covered in the regular weekly class session. A brief explanation about Student's t test was provided and students encouraged sharing their ideas on how they can use the independent t test when they become a school counselor. By this application, the instructor expected students to be more interested and involved in the remaining of the course. Later the instructor explained the test a bit more in detail, provided the assumptions for independent t test, and showed the formula followed by an example to practice how to calculate the test by hand. As the assumptions were provided, students were asked to recall how each assumption was tested as they learned it in statistics I. Each assumption was recalled by reviewing how they were checked and how it was decided whether they were met or not. Thinking aloud and discussion among students were allowed in this process to make them enjoy discussing statistics and feeling the togetherness. In the third step, the instructor demonstrated how to run t test in SPSS by the use of data in the example. Screenshots of the process were also included in a PPT slide covering the highlights of the class. These notes were provided in the course portal beforehand and most of the students brought it to class. As the instructor calculated the problem on the blackboard, students confirmed the result from their notes. It was not a requirement but as the students studying in this manner got better in the course, this application was followed by others, especially the girls. SPSS screenshots were also in the handouts. As they see how easily they can calculate or get it done in SPSS, the instructor expected students to feel a relief about their assignments.

Students had to prepare a portfolio, covering assignments on the preparation of the data set, z tests, t tests, ANOVA, correlation, regression, and factor analysis. In the course portal a detailed check list for each assignment was provided to help students to review and self-control their work and also to maintain a certain standard in the assignments. They were free to work alone or in groups up to three students if they wish. Students were required to make up their own problem associated with psychological counseling area, make up the data, calculate by hand and in SPSS and make their tables and write up their findings according to APA style. The instructor prepared a study sheet for each analysis, containing an example of each test. In Table 1, the check list for independent t test is provided.

Table 1. The Check List for Independent t Test

For SPSS analysis, students were able to follow the videos in the instructor's YouTube channel. The videos were accumulated over the years according to the requests made by the students in the classroom sessions. As the instructor realized that students use their smart phones to take videos in the class, she made the recordings and shared them on YouTube and let them know through the class' Whatsapp group. This also helped students who miss a class occasionally. Through the semester as requested, the video of a certain application could be found online as the instructor demonstrated it in class.

2.2.2. Instructor's Role in BILM

In terms of the instructor's role in the model, the instructor must be a guide and a facilitator. The instructor introduces the content; makes it sound easy by either referring or linking to the previously learned content. It is also essential to show that it is simple by hands on experiences. Step-by-step examples calm students about the assignments and encourage them to do it in a timely manner. Check lists were introduced right after the work was assigned, therefore students would know what was expected from them. According to students' point of view, flipped learning was useful and overall students favored it above anything else which had been performed to ease their learning throughout the semester. They could stop the videos anytime they wanted and review the material as they wished while they progressed with their homework. It was great for topics requiring sequential instruction.

Flipped classroom application was found to be a useful strategy for performance assignments in the statistics course. The lecture demonstration videos were also provided. The diagrams, graphs, and charts from the news were encouraged to be shared in the classroom so that students could experience real life examples. Anything that could help them learn was applied e.g. storytelling, to drama, simulations, and applying statistical analysis to sample data and etc. As an example, to explain the difference in corresponding table values for .05 and .01 confidence levels in a one-sided test, the instructor picked a student and made him/her stand on one tail and explained the change in the table values. For two tailed-tests, the table values and the area between the mean and the sides were explained by the use of one student in each tail. This was repeated and the values corresponding to the critical levels were written and once completed it was read aloud to make it seen and heard, as well.

2.3. Assessment

Over 15 years as an instructor, by constructing new items for every class, the author ended up having an item bank of over 11 hundred test items in statistics. She realized the urge students had to see the sample test items before the exam; the more they were anxious about a course, the more questions they asked about the exam e.g. what they should expect in the exam, how difficult it would be, how many questions they are going to be asked, and so on. Therefore, the idea of offering self-regulated quizzes and trial tests for midterm and the final exam was appealing. In the author's courses (Statistics, Measurement and Evaluation), students have a chance to do so since 2011.

In terms of assessment, formative self-regulated e-quizzes with instant feedback play an essential role in the model. Self-regulation is an abstract concept, often studied as an important factor influencing student achievement (Basol & Balgalmis, 2016). Self-regulation has three phases; forethought, self-reflection, and performance (Zimmerman, 2005). In BILM, all of these three phases are reflected. Since there are many sources students can use, they can review the material and decide how to go about it. Later, students carry on each step by themselves, forming the problem and the data, calculation, analysis and the write up part. They not only submit the portfolio, also perform in the lab session requiring them to demonstrate SPSS analyses on a data set provided by the instructor. Therefore, one can easily see whether a student can perform all the analyses covered in the course on a sample data set, make the right conclusions in a limited time. During the lab sessions students were allowed to ask questions, request help and work with a peer as they needed. In case they received help, they needed to perform the analysis with another variable other than the one they used with the peer mentor's guidance. The peer mentors were the students who completed their lab work early and wanted to help their classmates. There was no punishment for failure; students knew that in case they could not succeed, their lab sessions would be rescheduled. Their performance was awarded with stars and peer mentors received an extra star for their help. The focus was not on the grade, lab sessions were more like a chance to sit down and practice every analysis they learned in the presence of the instructor. The lab sessions were regarded highly by students. There was not a single student who left the lab without completing the work assigned.

2.4. Motivational Beliefs

As it can be seen in Figure 1, motivational beliefs are in the core of the model and should be considered in each step of the instructional design. As widely accepted, it is not possible to improve learning by solely concentrating on learning strategies for that motivation is the source yielding students to study.

The effect of many cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies on learning is widely acknowledged and their relation to achievement is studied in various subjects at different educational levels.

According to Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie (1991), motivational beliefs are cognitive behaviors and meta-cognitive strategies; including intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and task value (referred to as value components), control of learning beliefs and self-efficacy for learning and performance (called expectancy component), test anxiety (mentioned as an affective component). Cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies are reported as rehearsal, elaboration, organization, critical thinking, self-regulation, time and study environment, effort regulation, peer learning, and help seeking behavior (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1991). Intrinsic motivation is the behavior driven from internal rewards which may not be recognized visually in most occasions. Extrinsic motivation refers to outside rewards and punishments affecting one's desire to learn. The problem with this is that it is hard to know what to use for students coming from different backgrounds and to what extent it could have an effect. Task value refers to the student's evaluation of the task in terms of its usefulness; again it could be a challenge to change students' perceptions of the task since most of the time it can be manipulated by the students. Control of learning beliefs is about whether the student believes the effort he/she puts into class would be rewarded. Most of the time the student who scored too low in the mid-term quits studying being convinced he/she would fail no matter what. In the current application of BILM, the grade was a function of various components (performance in the assignments, portfolio check, midterm exam, final exam and the performance in the lab sessions) so that there was not too much emphasis placed on the midterm or any others. There were students who scored less than 20 out of 100 points; however, they were assured by the instructor that they still had a chance as long as they reviewed what they did wrong and found out how they should have studied and did it right from any point.

Through the techno-enriched instruction and hands-on experiences, it was expected to increase students' intrinsic motivation by building passion for work, positive attitudes toward learning and teaching, eagerness to try, expressing confidence, resilience, help-seeking and giving behavior, increasing self-efficacy, self-regulation, and appreciation of knowledge. From beginning to end, students were encouraged to do their assignments through assuring them it was easy, useful and worth learning. The instructor answered some of their questions or guided them elsewhere so they could build self-reliance and experience joy by finding something they had been looking for. It was claimed that while taking a bath in a public bath house, Archimedes realized that the more his body sank into the water, the more water was displaced. He walked out of the bath screaming "Eureka! Eureka!", which means "I found it! I found it!" (Cited by Biella, 2006). By guiding students to the right direction, the instructor helped them find the answer by themselves. Dispositions are defined as frequent and voluntary habits of thinking and doing (Da Ros-Voseles & Haughey, 2007). It is also referred to as characteristics and wrongly used interchangeably with traits and skills (Colker, 2008). As highlighted in Da Vas Vosales and Fowler-Haughey (2007) and pointed out in Colker (2008), traits are unconscious behaviors, while skills are more likely to be the result of conscious teaching efforts. BILM suggests that the instruction should aim at more than just attaining the specific teaching goals of the course. With proper education, it is possible to help students gain positive attitudes towards both learning and teaching e.g passion for work, sense of responsibility, time-management skills, sharing rather than give and take based-relationships, being organized, following the commands and etc.

The purpose of Beehive Interactive Learning Model is to improve learning, help students have a better grasp of their knowledge by encouraging them to communicate with each other and implement this knowledge to their self-proposed problems which are similar to real life scenarios. At the beginning of the class the weight is on the instructor. Then, it gradually shifts to students through the examples, questions and performance tasks. In this model, student participation was aimed to be increased through planned activities for retention purposes. The instructor praised every effort for learning; students were encouraged to complete their tasks without any pressure; such as working to a deadline, being graded, and test anxiety.

3. Conclusion

The motivational beliefs, purposed to be improved by the use of BILM in its current application in Statistics II are explained shortly. First, the Beehive Interactive Learning Model is expected to improve student learning by designing the course in a way offering various techno-enriched instructional sources (e.g. frequent online quizzes, flipped classroom activities, online course documents), along by decreasing the stress level by hands-on application opportunities, well-structured and guided performance assignments, with an emphasis on increasing the motivation and self-efficacy skills by assignments.

Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie (1991) mentioned task value as a meta-cognitive strategy improving learning. In BILM, the instructor put a lot of effort to relate the content to real life situations through the assignments and the lab sessions hoping that it would increase the task value of the content. Self-regulation is another meta-cognitive variable that is expected to be improved by the application of self-regulated e-quizzes and the assignments with no deadline in BILM. In the current application of BILM, using multiple instruments for grading helped the instructor build positive perception regarding the control of learning beliefs, suggested also as a meta-cognitive learning strategy. Students were interested in the concept and were highly motivated at all levels from the beginning to the end. Providing a sample problem with the solution and being able to review how to do videos for each analysis made students believe that assignments were manageable, therefore these efforts were expected to increase the self-efficacy level of students.

Detailed control lists to review the performance in assignments were useful for the instructor to maintain a certain standard in the assignments and for the students to get a sense of how well they were doing. The assignments were not graded through a rubric since they were used to diagnose the missing points and make timely corrections. The instructor reviewed the student portfolio in the presence of the student by focusing on the rights, praising the student for the effort, and at last pointing out the mistakes by explaining how to do it correctly. In the review process, volunteer peer mentors also checked the portfolios in the presence of the instructor, arguing whether it was acceptable to do an analysis in a certain way. The more they took part in this activity, the more the peer mentors got better in statistics. After directing the student to the right source (to a certain video recording or study sheet), a new meeting was scheduled as needed. This application purposes teaching through evaluation process and it is not present in any other teaching models. One-to-one portfolio evaluation can be referred to as a personalized evaluation. It was beneficial to understand whether students understood what they did in the assignments, how deep their knowledge was. One-to-one portfolio evaluation can also be considered as a way of improving interaction among students and between the student and the instructor. BILM creates a classroom environment full of worker bees in the guidance of a queen bee, also being the reason the model is named Beehive Interactive Learning Model.

In the BILM, frequent online testing opportunity is purposed to decrease test anxiety as well, an affective component (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1991) usually regarded negatively although it is known to have a positive effect on achievement to some extent. Basol-Gocmen (2004) suggested frequent testing as an instrument to keep students on the ball and therefore reduce their test anxiety (Basol-Gocmen, 2004). Being able to solve similar test items to the ones in the midterm and final exam was relaxing and since the emphasis was on the assignments and the portfolio, teaching to the test effect was not expected to occur. If the emphasis were on the mid-term and the final tests, students would see the frequent online exam only as an opportunity to pass the course. Basol & Balgalmis' research (2016) which frequent e-tests were applied as an instructional tool suggested that self-regulated students take this opportunity more often. It would be interesting to search whether taking e-tests was helpful in overcoming the fear of failing a course. The researcher suggests BILM to the instructors who have an item bank, and to ones with sufficient knowledge of computer enriched instruction; such as MOODLE, Blackboard, WEBCT, YouTube, and GDrive. So far the model has been applied in courses provided by the author to the undergraduate level teacher candidates (Statistics I, Statistics II, Measurement and Evaluation). It would be impressive to see the application of BILM on a course other than the ones stated and at different educational levels. BILM offers a new way to teaching and any instructor who has a genuine interest in improving his/or teaching skills is welcomed to use BILM.

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TABLES AND FIGURES

Fig. 1. Beehive Interactive Learning Model

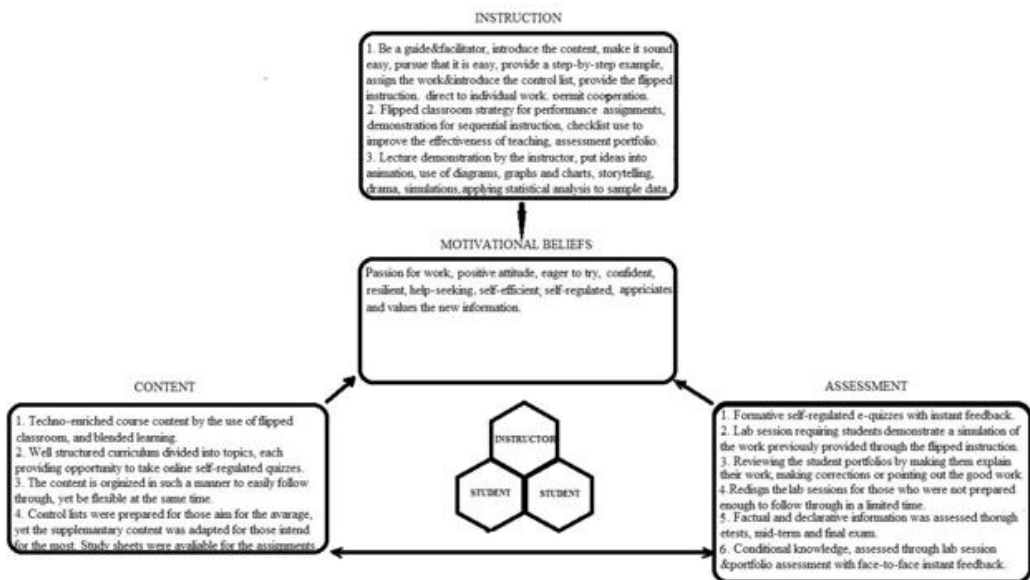


Fig. 2. A Screenshot of Statistics II Course Portal

Fig. 2. A Screenshot of Statistics II Course Portal

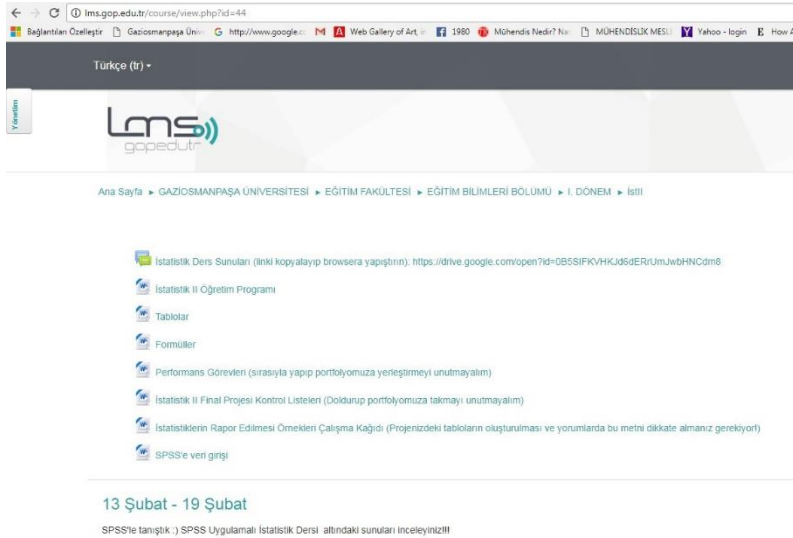


Table 1. The Check List for Independent t Test

t test Check List (2)	Yes	No
1. Do you have an original t test problem statement? (Dependent variable, a continuous variable in interval or ratio scale, independent variable, a categorical variable in nominal scale with two levels)		
2. Are your hypotheses suitable to your problem statement? (one way or two ways)		
3. Do you have a self-constructed data set for your problem? (Complete the assumption check, search for an outlier, normality, and homogeneity of variances)		
4. Do you have the formula in your assignment provided in class for t test?		
5. Did you complete the hand calculations with the correct formula?		
6. Did you find the correct table value for your problem? Did your hypothesis hold? Was your conclusion suitable to your findings?		
7. Did you calculate the effect size and make your conclusion?		
8. Did you provide screen shots of your analysis?		
9. Did your SPSS results match your hand calculations?		
10. Can you explain t test, when it is used, its assumptions, and its non-parametric alternative?		

The Usage Of New Media In Cultural Diplomacy: A Case Of Turkey

Berna Berkman Köseleli

Abstract

This study attempts to reveal new media usage in cultural diplomacy which is acting by Turkey. The interactions between governments in culture, art, education, science to improve relations are defined as cultural diplomacy. New media could be an important sphere to consolidate relations and dialogue between states in diplomatic affairs. Cultural diplomacy is also acted as a soft power tool to control and effect public perceptions. The function of new media in cultural diplomacy is considered with a quantitative research by applying a case study in this study. The official Twitter accounts of Foreign Ministry of Turkey are examined in a month period in terms of their content. It is seen that there is a more need to lessen disagreements, to change the misperception about publics, to repair governmental relations by acting cultural diplomacy in Turkey. The governmental organizations should add new communication channels like new media to get feedback of different voices, values, opinions. If communication means are used to support exchanging information and culture, thus the gap between publics may diminish. Diplomatic facilities, events or activities could be reported to the publics instantly by using new media.

Keywords: Cultural Diplomacy, Soft Power, Turkey, New Media

Introduction

Conceptual Framework

Cultural diplomacy, in the strict sense, is a governmental practice that operates in the name of a clearly defined ethos of national or local representation, in a space where nationalism and internationalism merge. Cultural diplomacy can also be practiced by other agencies such as non-state actors and various initiatives of civil society. So the meaning of cultural diplomacy has broadened considerably, thus the term has come to be used as a partial or total replacement for many previously used notions, such as foreign cultural relations, international cultural relations, international cultural exchange or international cultural cooperation (Ang, I. et al., 2015: 367). On the other hand, the well-known definition of M. Cummings (2009: 1) points out that the cultural diplomacy refers to the exchange of ideas, information, art and other aspects of culture among nations and their peoples in order to foster mutual understanding.

The cultural diplomacy approaches are gathered in three basic heading by the report of Cultural Diplomacy Platform which was established by the European Union Commission in 2016. 'The public diplomacy approach', according to which the government has a monopoly on the practice and goals of cultural diplomacy; 'the strategic communications approach', which does not necessarily entail the involvement of the government but implies its role in fostering a specific strategic interest, and 'the cultural relations approach', which looks at cultural diplomacy as a practice based on dialogue and collaboration, detached from a soft power (2016: 2). According to the report, states are still perceived as the main actors carrying out cultural diplomacy, new stakeholders become more active such as non-governmental organizations, private entities, civil initiatives and etc. besides the state's monopoly.

Cultural diplomacy is considered as a part of public diplomacy, advocated as a more citizen-oriented form of diplomacy than the standard model, whose targets are no longer other governments so much as diverse national and global audiences and publics (Ang, I. et al., 2015: 368). Cultural diplomacy constitute a practical agenda for integrating the work of cultural institutions into the existing structures and working practices of public diplomacy (Bound, K. et al., 2007: 65). Where the rise of public diplomacy could be described as the shift from few-to-few communication to few-to-many, this era will be characterized by the growth of many to many interactions (Bound, K. et al., 2007: 75). Cultural diplomacy is differently implemented from traditional diplomacy; official visitings and statements. Public opinion, values, needs and demands become important in diplomacy issues. According to K. Bound et al. (2007: 68- 70) social software platforms help to

coordinate the growing numbers of cultural players, and cultural institutions should continue to develop online services for their visitors.

The concept of cultural diplomacy, in some arguments, can be seen as activities for shaping opinions about the country's cultural heritage or promoting the country with the aid of history itself. As Ryniejska Kieldanowicz (2009: 2) countries recognize that showing cultural heritage provides them with an opportunity of presenting who they are, creating positive images, thus helping to achieve their political aims. Ryniejska (2009: 10) stresses that cultural diplomacy is commonly accepted as brand management and identity building. Both are based on the task of creating a proposition or undertaking, usually based on values, that should be effective to impact in many situations and many target groups.

Cultural diplomacy is often viewed negatively due to its connotations with colonialism, imperialism and propaganda. Dominant states have always used culture to transmit political, social, cultural and economic values (Nisbett, 2013: 558). The term discussed differently by M. Nisbett who claims that cultural diplomacy could be a positive diplomatic action and international cultural relations if it is not used for serving propaganda.

Zamorano (2016: 180) considers cultural diplomacy as an area of government intervention and based on various temporal, communicative and political participation variables, and he put forwards its boundaries in relation to other activities such as public diplomacy and propaganda. In this point of view, cultural diplomacy is associated with a variety of goals that result from contextualized definitions of national interest and securing power. By this reason, the borders between this group activities and public diplomacy, branding and propaganda is blurring (2016: 181). Cultural diplomacy is structured following diverse government strategies of bureaucratic, social or industrial pre-eminence and the power relations of these spheres in different contexts. According to Zamorano's approach, the historical developments in diplomacy displays that war and geopolitical tensions often result in cultural diplomacy serving as neo-propaganda (2016: 181). Zamorano (2016: 175-176) mentions that cultural diplomacy is integrated with soft power arguments and employed separately from hard power, so it can be use as a soft power tool to constitute the persuasion mechanisms without using coercive methods.

S. Mark (2009: 1) points out cultural diplomacy as its contribution to cultural relations and domestic objectives. According to Mark, cultural diplomacy has the potential to become a much more powerful tool for improving a country's image, nation branding, social cohesion. In the point of Mark's view, cultural diplomacy is defined as the deployment of state's culture in support of its foreign policy goals or diplomacy (2009: 7). Cultural diplomacy's functional objectives also include advancing trade, political, diplomatic and economic interests, developing bilateral relationships across the board, including economic, trade, political, cultural and diplomatic elements, connecting with groups abroad that are important to the cultural diplomacy practitioner (such as diasporas), and helping to maintain bilateral relationships in times of tension (2009: 9).

New media give some operational advantages to policy makers on managing information networks. As Hwajung Kim (2011: 2) says, the new way of communication with information technologies provides new opportunity for cultural policy makers to broaden their target audience and to promote culture even more widely with its new media platforms. Cultural diplomacy using information technologies can strengthen soft power if cultural policy makers make use of new communication technologies effectively and strategically. H. Kim (2011: 1) defines cultural diplomacy as forming international bridges and interactions, identifying networks and power domains within cultures and transcending national and cultural boundaries. It is important in Kim's approach that implementing cultural exchanges and developing communication through information technologies bringing nations people closer together (2011: 12). The changes on political-economic system, neoliberal policies, globalization, the participation of new diplomatic actors such as non-governmental organizations, private entities, civil initiatives transform the way of cultural diplomacy. The emerging technologies and the digital networks are accompanying to this recently changes and can use so as to support the international cultural relations.

Historical Development of Cultural Diplomacy

In the view of Espinosa (1976: 35-36), the practice of cultural diplomacy is rooted to the 19th century especially in the continent of America. In the early 19th century, North Americans came in closer contact with South American countries. From the mid 19th century there was a noticeable awakening of interest between in all South American colonies, and the beginning of more lasting cooperative activities in the sciences, archeology, ethnology, education, history and literature.

Similar initiative actions have been occurred in Europe, nearly in the same historical period. Paschalidis, (2009: 277-279) who categorizes the development of interconnected cultural relations in historical phases, emphasizes that the emergence

of foreign cultural affairs dates back to 1870s in Europe along with the beginnings of Cultural Institutes abroad. The establishment of such national associations coincide with the age of neo-imperialism. The origins of the globally familiar presence of the British Council, the French, the Italian or the Goethe Institute, lie in the mission imperialism of European colonialism.

As Paschalidis (2009: 280-281), the institutionalization of external cultural policy widened with the I. World War. The Cultural Institutes along with the various related bodies and activities (scholarships, student and academic exchanges, art exhibitions, theatre, concert tours, etc.) become standard feature of the official external cultural policy of great countries. States initiated, administered and financed these cultural policies, but it was seen that the ideal of cultural nationalism had replaced by the cultural propaganda.

As Glade's (2009: 240-241) expression, cultural diplomacy began as a permanent function at the State Department in the 1930s. However this diplomatic affair became increasingly important in the 1940s and 1960s along with public diplomacy. Cultural diplomacy was in progress with new actors like US Information Agency and UNESCO after the II. World War. Paschalidis (2009: 282) mentions that despite the efforts of UNESCO on international cultural cooperation, culture was politicized and turned into a vehicle for ideology among the East and West Blocs.

Glade (2009: 242) states that culture was enlisted in the service of diplomacy within cooperation; when the II World War ended and once a new set of challenges came into view, organizational mechanisms were implemented for political, social, cultural renovation and economic reconstruction of Western Europe. In accordance with this effort, UNESCO (1946), an affiliated agency of UN, was established as a forum for cultural diplomacy (Glade, 2009: 243). On the other hand, US Information Agency was established in 1953 for monitoring public policies abroad and presenting government policies. The Voice of America, which had been launched in 1942 for multilingual broadcasting, were either modified and transferred to the Department of State for a sustained program in public, as well as, cultural diplomacy and the Marshall Plan (1948), which was a financial support program, was acted as an supplementary element in European reconstruction effort (Glade, 2009: 242-243).

Until the end of Cold War, Great Britain, France, Germany, USA and Soviet Union were the pioneer forces in terms of creating the instruments to the external cultural policy. Since then, 'soft power' come to forefront and various instruments have been developed by a range of other countries to promote their diplomatic agendas (Paschalidis, 2009: 283). The political-economics landscape evaluated into multipolar system after the Cold War. There is a need to promote mutual understanding and reciprocal dialogue by bridging cultural relations in the new era of diplomacy which is conducting with multi-actors and new communicative tools.

A Discussion on the Cultural Diplomacy of Turkey

3.1. Actors

Foreign Ministry of Turkey constitute a department on cultural diplomacy in 2010 to keep close relations with foreign countries and coordinate the operation of the public foundations (YEE) and official entities (TIKA, AFAD, YTB) which are serving for international social and cultural activities. Multilateral platforms (UNESCO), bilateral agreements, scholarships, mutual cultural days/ years, international exhibitions and fairs are also supported by the Foreign Ministry within the scope of cultural diplomacy. Essentially, the institutionalization of cultural diplomacy in Turkey dates back to older times. In this context, Turkish Cooperation and Coordination Agency (TIKA) was established in 1992 as a technical aid organization under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to provide the adaptation and the developmental needs of the Turkic Republics after the disintegration of the Soviet Union.¹ Since 2002, TIKA has expanded its function through the development assistance activities which are conducted abroad and become a global organization as a new policy aspect of Turkish Prime Ministry. Its projects are undertaken by more than 50 Program Coordination Offices and also in 150 countries ranging from Central Asia and the Balkans to the Middle East, Africa, Latin America and the Pacific Islands and operate without discriminating race, language, religion and sect.² Another governmental agency, Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency (AFAD), acting in accordance with Prime Ministry, supports humanitarian assistance to over 50 countries around the globe

¹ <http://www.tika.gov.tr/en>

² Turkish Cooperation and Coordination Agency (2014), Annual Report, Retrieved at September 04, 2017, from http://www.tika.gov.tr/upload/2016/INGILIZCE%20SITE%20ESERLER/FAAL%4%B0YET%20RAPORLARI/PDFLER/FR2014_ENG.pdf

at the international level. The agency is providing various facilities to refugee camps like housing, healthcare, education, psychological support. ¹

The Foreign Ministry established a new agency in 2010 to strengthen the social and cultural relationships with related countries. Presidency for Turks Abroad and Related Communities (YTB) is engaged in coordinating Turkish citizens and related communities abroad, and students studying in Turkey with international scholarship. YTB try to announce its activities in social media platforms (Facebook, Twitter, YouTube channel) and has an online library in its web sites ² The field of cultural diplomacy is expanded by the participation of new actors in Turkey. As a public foundation, Yunus Emre Institute (YEE) started to operate in 2009 to promote Turkish language, its history, culture and arts, and create informational documents on cultural issues, build the bridges between Turkey and other countries by intercultural exchange. Several activities are organized to represent Turkish culture with the international events. The organizations are represented in its web site and the page has an open access to various social media platforms of the Institute (Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube channel, Google+). A national Voice Radio is on air via the web site of the Institute which is sharing Turkish music to the foreign and domestic publics. ³

The Foreign Ministry is sometimes operating along with the Ministry of Culture and Tourism while carrying out international cultural facilities. Directorate General of Libraries and Publications of this Ministry has a project for funding authors by supplying their translation and publication cost. While Directorate General of Fine Arts is arranging international art exhibitions, Directorate General of Promotion supports the student exchange programs, and all these actions are driven under the Ministry mentioned above. On the other hand, a web site, with a campaign concept 'Turkey Home', is constructed to make a contribution of Turkey's global outlook and the related social media platforms are attached to the campaign page. ⁴ It has reached 6 million users on social media platforms (Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, Vine, Google+). The Ministry of Culture and Tourism also established a Cultural Diplomacy Bureau in 2014 and begin to act intercultural projects, for instance giving travelling awards to the foreign students. Because of the new establishment of the Bureau, social media usage is limited to input information about Turkey's culture in digital platforms.

The constitutions on higher education in Turkey make an implicit and indirect contribution to the cultural diplomacy, even tough having different missions. For instance, The Higher Education Council (YOK) is funding student and academic exchange programs as the name of Erasmus, Farabi, Mevlana and prepared a web site with a topic 'Study in Turkey' to announce the acting program currently. ⁵ In addition, UNESCO Chair in Cultural Diplomacy, Governance and Education is founded at Istanbul Aydin University in 2015. The constitution aims to build an international network and bridge by executing the exchange of opinions, values, traditions, and other aspects of culture and identity. The international peace and sustainability is the another issue of the Chair, in this regard international meetings, conferences are organized and periodicals are published. Briefly, the cultural diplomacy actors are operating in a decentralized manner in Turkey's landscape, but the several cultural activities are supported for consolidating close relations.

3.2. Tools

The function of new media in cultural diplomacy is considered with a quantitative research by applying a case of Turkey in this study. Twitter accounts of Foreign Ministry of Turkey are examined by using an empirical analysis. The Ministry arranged official Twitter accounts in four language (Turkish, English, French, Arabic) in 2009. The official Twitter accounts (@TC_Disisleri, @MFATurkey, @MFATurkeyFre, @MFATurkeyAra) of Foreign Ministry are followed in a month period, from 1th August to 1th September, in terms of their contents. The analysis of 222 tweets are considered also with a relevant evaluation including the role of new media in cultural diplomacy.

Total amount of Twitter messages which are posted to the page (@TC_Disisleri) within the research period are 88, and 58 of them are retweet. Tweets are concern with official statements of the Turkish Ministry on the regional and global developments. Retweets are belongs to the official Twitter account of Foreign Minister to present the foreign visitings and meetings. Besides, the page is also examined with its attached items such as link, photograph, video, hashtag (#), mention

¹ <https://www.afad.gov.tr/en/>

² <https://www.ytb.gov.tr/>

³ <http://www.yee.org.tr/en/>

⁴ <http://www.hometurkey.com/>

⁵ <http://www.studyinturkey.gov.tr/>

(@). In a monthly period, this Twitter account includes 27 link in which of them related with official news cooperations (Anadolu Agency, TRT Channel). The account reports routinely official statements and opinions of Ministry by the links. As a commonly used way, photographs are uploaded to present formal agenda of Foreign Minister. The page account is including 55 photograph, but video sharing is not used as an attachment tool. Hashtag and mention items are displaying the mutual interactivity in Twitter platforms. The number of hashtags are 74 in the page. While the hashtags was posted frequently, the mentions take place rarely in the page. Hashtags are giving references to the countries (#Turkey, #Russia, #Iraq) and also the important days and events. The official accounts (@MFATurkeyFre, @MFATurkeyAra) which are reporting the messages in French (23 tweet) and Arabic (20 tweet) languages are less activated. In these accounts, all tweets are shared only with a link attachment to the Ministry web site. Besides, the pages don't include any hashtag or mention. The account of '@MFATurkey' is commonly used with interactive items such as mentions and hashtags. The tweets (20) and retweets (57) are related with foreign contacts and official statements (See the Table 1).

	Tweet	Re-tweet	Link	Photo Image	Video	#	@
@TC_Disisleri	30	58	27	55	-	74	1
@MFATurkey	34	57	24	65	-	93	15
@MFATurkeyFre	23	-	23	-	-	-	-
@MFATurkeyAra	20	-	20	-	-	-	-

It is seen that activities on cultural diplomacy are not represented in these main Twitter Accounts of Foreign Ministry. Instead of this, cultural affairs are represented in another Twitter account, called as 'public diplomacy'. The page is driven by the Public Diplomacy Coordination Office. The Office is operated under the organizational structure of Prime Ministry and opened access its Twitter account in 2011 in four languages. The page (@BasbakanlikKDK) is announcing the international cultural affairs of Turkey by retweeting the other pages related to TIKA, AFAD, YTB, YEE. The total amount of the Twitter messages are 25 in a month period and 24 of them are retweet. In the account, 10 links, 19 photographs, 2 videos, 17 hashtags, 4 mentions are sited. The page contents are including the announcement of student exchange programs, courses on Turkish language, seminars, scholarships, celebrating cultural days/ years and humanitarian aid organizations.

Consequently, the Ministry departments began to utilize new media tools in diplomacy, but so to say, the departments should benefit more robustly from interactive features and operational capacity of new media for informing and promoting the cultural diplomacy activities. The instant messages and interactive attachments are used limitedly, therefore the intercultural relations aren't so visible and the usage of new media remains its weakness. Cultural diplomacy is represented on new media platforms in a decentralized way and still evaluated as a subset of public diplomacy affairs. As it is understood, the usage of new communicative tools in cultural diplomacy is comprehended in a narrow scale by the officials.

The Foreign Ministry prefers to implement cultural diplomacy in practice with its real actors instead of virtual tools and methods.

Conclusion

The rise of new media platforms is enabling the users to access huge masses and transmit opinions, values and demands. Diplomatic facilities, events or activities can be reported to the foreign publics instantly by using new media platforms. New communication technologies has been rapidly emerging and growing especially in the advanced capitalist economies. Dominant states have more capacity to operate new media tools and its outputs. There is a need to change the misperception between publics, and to repair the governmental relations in a compromising manner by acting cultural diplomacy in Turkey. The Foreign Ministry of Turkey have a remarkable capacity to restructure cultural diplomacy, but the Ministry departments are lacking in raising new media platforms in some respects. The officials should prefer to act strategies for improving new communicative tools and platforms in diplomacy.

The digital networks on cultural diplomacy are required to coordinate the intercultural activities and keep close relations with publics. Governments should increase the coordination with new stakeholders of cultural diplomacy so as to better exchange. If a country try to impose its cultural heritage, values and products by one-sided, the diplomatic action will be

turn into propaganda or cultural imperialism. But, if the countries establish mutual understanding, reciprocal dialogue, interconnectivity and multi-dimensional cultural relations, this could be repair and reconstruct the relations. The governmental organizations should add new communication channels like new media to reach publics to improve cultural relations. Furthermore, getting feedback of different voices, values, opinions by new media can remove prejudices against different identities. As Cunningham (2010: 113) says, "strategic communication can be built by utilizing new media accurately." If the communication means are used to support exchanging information and culture, thus the gap between publics may diminish.

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The Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS) in the Valuation of Social Skills in Music and Music Therapy research: A literature review

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Abstract

This literature review seeks to find out, if the Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS) could be a useful instrument in an inclusive scholastic context when music therapy-based interventions are applied. The aim is to compare studies in which the SRS is used to measure the impact of music-based interventions, and to deduce its usability in an inclusive scholastic context. A literature research on the databases *RomaTreDiscovery*, *Science Direct*, *Google Scholar*, *PubMed*, and *Cochrane* is conducted the 28.07.2017 and the 08.08.2017 using the keywords “social responsiveness scale”, “autism”, and “music”. The following inclusion criteria are applied: the studies are either randomized controlled trials (RCT) or controlled trials (CT), use the SRS as outcome measure, utilize a music-based intervention, and target a population of children or adolescents with ASD. During the literature research 11 studies were identified, based on title and abstract. After studying the full articles 4 met the inclusion criteria (Bhatara et al., 2009; Geretsegger et al., 2012; La Gasse, 2014; Thompson, McFerran & Gold, 2013). An analysis aiming on the type of the music intervention, the population, and the frequency of interventions is conducted. Since the number of studies that met the inclusion criteria is rather small, there is only little evidence from this research. Since the SRS seems to be a useful tool confronting the influence of music on social skills in children and adolescents, it might be applicable to measure the impact of music therapy in an inclusive classroom.

Keywords: Social Responsiveness Scale, music intervention, music therapy, inclusion.

1. Introduction

This literature review seeks to find out, if the Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS) could be a useful instrument in an inclusive scholastic context when music therapy-based interventions are applied. Since the integration of children with ASD is of increasing importance, instruments to measure the success of interventions in this field are required. Therefore, this review compares studies which use the SRS to measure the impact of music-based interventions, and to deduce its usability in an inclusive scholastic context in which music therapy is utilized.

2. Background

Deficits in social and communications skills are characteristic for ASD. This includes problems with social interaction, non-verbal communication, understanding body language, and initiating and maintaining friendships. Since social skills and relationships play an important role in the whole life of a person, therapies and teaching methods are being developed and tested, to improve their social abilities and improve quality of life. Among these therapies is music therapy, that is already used in the work with children with ASD as an effective tool to improve social skills in children with ASD (Nordoff 1963; Alvin 1965; Berger 2002; Oldfield 2006; Bruscia 2014), because they seem to react well towards music (Hollander, Juhrs 1974) and when confronted with different stimuli tend to prefer an acoustic one (Thaut 1978; Kolko et al. 1980). Music therapy has shown to have a positive effect on verbal and non-verbal communication (Stull et al. 1979; Gold et al. 2006; Silverman 2008), language skills (Lim 2012), behavior (Shi, Lin & Xie 2016), and self-esteem (Oldfield 2006).

Moreover, the social skills of children with ASD have been shown to improve when in an inclusive context. During an inclusive summer camp for example, social skills increased in children with ASD, as measured through direct observation and counselor questionnaires (Maich et al. 2015). Also, behaviorally-based interventions help to improve social interaction in children with ASD in an inclusive context (Camargo et al. 2014).

3. The Social Responsiveness Scale

The SRS (Constantino & Gruber 2005) targets children and adolescents aged from 4 to 18, and measures their social skills based on the parents' and/or teachers' observations. It takes about 15-20 minutes to complete, and is a 65-item rating scale that defines the level of impairment based on repetitive behavior, interpersonal behavior, and communication. The SRS offers five Treatment Subscales: Receptive, Cognitive, Expressive, Motivational aspects, and Autistic Preoccupations. These subscales are not used for diagnosis, but could be helpful in the evaluation of treatment programs. A lower score is associated with better social skills. It has been standardized based on a sample of more than 1600 children from the general population. The SRS is currently the most commonly used parent-reported scale in studies on social behavior in children with ASD in which music therapy is applied: Three out of five studies utilize this tool, while the second frequent tool is interview (LaGasse 2017). The preschool version for 3 year old children, the SRS-PS (Constantino & Gruber 2005), is used in one of the studies analyzed in this paper (Thompson, McFerrin, & Gold 2013).

4. Method

4.1 Overview

A literature research on the databases *PubMed*, *Cochrane*, *Science Direct*, *Google Scholar*, *RomaTreDiscovery*, and *ERIC* is conducted the 28.07.2017 and the 08.08.2017 using the keywords "social responsiveness scale", "autism" and "music". The following inclusion criteria are applied: the studies are either randomized controlled trials (RCT) or controlled trials (CT), use the SRS as outcome measure, utilize a music-based intervention, and target a population of children or adolescents with ASD. During the literature research 11 studies were identified, based on title and abstract. After studying the full articles 4 met the inclusion criteria.

4.2 Studies

4.2.1 Bhatara et al. (2009)

The objective of this study is to examine how adolescents with ASD perceive animated abstract scenes with or without music, and therefore the effect of music on social attribution. The animations are designed by Abdell et al. (2000) and show interactions between two triangles. Some interactions are random (Rnd), others Goal-Directed (GD), and some Theory of Mind (ToM). Bhatara et al. (2009) describes them like this:

"In the random animations, two triangles moved in random fashion and did not affect each other's movement. In the GD animations, the two triangles appeared to respond to each other's behavior thereby demonstrating intentionality. However, their putative intentions were to perform physical actions (e.g., chasing, leading, fighting) and so did not involve 'mind-reading'. In the ToM animations, the two triangles interacted in more complex ways, with one triangle demonstrating an intention to influence the other triangle's mental state (e.g., coaxing, mocking, surprising)."

To each set of animation they added a soundtrack. This resulted in two conditions, a silent animation clip and a musical animation slip. There are 2 from the Rnd, 3 from the GD and 3 from the ToM category, resulting in 8 silent animations. The 10 music animations consist of 2 Rnd, 4 GD and 4 ToM animations. The participants watch the animations randomized in two blocks, and describe them afterwards. These descriptions are then given scores for intentionality, appropriateness, and length, and social attribution is valued.

It is expected that music will alter the interpretation of the animations in typically developing adolescents, and that the ToM animations will be the mostly influenced, followed by those from the GD category. The aim is to see, if social attribution is changed by music in the adolescents with ASD.

The results suggest that deficits in social attribution in the present context cannot be influenced by music in the ASD group. In fact, it had no differential effects on the ASD and TD groups. Music was shown to change the appropriateness scores in all participants and animation types. Intentionality scores, however, decreased in all participants' on the more socially complex animations. The study found hints of differences regarding the subgroups of the ASD in the parameters appropriateness and intentionality.

Regarding the SRS measures this study found a significant negative correlation between SRS scores and intentionality scores for the ToM animations, and intentionality scores showed relation to parental report of social behavior (SRS). This makes the SRS an indicator for the intentionality as measured in this study, as summarized in Tab. 1.

Tab. 1: Overview of Bhatara et al. (2009)

Experimental group	adolescents with HFASD aged 10-19 n = 26 f = 6; m = 20 diagnosed according to DSM-IV criteria: Autism (3), AS (13), PDD-NOS (10)
Control group	typically developing children/adolescents aged 8-18 n = 26 f = 14; m = 12 matched for VIQ, PIQ, FSIQ, years of musical training, number of instruments played, digit span, and letter-number sequencing.
Method	abstract animations with either music or no-music all participants saw and described all animations in 2 blocks and in random order dependent variables: Music Matching (how well the music matched the cartoon), Length of Description, Appropriateness of Description, and Presence of Intentionality .
Frequency of interventions	2 blocks of 8/10 animations
Objective/Hypothesis	H1: deficits in social attribution are robust and cannot be influenced by the addition of music. H2: individuals with ASD are impaired in social attribution, but such deficits may show a shift in responses when music is added to the animations.
Outcome measures (SRS)	Significant negative correlation between SRS scores and intentionality scores for the ToM animations. Intentionality scores showed relation to parental report of social behavior (SRS)

Conclusion deficits in social attribution in the present context cannot be influenced by music. music had no differential effects on the ASD and TD groups. Music altered appropriateness in all participants, and decreased intentionality scores of all participants' responses on the more socially complex animations. differences between subgroups within the autism spectrum in the effect music has on appropriateness and intentionality of descriptions. adolescents with ASD show no deficits in their ability to integrate music with moving visual displays or their ability to extract meaning from musical excerpts.

HFASD = High-Functioning Autism Spectrum Disorder; VIQ = verbal IQ; PIQ = Performance IQ; FSIQ = Full Scale IQ

4.2.2 Geretsegger, Holck and Gold (2012), and Geretsegger et al. (2016)

Geretsegger, Holck and Gold (2012) presents the study design of a larger study on social ability in children with ASD, however the completed study not published yet. In 2016 the results of a pilot study were published, using the same design but a smaller sample size (Geretsegger et al. 2016). The design of Geretsegger, Holck, and Gold (2012) is shown in Tab. 2, whereas Tab. 3 lists the data of the completed pilot study.

The study aims to children aged 4 to 6, and compares a high intensity condition in which they receive three interventions per week to a low intensity condition with only one intervention per week. An additional control group does not get any music therapy intervention. The music therapy intervention is based on improvisational music therapy (Bruscia 1987; Wigram 2004), and the level of ASD is moderate-severe. Over the course of 5 months the children in the experimental conditions receive 30 minutes of music therapy in an individual setting. The results of the pilot study reveal low consistency between the outcome measures SRS and ADOS (Lord et al. 2000; Ruehl et al. 2005), there are different outcomes in 60% of the cases.

Tab. 2: Overview of Geretsegger, Holck, and Gold (2012)

Experimental group	Children with ASD aged 4;0-6;11 years n = approx. 235 f = tba ; m = tba
Control group	As above
Method	Improvisational music therapy interventions
Frequency of interventions	EG1: 3x week EG2: 1x week CG: no intervention 30 minutes 5 months
Objective/Hypothesis	children's social communicative ability will increase over time. social communication skills may be better in music therapy conditions than in the standard care condition. more frequent music therapy may intensify the improvement in the skills assessed.
Outcome measures (SRS)	tba
Conclusion	tba

EG = experimental group; CG = control group

Tab. 3: Overview of Geretsegger et al. (2016)

Experimental group 1	Children with ASD aged 4;0-6;11 years n = 4
Experimental group 2	Children with ASD aged 4;0-6;11 years n = 3
Control group	Children with ASD aged 4;0-6;11 years n = 8
Method	individual improvisational music therapy interventions
Frequency of interventions	EG1: 3x week EG2: 1x week CG: no intervention 5 months 30 minutes
Objective/Hypothesis	evaluate feasibility of study procedures, safety, document concomitant treatment, and report consistency of individuals' trends in chosen outcome measures over time.
Outcome measures (SRS)	low consistency between outcome measures (ADOS and SRS) different outcomes 60% of cases
Conclusion	need for reports on feasibility of study designs

EG = experimental group; CG = control group ; ADOS = Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule (Lord 2000)

4.2.4 LaGasse (2014)

This study compares the effect of both group music therapy (MTG) and social skill training (SSG) on the social abilities of children with ASD. In small groups of 3-4, the children join either the MTG or the SSG program twice a week for 5 weeks. The SRS is performed by the parents as a secondary measure.

The severity of the ASD is not specified in the text, however SRS scores ranging around 95 and 115 indicate a rather moderate form of impairment. The sample is very little, with a total of 17 children participating in the study. The music therapy interventions include exercises for cooperative play, sensory experience, turn taking and priming in the group music. A welcome and farewell song help structure the session.

On the SRS the study shows a significant effect for the interaction between time and group. There are significant differences for the MTG pretest and posttest. The SSG control group, however, showed no significant results.

The significant differences between MTG and SSG, with more improvement in the MTG, indicate that the learned behavior from the MTG has been transferred to the family situation. However, the sample size with a total of 17 participants is very small.

Tab. 4: Overview of LaGasse (2014)

Experimental group 1	ASD aged 6-9 n = 9 f = 2; m = 7 receive group-based music therapy (GMT)
Experimental group 2	ASD n = 8 f = 2; m = 6 receive training in a social skill group (SSG)
Method	Group-based music therapy (MTG) is compared to training in a Social Skill Group (SSG) performed in small groups (3-4)
Frequency of interventions	50 min. 10 sessions 2x week
Objective/Hypothesis	observe the effect of GMT on eye gaze, joint attention, and communication in children with ASD SRS and ATEC as secondary measurements
Outcome measures (SRS)	Significant interaction between time and group for SRS scores, with improvements for the MTG but not the SSG Significant differences between MTG and SSG, more improvements for the MTG Improvements in the GMT shown on the SRS, however not on the ATEC
Conclusion	Promising results for the use of GMT to enhance social skills in children with ASD

HFASD = High-Functioning Autism Spectrum Disorder; ATEC = Autism Treatment Evaluation Checklist

4.2.5 Thompson, McFerran and Gold (2013)

The study is conducted with a sample of 23 children aged 3-6 with severe ASD, and limited or no verbal communication. Family-centered music therapy (FCMT) is applied in addition to early intervention programs. The children receive 30-40 minutes of FCMT once a week for a total of 16 weeks.

FCMT is a music therapeutical approach that is performed at the family's home. It follows family-centered principles, in which the collaboration between therapist and parent is emphasized. The therapist's role is to "provide support and guidance to enable the parent to interact with their child in music making activities" (Thompson, McFerran and Gold 2013). To structure the sessions an initial Hello-Song is applied, followed by a range of exercises targeting shared attention, eye contact, turn taking, initiation and response to joint attention.

Significant outcomes are reported for the *Vineland Social-Emotional Early Childhood Scales (VSEEC)* (Sparrow, Balla & Cicchetti 1998), but not for the SRS. The sample size with a total of 23 participants is very small.

Tab. 5: Overview of Thompson, McFerran, and Gold (2013)

Experimental group	Severe ASD Aged 3-6 years FCMT in addition to early intervention programs n = 12 limited or no functional verbal communication
Control group	severe ASD aged 3-6 years early intervention programmes only

	n = 11 limited or no functional verbal communication
Method	FCMT
Frequency of interventions	16 weeks of FCMT 1x week 30-40 min.
Objective/Hypothesis	Examine the impacts of FCMT on social engagement abilities
Outcome measures (SRS)	there was no significant difference for the SRS-PS, indicating that broader social responsiveness in the children remained stable. Significant results for the VSEEC
Conclusion	FCMT improves social interactions in the home and community and the parent-child relationship, but not language skills or general social responsiveness.

FCMT = family-centered music therapy; VSEEC = Vineland Social-Emotional Early Childhood Scales (VSEEC)

5. Analysis

5.1 Overview

An analysis aiming for the type of the music intervention, the sample, and the frequency of interventions is conducted. However, since the number of studies that met the inclusion criteria is rather small, there is only little evidence from this research.

5.2 Type of music intervention

Three studies base themselves on interventions of music therapy. The interventions, however, differ significantly. Even if all these interventions use music as key element, there are major differences. Improvisational music therapy uses musical, whereas MTG and FCMT use a predefined set of exercises that address problems in ASD specifically, such as eye contact. While MTG is performed in small groups of 3-4 children under guidance of the therapist, FCMT takes place in the family context. Therefore, only the interventions that are performed in groups (LaGasse 2014; Thompson, McFerran and Gold 2013), either a peer-group or family, show significant effects on parent-reported rating scales. Geretsegger et al. (2016), that uses an individual setting, does not show significant effects on any of the parent-reported scales. It could be that the skills learned within the therapeutic setting did not yet generalize to other areas of social life.

Tab. 6: Type of Music intervention

Bhatara et al. (2009)	Geretsegger et al. (2016)	LaGasse (2014)	Thompson, McFerran and Gold (2013)
Background music	Improvisational music therapy (IMT)	Group music therapy (MTG)	Family-centered music therapy (FCMT)

5.3 Sample

All studies target children with ASD. Only Bhatara et al. (2009) compares a adolescents with ASD to a normally developing control group. One study works on high-functioning autism, two focus on moderate and one on severe autism. The age groups are different, only Geretsegger et al. (2016) und Thompson, McFerran and Gold (2013) work on a similar range of age. Consequently, the studies are hardly comparable for their samples.

Tab. 7: Sample

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Bhatara et al. (2009)	Geretsegger et al. (2016)	LaGasse (2014)	Thompson, McFerran and Gold (2013)
Adolescents with high-functioning ASD (10-19) Typically developing adolescents (8-18)	Children with moderate ASD (4-6)	Children with moderate ASD (6-9)	Children with severe ASD (3-6)

5.4 Frequency of Interventions

Among the music therapy studies one lasts 4 months, one 5 months and the last 5 weeks. The only study showing significant results on the SRS is the one lasting only 5 weeks, that also uses a much more time on each session (50 min.). Thompson, McFerran and Gold (2013) show significant results on the VSEEC.

Tab. 8: Frequency of Interventions

Bhatara et al. (2009)	Geretsegger et al. (2016)	LaGasse (2014)	Thompson, McFerran and Gold (2013)
2 blocks of 8/10 animations	1) 30 min.; 3x week 2) 30 min.; 1x week 3) no music intervention → 5 months	1) 50 min.; 2x week (MTG) 2) 50 min.; 2x week (SSG) → 5 weeks	1) 30-40 min.; 1x week 2) no music intervention → 4 months

6. Results and Discussion

The number of studies that use both, music-based interventions and the SRS is small, as is the sample size in each study, which reduces the validity of this study. However, there is some data, that might hint towards possible challenges in the field. Individual music therapy has shown to have less effect on parent-based scales. The SRS usually measures the generalized social abilities of the child, meaning that skills learned in a therapy or teaching situation, such as individual music therapy, are transferred to another part of life, like family life, the playground or the classroom. A reason why achievements from music sessions do not translate into daily family life could be caused by the difficulties people with ASD with stimulus generalization. It can be difficult for them to convey abilities learned in a teaching situation to daily life activities that include different places or people (Plaisted 2001; Hundert, Rowe, & Harrison 2014). This can lead to the situation that skills learned during the therapy situation do not transfer to the family situation at home – and therefore cannot be measured by a scale that is based on parent report. Also, this is reflected by the fact that teacher and parent outcomes may differ on the SRS since one is performed in the school and the other one at home (Reszka et al. 2014), and might contribute to the diverging results in Geretsegger et al. (2016). Improvements that would have taken place in the individual music therapy session might not have been transferred to the family life situation and consequently have not been measured by the SRS or the ADOS.

Consequently, the application of a two-step-model might be useful when addressing the impact of music on social skills of children with ASD. In a first step the learning of the new skills could be addressed, whereas a second step aims to measure the level of generalization of the learned skills into other social situations. Instead of measuring the effect of an intervention only by a parent or teacher reported tool, it might be useful to add at least one measuring method that aims to the therapy or teaching situation as suggested by (Lopata et al., 2010; Lord et al., 2005), or to focus on either one or the other.

However, the outcomes can vary within two different parent report-based tests. LaGasse (2014) reports improvements on the SRS, but not on the ATEC, and Thompson, McFerran and Gold (2013) find results on the VSEEC, but not on the SRS-PS. A change of instrument might be a possible step. The *Childhood Autism Rating Scale* (Schopler et al. 2010) for instance has shown to be better at diagnosing children who are low functioning (Mayes et al. 2009).

Music therapy interventions are multilayered interventions, due to the wide nature of music and therapy (Bruscia 1998). So the identification of a factor that has influence on the measuring instruments is accordingly difficult. However, maybe addressing the problem of generalization might help to explain the problem of differing outcomes.

7. Conclusion

The current research situation has shown to be still rather small. So, further research is needed in the area of parent report-based instruments for measuring the efficacy of music interventions on social abilities. More research is needed as well, for music interventions in an inclusive scholastic context, as well as for the process of generalization in the context of music therapy.

In an inclusive classroom the SRS might be a good choice, if performed by the teacher. Since the child will learn and exercise its skills in the classroom, there is no need to wait for generalization into another environment in this setting. For the context of children with ASD in an inclusive classroom, in which the music therapy intervention will take place including the whole class, the SRS – especially the teacher-based version – seems to be promising.

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Tables:

Tab. 1: Overview of Bhatara et al. (2009)

Tab. 2: Overview of Geretsegger, Holck, and Gold (2012)

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Tab. 7: Sample

Tab. 8: Frequency of Interventions

Heat Waves in the City of Gaziantep in Turkey

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Abstract

In this study, the duration, frequency and the impact of heat waves on comfort conditions, experienced particularly in the summers, have been examined with the purpose of revealing how the annual and monthly temperatures in Gaziantep, a city located in the South Eastern district of Turkey, are affected by the global climate change. Initially, the data on minimum, maximum and average heat in the period from 1940 to 2015, retrieved from the Meteorological Station in the city center, were analyzed using the Mann-Kendall trend analysis, which is a non-parametric test, and the increase/decrease trends in temperature parameters were determined. Afterwards, the impact of heat waves on the comfort levels was demonstrated using the "Heat Index (apparent temperature)" method by Steadman (1979), analyzing the heat waves that are predicted to increase in rate and frequency with the climate change, even though the statistical distributions remain the same. According to the results produced by the Heat Index method, it is estimated that the temperatures in the region will shift towards a warmer climate in terms of thermal conditions. It is believed that this study will be highly instrumental in prompting necessary precautions to avert the heat waves reaching a disaster level in Gaziantep, which is located in a position susceptible to heat waves due to its latitude and geographical conditions.

Keywords: Heat Waves, Apparent Temperature, hot days, trend, Gaziantep climate

Introduction

The effects of climate change go beyond the changes in the average temperatures and comprise negative shifts (Trenberth et al., 2007). In the scenario of a 2° C warmer world, almost every future will be as hot or hotter than the hottest that people + material, spiritual and physical impact in a global context. The IPCC (2012) reports concluded that there was an increase in the number of heatwaves since the mid-20th century and that it was very likely that the length, frequency, and / or intensity of these events would increase over the land areas of the 21st century. According to the dynamic model projections, the fact that frequency, intensity and duration of extreme temperatures will augment at least over the next century necessitates the observation of extreme temperatures in different climates and scales (Perkins, 2013) (Opitz-Stapleton, 2016). Studies on Europe and the Mediterranean region predict that the number and duration of hot extremes will rise and the number of cold extremes will decline (Kostopoulou, 2005; Tebaldi, 2006; Jones, 2008; Kuglitsch, 2010; Christidis, 2012; IPCC, 2012; Tanarhte, 2012; IPCC, 2013). Also, the studies on extreme temperatures, heat waves and heat index for Turkey, which is in the Mediterranean basin, verify the potential increase in the number and severity of extreme events (Unal, 2013; Deniz, 2013; Erlüt, 2015; Bölük, 2013; Deniz, 2003; Gönençgil, 2016). A hot day is defined as a day where the daily temperature exceeds the long-term daily 95th percentile of daily temperature (Della-Marta, 2007). In order for heat waves to emerge, hot days meeting these conditions must continue for at least three days. Extreme temperature events are customarily connected to large-scale anticyclonic weather systems. Heat wave features include positive radiation anomalies due to adiabatic warming, hot air advection and reduced cloudlessness (Black, 2004; Meehl, 2004). The atmospheric conditions controlling the formation of hot weather and hot air waves in Turkey are due to the strengthened and long-circulating southern sector surface and boundary layer winds and southern sector hot air advectons which developed at a geopotential height of 850 hPa. This atmospheric circulation pattern results in the formation of much warmer weather conditions and warm weather waves, which can particularly be observed from June to the end of September (Erlat, 2015). The heat waves are formed by a ridge structure extending in the south-north direction. This structure carries warm air from Africa to the North (advection). Subsequently, adiabatic warming due to subsidence, which is one of the characteristics of high pressure systems, strengthens the effect of heat waves (Zittis, 2015). The annual

variability of the heat waves arises from the lagged effects of ENSO (El-Nino-South Oscillation) due to the increased water vapor reaction with increasing extreme temperatures following the hot ENSO events (Boutheina, 2017).

2.Method

2.1. Data and Location: The daily maximum temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and mean relative humidity (%) was collected from Turkish Meteorological Department for the period 196-2016 in order to calculate the heat waves (HW) and heat index (HI). Extreme events typically occur in mid-summer, although less intense heat waves are also experienced during spring and early autumn. In addition to the temporal tendency of the event, an extended summer season lasting 153 days (from May to September) was chosen in this study in order to reveal the spread of the event over the year. Gaziantep Meteorological Station, which is situated in an open and sensitive location to heat waves due to its climatic features, was chosen as the location of this study (Figure 1). It is forecasted that the effects of climate change on Turkey in the Mediterranean basin will increase in number and the duration of drought and extreme heat incidences (Erlat, 2015). In the city of Gaziantep, which shows the characteristics of Terrestrial Mediterranean Transition Climate in general (Turkes, 2010), it is observed that the maximum temperatures are high (average 38°C), very low humidity (average 41%) and severe evaporation conditions prevail in the summer season. The Mediterranean characteristic is a result of the natural order that constitutes the climate conditions. This is particularly evident from the highly distinctive summer drought and the concurrence of maximum rainfall with the winter season (Eriç, 1980).



Figure 1: Location map of Gaziantep (37.0585°N , 37.3510°E and 854 m.)

Gaziantep is exposed to heat waves when it is under the effect of the Basra low pressure system. This phenomenon is also observed in the temperature parameters. Upon an examination of the summer temperature trends, it is evident that the impact of heat waves is intensified (Figure 2).

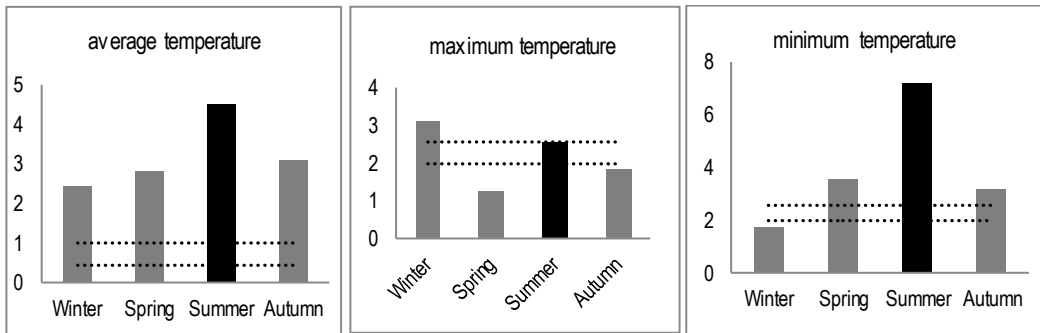


Figure 2: Seasonal trends of Gaziantep average, maximum and minimum temperature parameters.

2.2. Data Processing: The method includes a range of definitions that may be useful for a wide range of systems. Based on Fischer (2010) and Perkins (2012), a series of indices were calculated that characterize the persistence and severity of temperature wave events. The heat index was based on the works of Steadman (1984). The results were subjected to OLS and nonparametric Mann-Kendall test. The level of significance was calculated at 1% and 5%. In this way, trends in temperature fluctuations and comfort values were examined by determining the magnitude and direction of the possible trend in the parameters.

Heat Waves Metrics: A heat wave is defined as a minimum 3-day row when the daily maximum temperature is equal to and above the 95th percentile of the control period. 95th percentile is calculated for a fifteen-day window centered on each calendar day of the control period (1960-2016). The four basic characteristics of the heat wave (HWF, HWN, HWA, HWD) have been found out.

HWF95 (frequency): The average frequency of days meeting the heatwave criterion. **HWN95 (number):** The average number of heatwaves per summer. **HWA95 (amplitude):** The average peak temperature of the hottest heatwave per summer (years without heatwaves are excluded from the analysis). **HWD95 (duration):** The average duration of the longest heatwave per summer (years without heatwaves are excluded from this analysis).

Combined hot days and tropical nights (CHT): In addition to the heat wave characteristics, CHT, which is a combination of tropical nights and hot days, was calculated. CHT refers to the days when the maximum temperature is above 35 °C and the minimum temperature is above 20 °C (Fischer, 2010) (Perkins S., 2015).

Heat Index (Apparent Temperature): In the context of Climatology, the recommended heat wave indices are quite high (Meehl, 2004; Fischer, 2010; Nairn, 2013; Stefanon, 2013; Schoetter, 2014; Vautard, 2013). Although there is some common ground covered by the Indices, no standard definition of heat waves has been available up until now (Suparta, 2017; Perkins, 2015). This makes it difficult to compare changes in heat waves, particularly at the regional scale (Perkins, 2015).

The heat wave varies relying on the length of consecutive days, the type of data temperature (minimum, average, maximum), the thresholds used to determine an extreme temperature, and whether humidity is taken into account (Perkins, 2012). In this study, the Apparent Temperature (T_a) developed by Steadman (1984) was used in order to reveal the change in comfort conditions (Steadman, 1984). The Heat Index (HI) or known as the "Apparent Temperature (T_a)" might also be considered when studying the heat wave event. The method was widely used in order to produce weather warnings in real-life situations. Steadman, translated combinations of relative humidity and temperature calculated in the same units as air temperature. As the impact of wind is ignored (indoor conditions), Apparent Temperature formula is expressed as

$$T_a(^{\circ}\text{C}) = -1.3 + 0.92T + 2.2e$$

where T is ambient air temperature (°C) and e is saturation vapour pressure (kPa) (Steadman, 1984).

Relative humidity; as a percentage of the ratio of observed vapor pressure to the saturated vapor pressure at the same temperature and pressure, the vapor pressure can be calculated as a function of the relative humidity using the equation (WMO, 2008):

$$e = 6.112 * \exp \left[\frac{17.62t}{243.12+t} \right] * RH * 0,01$$

where t = air temperature (dry-bulb temperature)

e = saturation vapour pressure in the pure phase with regard to water at the dry-bulb temperature.

RH = relative humidity

3. Findings

3.1. Heat Waves metrics: A set of six heatwave metrics was computed in order to enable a comprehensive analysis of heat wave characteristics (Table 1). The level of significance in the trend analysis was determined as 5% and 1%. The maximum temperature thresholds (TX95pct) are above 30 °C (average 35.8) at the Gaziantep Meteorological Station. The TX95pct statistically shows a strong positive trend at the 1% level. The increase in the threshold values is connected to the increase in the maximum temperature averages, and, hence, to the formation of heat waves. Seasonal average frequency of days (HWF) meeting the heat wave criteria varies from 3 to 21 days in the location chosen for the study. The average is less than 5 days. No significant change in trend analysis of HWFs was observed. However, it is predicted that possible increases in the HWF will lead to an increase in the HWD and HWNs. There is an average of 1.3 heat waves per year (No heat wave was observed for 10 years in the control period). The highest number of heat waves was observed in 1979 with 5 incidences. The change of HWNs is not statistically significant.

HWA is the heat wave amplitude that refers to the hottest day of the warmest heat wave (the peak of the warmest heat wave). The index for Gaziantep varied between 32.2 and 44 °C between 1960 and 2016 with an average of 38.9 °C. This value is a result of Gaziantep's latitude and geographical features. According to the trend analysis, though the amplitude of the heat wave has a positive tendency in Gaziantep, it is not statistically significant. The average duration of heat waves in Gaziantep varies between 3 and 6 days. An average of about three days of heat waves is experienced each year. According to the trend analysis, the duration of heat waves does not show any significant change. In a study about the Mediterranean basin (Kuglitsch, 2010), it was determined that the Eastern Mediterranean was affected by shorter (less than 6 days) but more intense heat waves events in comparison to the previous decades (Kuglitsch, 2010). However, for example, CHT values, namely, the days with a combination of hot days and tropical nights, show a strong positive trend at 1% statistically. It is particularly noteworthy that the number of days meeting the CHT criteria in 1998, 2007, 2010 and 2016 is over 60. Similar results have been observed in the work of Barriopedro et al.(2011) and Christiansen (2013). Christiansen found a generally upward trend in the same years (except in 2016) in his study on the changes in the summer period of high temperature extremes. Barriopedro et al.(2011), described 2003 and 2010 as "mega-temperature waves" because 50% of Europe exceeded the temperature records of about 500 years.

Table 1: Mean (min/max) Values and Trends of TX95pct, HWF95, HWN95, HWA95 and HWD95 from 1960 to 2016 using the Mann-Kendall test.

Metrics	Mean (min/max)	Z test	Significance
TX95pct (°C)	35,8 (33,3/38)	3,23	**
HWF95 (days)	4,5 (3/21)	0,17	
HWN95 (days)	1,3 (1/5)	0,12	
HWA95 (°C)	38,9 (32,2/44)	0,78	
HWD95 (days)	2,8 (3/6)	0,10	
CHT (days)	34,3 (10/66)	4,9	***

3.2. Apparent Temperature (Heat Index):

The number of heat indexes per year was calculated according to average and maximum temperatures and trends were determined by OLS (not shown here) and Mann-Kendall test (Table 2). Since the average temperatures tend to increase in Gaziantep in general, this is also reflected in T_{a} values. The average temperature heat index $T_{a(avg)}$ statistically showed a strong positive trend at 1% level. $T_{a(max)}$ values calculated for maximum temperatures showed a positive trend at 5% level.

Table 2: Trends in the number of heat indexes per year in terms of average and maximum temperatures

Parameters	Time range	n	Test Z	Sign.
Number of $T_{a(avg)}$	1960-2016	57	4,92	***
Number of $T_{a(max)}$	1960-2016	57	2,34	*

/ indicates positive/negative trends at the 1% significant level

* indicates positive/negative trends at the 5% significant level

According to the apparent temperature categories, T_{avg} values show a strong positive increase at 1% level in the temperature variability (Table 3) in terms of the "caution" category statistics. In T_{amax} "caution" category, in contrast, strong negative significance is observed. This does not mean that the maximum temperatures tend to decrease; On the contrary, the temperatures (maximum and mean) tend to increase in general and show an upward shift through time (discomfort level) in terms of heat index. T_{amax} values tend to increase strongly in the category of "extreme caution" by 1%. In a study conducted by Deniz (2013) on summer days ($\geq 25^{\circ}C$) in Turkey about the trends in tropical days ($\geq 30^{\circ}C$), long-term upward trends in summer temperatures, are quite evident in the south of Turkey. The rising trends in temperatures are evident due to the decreasing number of summer days during the summer season and the increasing numbers of tropical days in the Southeastern Turkey. In the same study, the number of tropical days in the Southeastern Anatolia Region was calculated over 90-110 days. T_{avg} values which may be included in the "danger" category are not observed and T_{amax} values are in a tendency of positive increase which is not meaningful in the danger category.

Table 3: Temperature Trends According to T_a Categorizations Calculated Based on Maximum and Mean Temperature:

Category	Time range	n	Test Z	Sign.
Caution (T_{avg}) (26-32°C)	1960-2016	57	4,62	***
Extreme caution (T_{avg}) (32-40°C)	1960-2016	26	0,94	
Danger (T_{avg}) (40-55°C)	1960-2016	-	-	-
Caution (T_{amax}) (26-32°C)	1960-2016	57	-3,59	***
Extreme caution (T_{amax}) (32-40°C)	1960-2016	57	4,31	***
Danger (T_{amax}) (40-55°C)	1960-2016	57	1,55	

/ indicates positive/negative trends at the 1% significant level

* indicates positive/negative trends at the 5% significant level

The distribution tendencies of the T_{amax} values according to the categories are calculated and presented in Table 4. Tendency calculations show that T_{amax} values tend to be strongly positive in the period from June to September, with June being very strong (1% level). This phenomenon indicates that the events of the heat wave predicted to happen during the summer season extend to the early autumn in Gaziantep. Therefore, it can be concluded that the synoptic conditions producing the heat wave in Gaziantep continues up until the beginning of autumn.

Table 4: Distribution trends of T_{amax} values by categories (1960-2016)

Months	Time range	n	Test Z	Sign.
May	1960-2016	57	0,43	

June	1960-2016	57	2,78	**
July	1960-2016	57	2,45	*
August	1960-2016	57	2,0	*
September	1960-2016	57	2,12	*

/ indicates positive/negative trends at the 1% significant level

* indicates positive/negative trends at the 5% significant level

4.Results and Evaluations

Due to the geographical position of Gaziantep, it is situated in a sensitive location in terms of heat waves. With increasing migration in recent years, it has become one of the fastest growing cities in Turkey in terms of population (Sönmez, 2012). Accordingly, it is imperative to take precautions for the possible extremes of hot weather based on the changes in the climate. In this study, in which the characteristics of heat waves and comfort conditions in Gaziantep are presented, it is seen that the positive trends of heat waves as number, duration and frequency are not significant, but the threshold values used for heat waves show strong positive trends. CHT values demonstrate statistically positive significance levels. This shows that hot nights and tropical days have risen in number in Gaziantep based on the increase in minimum and maximum temperatures. The heat index (Ta) calculated on the basis of the relationship between average and maximum temperatures and relative humidity in terms of comfort levels has shown significant increases in both average and maximum Ta values. Considering the seasonal distribution of the heat index, there is an increase in the tendency of negative comfort conditions from June to September. Therefore, the negative conditions spread over the summer period extending to the early autumn period. It is vital to develop a strategy to minimize the negative effects of hot waves on the country and especially for early warning and mitigation efforts. Considering that data from only one meteorological station has been studied, only the temporal changes of the heat waves are presented in this study. Other stations in the Southeastern Anatolian Region may also be included in the study and the spatial changes in the region may be revealed further in the prospective studies.

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Continuous Assessment in ESP Context

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Abstract

Due to the globalization process and scarcity of learning hours Ukrainian higher educational standards in terms of English for Specific Purposes course are being reconsidered currently to enable university graduates to be highly competitive in the world labour market. Under these conditions assessment as an integrated part of any process of learning has to be reviewed as well. Earlier assessment was used as a tool for increasing extrinsic motivation of students and measuring their success, but nowadays, when the learning hours have been decreased dramatically, we have researched, how to reduce possible demotivating effect of assessment and how to use assessment for enhancing intrinsic motivation of students. For that purpose we have used a variety of continuous assessment. Moreover, we have managed to contribute in the development of 21-st century skills of our students (critical thinking, creative thinking, collaborating, communicating) through self-assessment and peer-assessment while they were developing the criteria for assessment themselves. Furthermore, during the experiment that lasted from September, 2016 till June, 2017 students under our supervision have developed the lists of criteria for assessing such soft skills as presentation preparation and delivery, participation in discussions, etc. The results of the experiment were measured with the help of summative assessment at the end of the study year and questionnaires that students under experiment filled in January, 2017 and in June, 2017. The difference with the control group was tremendous.

Keywords: continuous assessment, peer-assessment, self-assessment, formative assessment, summative assessment, 21st century skills, soft skills, intrinsic motivation, English for Specific Purposes

Introduction

Under the process of crucial transformation of higher educational standards that is going on in Ukraine we can not help considering such an integrated part of any learning process as assessment. There is a great variety of definitions what assessment is. T.Dary Erwin identifies assessment as: 'the systematic basis for making inferences about the learning and development of students. It is the process of defining, selecting, designing, collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and using information to increase students' learning and development' (Erwin, 1991). Catherine A. Palomba and Trudy W. Banta determine assessment as: 'the systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving student learning and development' (Palomba and Banta, 1999). Mary E. Huba and Jann E. Freed define assessment as: 'the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences; the process culminates when assessment results are used to improve subsequent learning' (Huba and Freed, 2000). Mary J. Allen thinks that 'assessment involves the use of empirical data on student learning to refine programs and improve student learning' (Allen, 2007).

Mostly all of these definitions are more or less similar, but for current Ukrainian tertiary education in general and for English for Specific Purposes course in particular the most relevant and up-to-date definitions of assessment are given in Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR, 2011) and by Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St.John (Dudley-Evans and St.John, 2012). Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St.John say that assessment is a part of evaluation and is not limited only to formal measuring process (tests), but includes 'less formal,

more qualitative methods' that give 'feedback on learning' (Dudley-Evans and St.John, 2012). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment implies assessment as evaluation of not only language proficiency, but the effectiveness of materials and methods used by the teacher, learners' satisfaction, etc (CEFR, 2011). Furthermore, they introduce different types of assessment: continuous assessment, formative and summative assessment, checklist rating, assessment by others, self-assessment, etc (CEFR, 2011). Continuous assessment is integrated in the course assessment, 'which contributes in cumulative way to the assessment at the end of the course' (CEFR, 2011). According to Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St.John continuous assessment is more flexible, can be done during some period of time by the teacher, the learner him/herself or by peers, moreover, learners can use different resources to complete their work (Dudley-Evans and St.John, 2012).

We think that continuous assessment is crucially important especially in English for Specific Purposes course, because it does not only give feedback from teacher to student, student to teacher, student to student that certainly leads to learning improvement, but develops intrinsic motivation of learners, their autonomy and prepares them to function effectively in their future professional situations. Moreover, we have researched how self-assessment and peer-assessment can improve the final performance of the learners.

Methods

The main method used was experimental research. Two groups (control and experimental) of 1st year students majoring in International Economics participated in the experiment. Each group consisted of 12 people of approximately the same initial level of language proficiency. The experiment lasted from September, 2016 till June, 2017 and finished with summative assessment in June, 2017. The students of the experimental group were deeply involved in developing the criteria for assessment, in the process of self-assessment and peer-assessment according to the criteria. Furthermore, they were asked to analyse the effectiveness, objectivity and influence of such type of assessment on students' intrinsic motivation enhancement. For this analysis preliminary, interim and closing questionnaires were used during the experiment, where students expressed their attitude to such approach to assessment and changes in their intrinsic motivation. The experiment during the whole academic year gave an opportunity to analyse and compare the progress the students from experimental group and from the control group had made.

Results

Before we start describing the results it is important to outline the scheme of scores accumulation during the semester. At the end of each semester the 1st year students could get 100 points in total: during the first and the second modules - 40 points, for their self study - 40 points, as well and 20 points - for their final test. In terms of preparation of future professionals self-study can be considered as one of the most important parts of this preparation. Self-study gives the students certain amount of autonomy, helps them to develop such skills as critical thinking, creative thinking, collaborating, communicating, considered as 21-st century skills, skills that are sought by employers in their potential employees. So our students due to self-study are getting competitive advantage in the labour market. That is why assessment of such kind of study attains more and more weight. We have studied how assessment could be not only objective, but also motivating.

One of the forms of reporting the results of students' self-study findings is presentation. It should be mentioned, that presentation skill is one of the most important skill that employers of the 21st century will expect from their future employees, who are currently our students. That is why the purpose of our research was to check how to assess it adequately and enhance students' intrinsic motivation in the same time. Teacher together with students during the learning, how to prepare and deliver a successful presentation simultaneously creates a number of criteria, according to which their presentation is going to be assessed. Then with the help of online tool for creating rubrics - Rubistar (Rubistar), we range the number of points the students can get for meeting this or that criteria.

For example, for oral presentation we have used the following rubric (Adapted from Rubistar):

Category	2	1	0
1. Vocabulary	Uses extensive and appropriate vocabulary. Extends audience vocabulary by defining words that might be new to most of the	Uses rather extensive vocabulary, but sometimes inappropriately. Includes 1-2 words that might be new to most of the audience, but does not define them.	Uses not extensive vocabulary,

	audience.		
2. Content	Show s a full understanding of the topic and achieves target audience's attention.	Show s a good understanding of the topic, but sometimes fails in achieving target audience's attention.	Does not seem to understand the topic very well.
3. Preparedness	Student is completely prepared and has obviously rehearsed.	Student seems pretty prepared but might have needed a couple more rehearsals.	Student does not seem at all prepared to present.
4. Speakes clearly	Speaks clearly and distinctly all (100-95%) the time, and mispronounces no words.	Speaks clearly and distinctly most (94-85%) the time, but mispronounces 2-3 words.	Often mumbles or can not be understood or mispronounces more than 2-3 words.
5. Posture and eye contact	Stands up straight, looks relaxed and confident. Establishes eye contact with everyone in the room during the presentation.	Sometimes stands up straight and establishes eye contact.	Slouches and/or does not look at people during the presentation.
6. Volume	Volume is loud enough to be heard by all audience members throughout the presentation.	Volume is loud enough to be heard by all audience members at least 80% of the time.	Volume often too soft to be heard by all audience members.
7. Collaboration with peers	Almost always listens to, shares with, and supports the efforts of others in the group. Tries to keep people working well together.	Often listens to, shares with, and supports the efforts of others in the group but sometimes is not a good team member.	Rarely listens to, shares with, and supports the efforts of others in the group. Often is not a good team member.
8. Pitch	Pitch was often used and it conveyed emotions appropriately .	Pitch was often used but the emotion it conveyed sometimes did not fit the content.	Pitch was not used to convey emotion.
9. Comprehension	Student is able to accurately answer almost all questions posed by classmates about the topic.	Student is able to accurately answer a few questions posed by classmates about the topic.	Student is unable to accurately answer questions posed by classmates about the topic.
10. Time limit	Presentation is 5-6 minutes long.	Presentation is 3-4 minutes long.	Presentation is less than 3 minutes or more than 6 minutes.

After the presentation students, who were delivering it, reflect on themselves according to the criteria from this rubric: what went well, what they would change next time, what are their areas for development. Before their reflection, their peers assess them in written form according to the check-list with the criteria (maximum – 20 points), as well as the teacher assesses the presentation according to the same check-list (maximum – 20 points). After the reflection session, peers and the teacher comment the same areas in turn. The final grade (maximum – 40 points) consists of average peers' amount of points (maximum 20) and teacher's grade (maximum 20).

The advantages of such system of presentation assessment are as follows:

When students participate in choosing the criteria they are going to be assessed to, they automatically keep these criteria in mind, when they are preparing to the presentation. This ensures deeper processing of the material, more serious attitude to the task performing and enhancement of students' intrinsic motivation. They mentioned this in their questionnaires.

Three levels of assessment: self-assessment, peer-assessment and teacher assessment lead to profound analysis of the achievements and areas for development by the students themselves. And on this stage some psychological factors are working: if people themselves perceive their progress and mistakes (it is not their teacher, who tells them that they have made a mistake), they subconsciously will not deny them and will try to correct these mistakes. And again due to this effect we can speak about intrinsic motivation.

But, unfortunately, in this system there could be some disadvantages:

For example, validity of such grades is rather disputable. On the one hand, the assessment is measured due to the criteria, but, on the other hand, a half of the grade is given by peers. And that is the question of validity of this part of the grade. To our opinion and according to the results of the experiment the final results coincided teacher's view that means that if the teacher had been the only assessor, the results would be the same. But this problem needs more research and experimenting.

One more challenge is objectivity. Human factor is something that we have to take into consideration. Peers are not professional assessors; they are not bound to be objective. This is a matter of their social responsibility and integrity. It may happen that they increase the amount of points, because they are friends with the presenter, or vice versa, decrease grades of their enemy. During our experiment, in order to avoid subjectivity, we removed one the highest and one the lowest grade, it was done transparently: students knew about the procedure of calculation in advance. But still unfair assessment may happen, because one student may have more than one friend or more than one enemy.

Conclusions

The experiment has shown that continuous formative and summative assessments can not only serve as 'stick and carrot', but be extremely motivating for students. It does not only give feedback from teacher to student, student to teacher, student to student that certainly leads to learning improvement, but develops intrinsic motivation of learners, their autonomy and prepares them to function effectively in their future professional situations, that is why we believe that continuous assessment is crucially important especially in English for Specific Purposes course. Moreover, we found out how self-assessment and peer-assessment can improve the final performance of the learners. The experimental group gained average grade of 37.5 (84%), when the control group's average grade was 33.5 (94%), so the results of the group under experiment are 10% higher, than the results of the control group. Both the final results and the feedbacks of the students have proved the relevance of such system of assessment to the ESP context. In spite of some disadvantages this variety of assessment is worth using in ESP classroom.

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The Impact on Unemployment of Social Security Contributions: the Empirical Analysis in Turkey

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Abstract

Social security contributions are important public incomes after taxes in OECD countries. Beside, social security contributions as a mean of the finance of social security system is a determiner on the main macroeconomic factors such as savings, employment, the cost of employment, the level of shadow economy, economic growth, competitiveness and income inequality. Employment has been important policy goals in Turkey like many OECD countries during recent decades. High unemployment rate is a serious problem for countries. Effecting negatively labor market, high burden of social security contributions causes low level of employment. The aim of this study is to find the relationship between social security contributions and unemployment for Turkey. Therefore, we can evaluate whether reducing social security contributions is a way reducing of unemployment or not. We use time series data during period 1965-2015. The research methodology is based on an analysis of indicators as unemployment rate, social security contributions as percentage of GDPs, the percentage of total tax revenues. Unit root test is non-stationary for social security contributions. On the other hand, unemployment is stationary for related period. The long run relationship between variables was tested by ARDL bound test approach. Based on the sample results, there is a long run cointegration between social security contributions and unemployment rate (both as percentage of GDP and percentage of taxation).

Keywords: *Social security contributions, unemployment, employment, labor market.*

1. Introduction

Social security services make an important contribution to the welfare of individuals. Many countries finance social security system which provides social services such as pensions and disability insurance, health insurance, unemployment benefits with social security contributions. Social security contributions are shared partly by employee, employer and partly self-employed persons. Therefore, the burden of social security contribution is shared between employer and employee. Contributions depend on employees' earnings. Contribution rates are generally flat rate. Social security contributions can't be seen not only a tool of finance but also they are elements which impact on the main macroeconomic factors such as employment, the cost of employment, savings, shadow economy, economic growth and competitiveness. The subject of this study is related to the effects of these contributions on unemployment. Unemployment is a crucial problem in many countries. Turkey has high unemployment rate issue, too. In recent years, it has been thought that growing burden of social security contributions has been made responsible for high unemployment rate. Knowing the extent of participation of high social security contributions in the unemployment, we will be given an opportunity for struggle against unemployment. This paper contributes to the empirical literature concerning the relationship between social security contributions and unemployment.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 explains the effects of social security contributions on demand and supply of labor. In the third section, previous literature is given. In following section, the relationship between social security contributions and unemployment as sample countries Turkey. Section 4 describes the data and the identification to estimate model. The last section concludes with a discussion of the implications of empirical results.

2. The Effects of Social Security Contributions on Demand and Supply of Labor

The equilibrium of the labor market requires that the marginal cost of work is equal to its marginal product (Cuesta and Olivera, 2014:1121). Social security contributions can shape registered employment in a country. High social security contributions paid by employers and employees can negatively effect on demand and supply of labor. Since high social security contributions increase the cost of employment for employers, employers reduce their demand of labor. The supply of labor is declined by employees. As result, unemployment level will be increased. Shadow economy begins to spread in all economy (Arandarenko and Vukojevic, 2008; Schneider, 2012; Stankevicius and Vasiliauskaitė, 2014; Antón, 2014; Gankova – Ivanova, 2015; Binay, 2015). Second is illegal. Employers and employees differ to react to social security contributions. Social security contributions are seen like tax by employers. The reaction of employers depends on the incidence of social security burden. While employees pay these contributions, they establish a link between social security contributions and future benefits (Summers, 1989; Iturbe-Ormaetxe, 2015:741; Gustman and Steinmeier, 2005). Liebman, Luttmer and Seif (2009) investigated this link from point view of marginal Social Security benefits that include retirement age, hours, and labor earnings on labor supply. According to their empirical findings, individuals are incentive to retire that effective marginal social security contributions are high. Generally, social security contributions paid by employees can lead to a decline in their disposable income and in purchasing power in long run. Summary, the labor market response to high social security contributions can be negative. Therefore, a reduction the high social security contribution rates is accepted both in the policy arena and in the economics profession (Steiner, 1996:2). Governments are conducted to decrease social security contributions to promote labor formality and thus provide a larger employment of the population (Antón, 2014:1). When the effects of social security contributions are analyzed, some factors must be taken into account: the elasticity of labor demand and supply, the worker's valuation of the social security benefits, the presence of a binding minimum wage; and the bargaining power of workers in the labor market (Antón, 2014:2).

3. Previous Literature

In literature, the empirical studies of the effects of social security contributions on employment are most related to two streams. The first follows:

Natzmer (1987) suggested that social security contributions have affected negative on economic activities. Dewatripont et al. (1991) reached the result that a cut of social security contributions on unemployment level depends on type of tax. Financing with higher value added tax rate increases in question affect. Steiner (1996) investigated a reduction of the social security contribution rates are financed by increasing indirect taxes on employment for Germany. The result is a positive employment effect of reducing social security contribution rates in short-run, but modest effects remain due to higher wages in long-run. Daveri et al. (2000) found that labor taxes have a significant negative impact of on employment for EU countries. Buscher et al. (2001) analyzed employment effects of the cut in the contribution rate for a number of countries by using macroeconomic models. In study, it is claimed that a cut of social security contributions rate is financed by indirect taxes, in order not to let budget deficit. Bailey (2001) presented some strategies which are changes in the structure of social security, attitudinal changes by employers, employees and government, administrative changes, and solving macroeconomic problems (unemployment, inflation) to reduce contribution evasion in his study. Adjemian et al (2008) analyzed that the long run unemployment can be affected by the frictions in the labor market. Kunze and Schuppert (2010) suggested if cutting social security contributions rate is compensated by increase of capital income taxes, unemployment will be reduced. Antón (2014) investigated the effects of significant decrease in social security contributions in Colombia on labor markets. Accoring to finding, formal employment was increased between 3.4 and 3.7 percent. Binay (2015) analyzed the relationship between total social security contributions and the rate of social security contribution from point view of Laffer curve for Turkey during 2008- 2012. He found that Laffer curve was validated in a statistically significant.

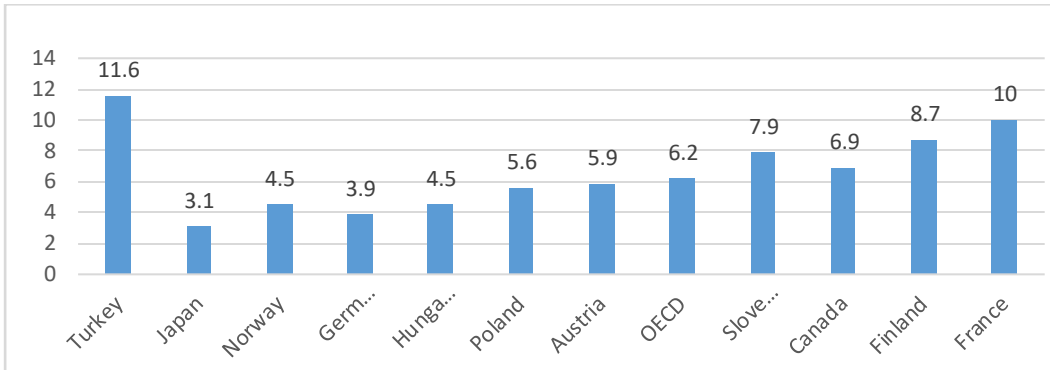
There are a few evidences for second stream. Gruber (1994) did not find any evidence the effect of mandated benefits on employment in the U.S. According to Cruces et al. (2010), any change in social security contributions and other labor taxes does not effect on employment in Argentina.

4. The Relationship between the Social Security Contributions and Unemployment in Turkey

Employment rate by age group indicates difference cross-country. Turkey had the lowest ratio of 33 % in 2016 for aged 55-64, whereas Iceland had a ratio of 83.7% , the highest in the OECD in 2016 (OECD date base). This indicator shows us unemployment issue for Turkey. On the other word, Turkey is under pressure from high unemployment rate. As seen Table 1, Turkey unemployment rate has hit across countries. Turkey had the 4th highest unemployment rate the 36 OECD member

countries in 2016. Unemployment comes from high cost of labor. Despite of many reasons, social security contributions paid by employers is one of the main causes of high cost of labor.

Table 1. Unemployment rate in some OECD Countries in 2016

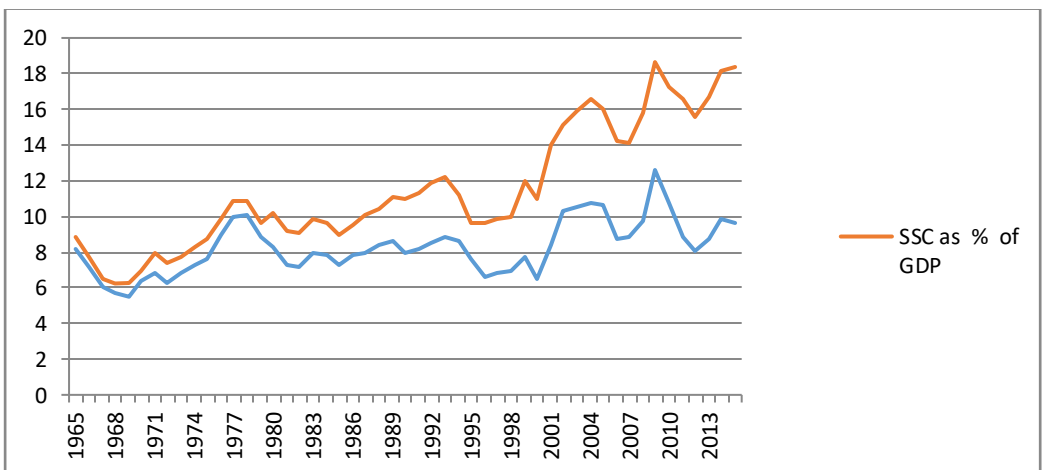


Source: OECD Date Base.

Turkish social security services were presented by three different administrations before the social security reform in the 2000s. Then, three administrations were consolidated as one government authority which is called the Social Security Administration. Social security contributions rate is an important issue because of widespread unemployment in Turkey. It can be observe a dramatic change after 2000's. Figure 1 indicates both unemployment rate and social security contributions as percentage of GDP occupied the highest level in 2009. Unemployment rate rose from % 8 in 1990 to % 9.6 in 2015. As similarly, the share of social security contributions in GDP raised 2.928 in 1990 to 8.207 in 2015.

Based on these indicators, it can be said that high social security contributions causes unemployment in Turkey.

Figure 1 Unemployment Rate and Social Security Contributions as percentage of GDP in Turkey



5. Data and Methodology

Data including social security contributions (SSC) and unemployment rate (UNEMP_t) series were gathered from the OCED and TUIK database for period 1965-2015. Social security contributions (SSC) were measured as the percentage of both gross domestic product (SSC_GDP_t) and tax revenues (SSC_TXT_t).

As methodology, this research steps are as follows: Time series unit root tests were performed: Augmented Dickey Fuller, Phillips-Perron test, and KPSS tests.

Time series cointegration tests were performed,

Long-run and short-run models were performed,

and at last most proper model was selected.

First step is determines stationary levels of relevant variables. In our study, it is used Dickey-Fuller (DF) (1979) test which is one of unit root test.

$$\Delta y_t = \mu + \beta t + \delta y_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_j \Delta y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

If $\delta = 0$, the y_t series is non-stationary or has a unit root. In equation (1), lagged values of depended variables are added into the model for white noise of error term. For this reason, this test is called Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test. The optimal k is determined by Akaike info Criteria (AIC) and Schwarz info Criteria (SIC) (Ng and Perron, 1995). Dickey and Fuller (1979) show that under the null hypothesis of a unit root, test statistic of δ does not follow the conventional Student's t -distribution and they derive asymptotic results and simulate tau critical values for various test and sample sizes.

The one of the most used unit root test is Phillips-Perron (PP) test. Phillips and Perron (1988) propose an alternative (nonparametric) method of controlling for serial correlation when testing for a unit root. The PP method estimates the non-augmented DF test equation (1). Therefore, Phillips and Perron (1988) add a correction term on Dickey-Fuller (1979) equation. That is

CF

$$Z_{\alpha} = T(\hat{\phi}_1 - 1) - CF \quad (2)$$

Where, CF is correction term and calculates as follows:

$$CF = \frac{0.5(s_{T\ell}^2 - s_{\varepsilon}^2)}{\sum_{t=2}^T (y_{t-1} - \bar{y}_{-1})^2 / T^2} \quad (3)$$

Where, s_{ε}^2 is long-run variance. Lastly, PP (1988) test is calculated as follows:

$$Z_{\tau} = \left(\sum_{t=2}^T y_{t-1}^2 \right)^{1/2} \frac{(\hat{\phi}_1 - 1)}{s_{T\ell}} - (1/2) \frac{(s_{T\ell}^2 - s_{\varepsilon}^2)}{\left[s_{T\ell}^2 \left(T^{-2} \sum_{t=2}^T y_{t-1}^2 \right)^{1/2} \right]}$$

(4)

Andrews (1991) shows optimal ℓ is $\ell = o(T^{1/3})$ for lags parameter consistency. Schwert (1989) revealed, if size distortion is corrected in PP test, PP test is the more powerful than DK test.

While the null hypothesis is non-stationary of the series in ADF (1979) and PP (1988) unit root tests, alternative hypothesis series is the stationary of the time series. However, in new unit root test which has been developed by Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt and Shin (KPSS) (1992), the null hypothesis series is stationary. Alternative hypothesis series is non-stationary. That is, hypothesis in KPSS test is different from ASF and PP Tests. In framework above explained, it can be said that KPSS (1992) test is the more powerful than previous unit root tests.

In KPSS (1992) test, firstly deterministic components of series are removed. KPSS test model as follows:

$$y_t = \beta t + w_t + \varepsilon_t$$

(5)

$$w_t = w_{t-1} + u_t$$

(6)

Where, w_t is random walk process, t is deterministic trend, ε_t is stationary errors and u_t is $iid(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$. KPSS LM test statistics calculated as follows:

$$LM = \sum_{t=1}^T S_t^2 / s^2(\ell)$$

(7)

Where, $s^2(\ell) = T^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^T e_t^2 + 2T^{-1} \sum_{s=1}^{\ell} w(s, \ell) \sum_{t=s+1}^T e_t e_{t-s}$ and square root number of observation (

$$\ell = o(T^{1/2})) \text{ is used for consistent estimation of } s^2(\ell).$$

After determined stationary of the series, it can be used Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model for testing long run relationship of the variables. An ARDL is a least squares regression containing lags of the dependent and explanatory variables. If we found mixed stationary levels of series, Johansen (1988) co-integration test cannot be used for determining of long run relationships of the variables. In this case ARDL model is used, which is developed Pesaran at al. (2001). The main advantage of ARDL model can be used in mixed stationary levels of series. The ARDL bound co-integration test model can be shown as follows:

$$\Delta UNEMP_t = \alpha + \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_{1j} \Delta UNEMP_{t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^n \beta_{2j} \Delta SSC_{t-j} + \delta_1 UNEMP_{t-1} + \delta_2 SSC_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

(8)

Where $\varepsilon_t \sim \text{IID}(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$ is white noise (WN) process. After estimating Equation (8), it is necessary to perform the ARDL boundary test to determine whether there is a long-term relationship between the variables. The boundary test is carried out under the following hypotheses:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 : \delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0 \\ H_1 : \delta_1 \neq \delta_2 \neq 0 \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

If the null hypothesis is rejected, it is reached that there is a long-term relationship between the variables. If the null hypothesis is non-rejected, there is no long-term relationship between the variables. When there is co-integration between the variables, long term and short-term relationships can be estimated.

$$\text{UNEMP}_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_{1j} \text{UNEMP}_{t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^n \alpha_{2j} \text{SSC}_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t \tag{10}$$

The model is known as ARDL (m, n) model. Lag lengths (m, n) are determined using information criteria such as AIC, SIC, HQ. After the model is estimated, if the model is diagnostically tested and is suitable, the Error Correction Model (ECM) is estimated as follows:

$$\Delta \text{UNEMP}_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m \gamma_{1j} \Delta \text{UNEMP}_{t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^n \gamma_{2j} \Delta \text{SSC}_{t-j} + \gamma_3 \text{ECT}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{11}$$

Where γ_3 is the parameter of Error Correction Term (ECT_{t-1}). It is expected that this parameter will be estimated between $-1 < \gamma_3 < 0$ and statistically significant.

6. Empirical Results

The first part of this result is to investigate the stationary properties of the variables. The first step in unit root tests is to determine the appropriate model structure and the number of lag lengths for each series. For this purpose, we have carried out strategic tests with the intercept and trend model to none (no intercept and trend) model for each of the series. The more appropriate model for the UNEMP_t and SSC_t in text series is intercept and trend model. But for SSC_t as percentage of GDP, appropriate model is none (no intercept and no trend) model. Also, we have found the number of lag lengths by using the Breusch-Godfrey LM test statistics in addition to information criteria such as AIC, SIC, HQ in the models. Table 2 shows the results of the three unit root tests.

Table 2 Unit Root Tests Results

VARIABLES	ADF	PP	KPSS
UNEMP_t	-4.1493 ^b	-3.1998 ^c	0.0619
SSC_GDP_t	4.4508	3.1305	-
SSC_TXT_t	-2.5472	-3.4904 ^c	0.0651

Note: ^a significant at 1%, ^b significant at 5%, ^c significant at 10%.

According to Table 2, UNEMP_t series is stationary for three unit root tests (at least 10%), while SSC_GDP_t is stationary. The appropriate model is none model for SSC_GDP_t variables, therefore we cannot applied KPSS unit root test. But there are found mixed results at SSC_TXT_t variables. That is, ADF test shows that the series

is non-stationary. The series is stationary from point view of KPSS and PP (10%) tests. Because of the different degrees of integration of the variables, it would be more appropriate to use the ARDL approach to investigate the existence of a long-run relationship between these variables. The first step of the ARDL approach is to determine the appropriate lag lengths for each of the variables. For this purpose, again, AIC, SIC, HQ and LM tests can be used. In the study, the maximum lag lengths were taken for 4 periods for both endogenous and exogenous variables. Accordingly, the lowest AIC, SIC and HQ values were obtained for the ARDL (2, 0).

Firstly, for the ARDL test to be valid, the bound test must be performed. In Table 3, Pesaran et al. (2001) bound test and diagnostic test results are shown.

Table 3 ARDL Bound Test Results

Tested Models	TEROR = f (UNEMP,SSC_GDP)		TEROR = f (UNEMP,SSC_TXT)	
F-statistics	5.5874 ^a		5.5789 ^b	
Optimum Lag Length	[2, 0]		[2, 0]	
Significance Levels	Bounds Critical Values			
	Upper Bound	Upper Bound	Upper Bound	Upper Bound
1 %	4.94	5.58	4.94	5.58
5 %	3.62	4.16	3.62	4.16
10 %	3.02	3.51	3.02	3.51
Diagnostic Test Results				
R ²	0.7072		0.7071	
\bar{R}^2	0.6877		0.6876	
F-Statistics	36.2349 ^a		36.2141 ^a	
Breusch-Godfrey LM	0.1484		0.0431	
ARCHLM	1.5790		1.6460	

Note: ^a significant at 1%. ^b significant at 5%.

The null hypothesis will be rejected because the F-statistic value (5.5874) calculated for the bound test in Table 3 is greater than the upper critical value of 5.58 at the 1% significance level. That is, according to the ARDL bound test, there is co-integration relationship between the variables. Then there is a long-run relationship between UNEMP_t and SSC_GDP_t variables. Also, similar results are found between UNEMP_t and SSC_TXT_t variables.

Secondly, Table 3 indicates diagnostic test results for co-integration. When Table 3 is examined, the model is generally meaningful; there are no autocorrelation problems and no heteroscedasticity problem for both models. Thus, in order to demonstrate the long- and short-term relationships between variables, the long-run combined model and the error correction model results are given in Table 4.

Table 4 Long-Run and Error Correction Models Estimation Results

Variables	Panel A: Long Run Model Results					
	Coefficients	Std. Errors	t-Statistics	Coefficients	Std. Errors	t-Statistics
SSC_GDP _t	0.3553 ^a	0.1178	3.0144			
SSC_TXT _t				0.1220 ^a	0.0406	2.9998
CONS.	7.1310 ^a	0.4791	14.8861	6.3099 ^a	0.7216	8.7440
	Panel B: Short Run and Error Correction Model Results					

Variables	Coefficients	Std. Errors	t-Statistics	Coefficients	Std. Errors	t-Statistics
ECT_{t-1}	-0.4315 ^a	0.1058	-4.0805	-0.4277 ^a	0.1066	-4.0119
$\Delta UNEMP_{t-1}$	0.3726 ^a	0.1322	2.8186	0.3675 ^a	0.1343	2.7368
ΔSSC_GDP_{t-1}	0.0952	0.2505	0.3801			
ΔSSC_TXT_{t-1}				-0.0124	0.0553	-0.2250

Note: ^a significant at 1%. ^b significant at 5%, ^c significant at 10%.

Firstly, Panel A shows the long-run relationship results in Table 4. According to these results, it is seen that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between unemployment rate and social security contribution (both a percentage of GDP and a percentage of tax revenues) in the long run. Based on this result, if social security contributions are increased 1%, unemployment rate is increased 0.35% level. In other words, social security contributions have an impact on the rising of unemployment rate in the long run. Similar results were obtained for the share of social security contributions in tax variable. This result is compatible with relevant literature. Long run mean of unemployment rate is 7.13% as a percentage of GDP (or 6.31% as a percentage of tax revenues) and these coefficients are statistically significant at 1%.

In Table 4 Panel B shows both short-term and error correction results. First, the error correction term (ECT_{t-1}) is negative and statistically significant as expected for two models. That is, the imbalances that occur in the short term are removed from the long term (43.15% and 42.77%) and the series are again close to the long term equilibrium values. Therefore, the error correction model is valid for two models.

Secondly, when the parameters affecting the short term are examined, the following conclusions are reached. In the short term, it was found that there is a positive but statistically insignificant relationship between unemployment rate and social security contribution of both models. On the other word, in the short run the social security contribution has not been effective on unemployment rate for both models.

7. Conclusion

Social security contributions are a tool of social services such as pensions and disability insurance, health insurance, unemployment benefits. From point of view of an economic perspective, they have effects on economic variables which the unemployment is one. Unemployment is crucial problem for countries. For this reason, many countries combat with this issue. Social security contributions for employers are a cost of labor. The aim of this study is to find the relationship between social security contributions and unemployment for Turkey. Therefore, we evaluate whether reducing social security contributions are a way reducing of unemployment or not. We use time series data. The research methodology is based on an analysis of indicators as unemployment, social security contributions as percentage of GDPs, the percentage of total tax revenues. Applied ARDL co-integration test shows that there is long-run relationship between unemployment rate and social security contributions in both cases. But in short run, we cannot find significant relationship between the variables. Therefore these results indicate that social security contributions only affect to unemployment in long-run in Turkey. According to this empirical evidence, an efficient management of social security contributions rate can reduce unemployment, which are required a long run progress. The social security contributions are seen as a tool in controlling unemployment. These finding are supported by previous literature on this topic. The loss of contributions can be compensated by various income sources like indirect taxes or subsidies. Additionally, a reduction of social security contributions rate will be raised economic growth. These empirical results should be a priority for future research.

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Managers in The Development of Higher Education in The Republic of Kosovo

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Abstract

Higher education in the modern world considered specific instrument that promotes the economic development of any country and therefore considered as factors that stimulates productivity and economic efficiency. Practices prove that not every investment in the higher education sector in economic development automatically convert. Even in Kosovo, despite the investment in the system in this segment which continues to be poor and without any progress in development. It is derived insufficient qualified people if at the same time is not reached to create infrastructure, institutions, legislation and motivation system on the concept of professional career. Harmonization of these segments and create the necessary synergy educated and skilled people that entered the market certainly qualitatively affect economic development. From this angle the modern direction of Universities is one of the elements of success for socioeconomic development. Higher Education system in Kosovo continues to face fundamental problems which continually degrade this segment. Evidenced most notably the inability of internal quality assurance, lack of legislation on the management of the university profile and lack of human resources for this feature. To prove this we analyzed a series of theories about the ways and models of successful management. These have compared the empirical data that emerged from the statistical survey. Indubitably it emerged that the current role of managers in universities is not compatible with social needs and expectations of university employees. Based on these data we have learned that the opinion and expectations of academics is that the direction of the university depends on a combined approach rector menxheriale-academic executive elements respectively. Further, by reliable research has proven that a successful rector except combined approach academic and managerial anyway should also be equipped with additional knowledge in order to be on the needs of social cohesion.

Keywords: higher education, university, management, direction, rector, performance

1. Introduction

Higher Education in Republic of Kosova as in developed countries is treated as a service as well as public good. As such it needs to respond, adapt and precede changes at the work market as well as social-economic development of the country. Changes that should occur on the social life, to be effective and efficient are requested to be managed and directed through rational processes. This concept is in particularly important for countries under transition due to the fact that they are travelling in one long and difficult process of social transformations from one system at the other. Therefore the problems of transformation and modernisation appear in particularly at the certain segments of the society as education and employment. The history of the system development of the Higher Education in Kosova during three past decades was essential point of continuous transitions with different characters. This phenomenon unfortunately is continuing producing dilemma effects too challenging for directors of these institutions. The Higher Education system to be functional and in full capacity should integrate teaching and science research. It is important that not only the performance of each individual on the academic life to measure and evaluate above these two directions, but also students should learn from academics that contributed in science as well as on social life of the country. The standard of teaching is not getting increased only by good pedagogue but also by good researchers. In the most general sense, in order to achieve the declared or stated objectives, the need and the task of coordinating and managing human and material resources in the field of higher education are presented. Human resource planning in this segment includes a range of activities aimed at creating the potential for employees to realize their potential. Human resource planning is undoubtedly a process whereby the mission, vision and strategy of a particular institution should be defined and clarified by linking human resource activity. For this reason, the vision, mission, strategy, policies and objectives of a particular institution should be addressed by educated human

resources and recruited according to a selected plan. This should be done based on a dynamic that exclusively determines the development of human resources and creates opportunities for continuous monitoring of performance and guidance for their continuous development. Qualitative human resources are a prerequisite for a proper establishment and management of each institution. The development and expansion of knowledge-based economy is largely due to the connection of the developing process of the new technologies, which were also influenced by the flow of information. The use of constant knowledge and learning directly influences the styles and systems of management and modelling in an institution. The postmodern world imposes managers on engagement and strong engagement to reach the level of awareness that is understood as the "learning organization".

- Sample of the study

To accomplish this study, we have determined that data collection is carried out through self-administered questionnaires and interviewing. The questionnaire was distributed to three public universities operating in Kosovo, which we consider to be more consolidated in terms of the institutional and academic structure, while the interview was distributed to three former rectors of three Public Universities in Kosovo. The main purpose is to collect data from these institutions as well as the opinions of former rectors regarding the management of these institutions. The way of personal contacts was used to distribute the questionnaire and to take interviews with universities. In this manner will be accompanied by verbal explanations of the role and importance of questionnaires, interviews and self-study. Through direct contacts, the questionnaires were distributed and interviews were made to former rectors at the University of Prishtina, "Hasan Prishtina" - Prishinë, "Haxhi Zeka" University and at "Ukshin Hoti" University - Prizren. On the research procedure of the existing literature on the performance management of universities, we will try to reflect the fundamental importance of this problematic. Actually, from the data we have so far, it should be noted that there are few studies in the country or beyond that are deepened and have carried out simultaneous assessment of the type of change, environment, process and managerial performance outcomes in universities. Likewise, most of the process models are reflected in the form of recommendations or suggestions, but there are few empirical studies on linking factors with the results of change that would ultimately provide an appropriate model. The purpose of the study will focus on identifying factors that influence the management of Higher Education in Kosovo. The methodology to be used will be in the function of achieving this goal. It claims to combine primary data with secondary data. Secondary data are the result of reviewing a wide and modern literature on change management, types of change, environment, patterns of change process as well as results of changes. This literature is provided by 6 searches at electronic libraries of several American and European universities, as well as from a number of other Internet resources. It has served to supplement theoretical part of work. The primary research claims to rely on analysis of collected data through questionnaires distributed through academic units of Public Universities in Kosovo as well as interviews taken from the former rectors of the three universities taken in the study. The research work aims to test the links between the conceptual model variables in the university institutions taken in the study in order to answer the following research questions: What are the factors that influence management of higher education in Kosovo? Does the quality of management in higher education in Kosovo influence MEST cooperation with international projects? Is there a link between signatures of the opinion poll questionnaire on management of higher education in Kosovo? To accomplish this research work, it is planned to use mainly quantitative methods, respectively the implementation of questionnaire technique for collecting and providing data, as well as interviews for collecting and providing opinions from former rectors. Therefore from existing sources we have found that there is not a wide literature on issues related to scientific treatments for managing the performance of Universities in Kosovo. As such in this volume, most of them during handling of the matter use a qualitative research method. But according to Ford & Greer (2005), despite the fact that scholars usually suggest qualitative methods to understand the university management process, the realization of survey-based empirical research can also help them track and recognize the issue. In this case the study should not imply that for our topic we will rely only on this data. With aim to respond the research questions we consider that use of questionnaires' as a method for data collection on this study will enable us as follows: identifying and investigation of possible connections between variables taken on the study on a manner for those to be used to "fulfill" previous studies which usually used qualitative methods. Therefore interview will enable us to provide the opinion of former rectors regarding managing, quality, performance and the profile of the rector for satisfactory managing of Universities. A broader explanation for selecting quantitative method for carrying out the research, data collection procedure, measurement units and way of compiling questionnaire is given below in the framework of this draft. We started research part with treatment of the chosen method of study. The following is how questionnaire was compiled and the coding of questions, validity and reliability of questionnaire ended with the sample determination and data collection procedure.

- Measuring instruments

For this study, a questionnaire was used to obtain the opinion of academic staff on Higher Education Management in Kosovo, built out of 21 questions. The assessment of questionnaire is done with Likerts scale from 1 to 3. The high points in this questionnaire show a positive outlook on the management of higher education while the low scores are not content with the degree of management. The internal consistency analysis of the questionnaire was measured with the Cronbach alpha coefficient. Alpha ($\alpha = .789$) was very good for total questionnaire. Also for primary collection of data we used single interview compiled by 15 questions, where were interviewed three former rectors of Universities taken on the study. The aim of this interview is obtaining opinion from former rectors regarding the role of managing or academic Rector in obtaining of quality in universities. This questionnaire has four signatures; Teaching Quality Degree ($\alpha = .753$), high scores show a high quality; Inclusion of Academic Staff ($\alpha = .671$), high scores indicate the involvement of academic staff in academic life and decision-making in higher education in Kosovo; Performance Management Rate ($\alpha = .656$), high scores show that management considers staff performance in actions undertaken at higher education institutions, Rector Profile Rate ($\alpha = .919$) at highest scores managerial approach and low academic approach points.

- DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The use of knowledge and intellectual capacity within organizations has shaped competition and is the main source of effective management (Wang, Noe, & Wang, 2014). Through management, the organization generates the value of intellectual property based on knowledge (Masic, B & Boljanovic, D.J. 2006). Academic staff in higher education are persons who are directly in touch with the recipients of services that are students. Because of their position, they find it easier to detect signs of a system malfunctioning within an organization or an institution. Certainly when we give you the opportunity to communicate, their opinions or concerns about the hierarchy and organization of the institution, we create opportunities to improve the management situation. Shahini M. (2016, personal contact) cites that a good manager has a duty to create a structure within the institution that influences its empowerment. This would indicate that within management, manager is most experienced person and knows his responsibilities. A manager worthy of his duty must be professional, empathetic, convenient, visionary, and have clear understandable goals for his employees. In this context also culture plays an important role as it can shape the relationship between the manager - academic staff. Examining leadership theories and approaches in higher education system will ensure knowledge and understanding of conceptual side of theories of direction, development, applicability and relevance in improving management process. Discussed theories in this paper have helped to deepen the knowledge of concept-leadership skills within higher education institutions in Kosovo.

Through the clarification provided on definitions the concept of "management skills", a broad view is made on its validity in higher education institutions. The study has paid particular attention to the explanation of leadership theories through: personality traits, driving styles, motivational skills, interaction, transformation, authenticity, ethics, group management skills, personality types, culture and direction. Through the study of these theories, they adapted, designed and conducted their testing in the Kosovo context, in order to discover perceptions of leadership capacities, skills and competences of the head of public higher education in Kosovo. This study, through its analysis of literature and quantitative research, found that management of higher education institutions in Kosovo is not at a satisfactory level as almost half of the participants considered the management of higher education from dissatisfied in average satisfied. Based on the fact that their opinions are measured, it may be speculated that since the concept of management is new in Kosovo, it is likely that opinions are also influenced by the old concept of institution management in Kosovo, which is also supported by the fact that most of the participants were for a manager with a academic approach or a combined academic and managerial approach. Therefore due to the fact that younger people have had more orientation for a managerial approach of the rector, while older ages for a rector with an academic approach. However, it can also be considered as a part of the transition of higher institutions in Kosovo, which entered the Bologna process without any prior preparation and above all without a clear concept of this process, or what would be the long-term effects of this process. Participants also answered to the majority that poor implementations of standards by those who manage the university create problems to ensure quality in higher education in Kosovo. These findings do not question the fact that a good education system is the essence of economic growth and development, but questions as to how it should be realized. Improving the quality and weight of education is extremely difficult because there is no Kosovar model to achieve this goal effectively, but models from abroad are constantly required. Precisely by this context the management of higher education institutions in Kosovo is in poor condition. Institutions of this level are almost traditionally managed by teachers who are unprepared in the theoretical and practical aspect of managing an educational institution. As such, they do not know the basic concepts and principles of basic

management and more less those of the leadership of higher education institutions. Knowing the role and importance of higher education in society emerges that sustainable economic, cultural, scientific and technological development without qualitative education can not be achieved and that there is no quality education without management respectively in the professional direction of educational institutions of this level.

The study found that higher education teachers would prefer an academic approach to managing rector and combined and that this fact did not change if the participants were female or male gender. This fact may not be a surprise as the manager is an individual who brings leadership, his style of management and his personality. The personality of a manager within a university is usually not related to personal traits, but to those academic ones. Another important fact is that in general many studies have not found gender differences in managerial styles even though this task includes personal values, social values as well as business values and attitudes towards the task. Meanwhile, an important factor according to the study is the application of standards. In addressing the participants about their opinion on what is a problem to ensure quality, they responded to the majority that poor implementation of standards by those who manage the university 39.4% followed by those who say it is not correct implementation of them 36.9%. As is seen by the results 23.7% of participants dedicate inability of the university management to perform the duty. Reactions of the surveyed regarding their dissatisfactions as for "mismanaging" of the university give space for discussion regarding, first managerial skills of respective person, it means the manager regarding the implementation of effective policies escaping from ad-hoc that oversee among others not only entry in reformation process the Bologna one, however also necessary facilities for such a thing. During this transitional process it should be noted that a good manager should be ready to develop a strategy based on short-term effects, preparation of administrative and academic staff as well as material costs. Second, since the manager is the 'top of the hierarchy' his responsibilities must be large and based on ideas and goals to push the relevant institution. This, *inter alia*, implies that that person should not be influenced in any way to carry out his duty without having any conflicts of interest (material benefits or involvement in any political party or persons suspected of corruption). Another reason to explain this issue, so the manager's influence on mismanagement of the institution is also based on general and traditional perception that a good / effective manager is considered a person who has a high academic background in any field and prestige assigned in society. However, international practices do not determine the best manager based solely on the two factors mentioned above, as one of them must, amongst others, be innovative, ready to make slow and tough changes but with positive effects, and among other things have a managerial tendency (an education that is entirely related to managerial skills). - As to the fact that surveyed said that another reason why university quality is somewhat compromised is due to incorrect application of the standards previously set by institution itself. Higher education institutions in Kosovo have a few years of tradition in creating strategies or documents that in a way present a standard of education. But what is noticed is the lack of adequate information or their non-presentation in order to be applicable to Kosovo context. At the University of Prishtina or in other universities, there are offices that control the quality but are often not productive for academic staff because there is a lack of information or feedbacks. An interesting finding of this study is that in total men have had more positive opinions than women on the quality of management of higher education in Kosovo. In total, the Master of Science degree has had more positive opinions than those with PhD degrees on the quality of higher education management in Kosovo. The results show that female participants considered quality of teaching within higher education in Kosovo to be lower than those of male gender who considered it the highest. Men have considered higher involvement of staff in decision-making or other processes of academic and managerial life in higher education in Kosovo compared with female participants who considered it lower. These findings confirm that task of a manager is to make productivity productive while the workers efficient. Since every institution has only one real source (its own people), it succeeds in order to make the workforce more productive.

- Conclusions and recommendations

Conclusions Higher education in the modern world is considered a specific instrument that promotes the economic development of each country and is therefore considered as a factor that promotes economic, social and political productivity and efficiency. Kosovo, despite investments made in the field of higher education, continues to face obstacles. This doctoral thesis with its research has shown that academic staff in Kosovo is not happy with how universities are led. Members of quantitative research as representatives of the high academic staff in Kosovo reported that this system has more need for implementation in correct way of strategic documents, to have more knowledge regarding those documents as well as to monitor their implementation. The study shows that achieving of a high academic quality in higher education is closely related to the position of manager of university who should ensure inclusion of the staff, sharing of good experiences and to be able to make good managing of performance. The higher institution manager, according to this study,

will have to be a leader who not only promotes the value of knowledge, but at the same time knows to place the university at the centre of national and international collaborations. The obtained results show that a combined-access manager is the best form of quality assurance and quality management at the university. Of course, it is inadequate to attract qualified people if at the same time no infrastructure, institutions, legislation and motivation system can be established on the concept of professional career. Harmonisation of these segments and creation of necessary synergy for educated and skilled people to enter the market, undoubtedly influence qualitatively in economic development. From this point of view, the modern direction of Universities is one of the elements of success for socio-economic development. The Higher Education System in Kosovo continues to face the underlying problems that constantly degrade this segment. An important element of this study is related to a manager who is able to engage and engage teachers in improving quality and takes into account their thoughts in the decision-making process. Therefore the attention will also be paid to performance management and remuneration system. This point would be achieved by advancing the staff. They have to neglect the traditional side of education and forms of information transmission to students through lectures where they are passive, reform requires their greater activity. The results show that PhD-level PhD students considered the quality of teaching within higher education in Kosovo to be lower than those with a Master's degree that they considered to be the highest. The study found significant differences in the distribution of variance of staff involvement in statistical aspect according to managerial position of participants. The results showed that difference was only for female gender, where women without managerial positions (academic staff) were more satisfied with staff involvement than those in middle positions (deans or pro-deans) who were dissatisfied with staff involvement. In recent years, higher education institutions have adopted flexible ways of advancing the staff and their involvement in institutional life. The individual within the institution is seen as a source of promotion, opportunities and benefits for present and future. Nowadays it is increasingly seen the possibility of sharing knowledge within an institution as a very effective way of regulating behaviour within the institution, in particular in career advancement or improvement of the relationship between employees. Staff involvement is of great importance as it is the best way for a manager to enable them to understand their responsibilities and on the other hand to recognize their responsibilities. It is not controversial that a good education system is the core of growth and economic development. At the same time, improving the quality and weight of education is extremely difficult because there is no single political measure to achieve this goal effectively. It is in this context that the management of higher education institutions in Kosovo is in poor condition. Institutions of this level are almost traditionally managed by teachers who are unprepared in theoretical and practical aspect of managing an educational institution. As such they do not know the basic concepts and principles of basic management and imagine the leading of higher education institutions.

Knowing the role and importance of higher education in society, it cannot be concluded that sustainable economic, cultural, scientific and technological development without qualitative education and that there is no quality education without management respectively professional direction of educational institutions of this level. In chapter I of the paper, the review of the opinions of authors dealing with issues of management and management in higher education was realized. The authors and researchers referred to as specialists of this segment provided a wide range of conceptual, theoretical and methodological information.

-Basic Management Concepts • Management has now become a multidisciplinary science necessary for all social activities, especially for secure and dynamic development of higher education institutions. As a specific science, management is directly related to management of institutions to achieve their objectives. • In the era before the Industrial Revolution, reign was the conviction that leaders were not created but born. But with gradual social developments, there was a need for leadership skills in the management of more complex jobs. In this manner the conditions for research and creation of basic management theories were created. Basic theory of management is compiled by the main theories, such as that of classical school represented by F. Taylor, Administrative Theory represented by H. Fayol, Behavioural Theory represented by E. Mayo, Theory X & Y represented by D. McGregor and Theory Z or Japanese theory founded by Ē. Ouçi. Meanwhile, the main methods that apply in managerial practices are: random access method and step by step method. • Based to analysis made to these theories, it was reconfirmed that management is governed by key principles such as discipline, authority, discipline, unified direction and command, overriding individual interests, rewarding work, centralization, hierarchical organization, regularity, equality, staff stability, organizational initiatives and culture. We also reconfirmed that management as core functions has the process of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, controlling and evaluating. Also, management skills are necessary, such as conceptual skills, human skills (communication with others) and technical skills. Public universities are run by leading governing bodies and by deans, pro-deans, heads of departments and faculty secretaries on the basis of legal regulations, development plans, curricula, scientific research and general academic

principles. The university management process is very complex. Higher education management structures are defined by law and statute of the respective university. Based on these documents the management of universities is consisted by Governing Council, Rector of university and the Senate. The governing council has general strategic responsibilities for effective institutional functioning of the University and has important responsibility especially in extract and change of the Statute, for appointing and dismissal of the Rector. The Rector is the principal leader of the University. The duties and responsibilities of the Rector are defined by statute relating to the organization, direction and general management of the University. University management is set by the rector in co-operation and in harmony with other organizational structures. The Senate approves important quality management documents such as development strategies, curricula, student enrolment plan, etc. The Rector, in co-operation with the Governing Council sets in motion all the general actions for the realization of these various teaching and scientific projects and projects through the deans of the faculties where the process of production of academic knowledge and skills are carried out. Among key factors for quality of unsatisfactory studies is precisely the complex process and structures in management of universities. With the aim of eliminating these effects, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology has after a broad debate managed to pass on the Kosovo Government's new draft law on higher education. This draft law, which is expected to be adopted soon in the parliamentary procedure, will have a direct impact on the much better functioning of public universities. With the new regulated elections, the position of Rector, framing it into a management and management body, with all capabilities and competencies, will bring far more effective leadership approach to the quality assurance engagements. The aspect of executive tasks will exempt from excessive academic responsibilities and will raise awareness in terms of cooperation and respect with the Senate and its Chairperson. The mode of governing structure with all rights and responsibilities at the Board, Senate and Rector Level is automatically transferred to the Faculty and Board of Deans at the Academic Units.

- Recommendations

1. Increase of efficiency of planning of the high education. Priority should have the building of capacities of managing which would create a professional system of planning for human resources but also to support planning of high education in MEST
2. To develop the academic quality, through enforcement of investments in postgraduate education; to increase qualifications of university professors through trainings.
3. To settle objectives for increasing of the number of PhD graduates in considerable manner and to expand funds for PhD programs. The higher education institution in Kosova should strengthen relations between universities and industry as well as the council of science; development of excellence centres; to strengthen supervision of PhD; development of research standards and to involve postgraduate students in their fulfillment.
4. Strengthen the governance, leadership and high education managing. Leaders to rely and work closely with "quadruple spirals" for change: government leaders, high education leaders, business leaders and community to open regional strategy for high education.
5. To increase in adaption of education policies borrowed from developed countries.
6. To increase possibilities for profiling of teachers which want to orientate in aspect of managing of high education institutions?
7. To create policies that ensures a strong internal differentiation in favour of modern teaching as well as to create structures to support this process.
8. To create possibilities for professors of universities to raise the level of science research in world science level through distribution of their work in two work components "teaching and research (science)".
9. MEST should support institution of high education in increasing of quality and creating of modern system of internal managing of quality. Managing system of quality of one high education institution will involve all undertaken measures to ensure and to lead internal organisation and control processes which help high education institutions to achieve its objectives. High education institution should determine strategies and objectives determined as precondition to create and implement an internal system of quality managing. Measures will derive from these strategies and responsibilities in all levels of high education institutions should be determined.
10. Strategies, organisation and services of high education institutions will be the subject of systematic monitoring. The institution of high education should be supported in results and findings of internal monitoring, of its information and reporting systems as well as security measures of the quality, when it's about development and/or advancing of objectives and strategies as well as decision-making of managing.

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Language Teacher Education: Identities Under Construction

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Abstract

This ethnographic and longitudinal study is aimed at investigating, analyzing and understanding the complex process of professional, social and cultural identity (re)construction of pre-service teachers in a Teacher Education Course at a Federal University in the extreme north of Brazil. The pre-service teacher's narratives were investigated through a qualitative approach. The narratives were collected from these students-teachers during the four semesters of their supervised internship class in their undergraduate course, as well as the interactions they posted in the Community of Practice - CdP - and discussed in thematic sessions accomplished during the process of investigation.

Keywords: Identities. Pre-service Teachers. Community of Practice.

Introduction

In our rush to reform education, we have forgotten a simple truth: reform will never be achieved by renewing appropriations, restructuring schools, rewriting curricula, and revising text if we continue to demean and dishearten the human resource called the teacher on whom so much depends (PALMER, 1998, p. 3, apud ALSUP, 2006, p.20).

This study which is about the (re)construction of professional identities of teachers in their initial formation started with uneasiness generated throughout approximately, eighteen years of experience with the bachelor's degree and six years of English teaching in elementary public school, and this always made me to ask: *How to be a teacher in public schools without omitting the personal self? How to be a teacher in public schools without leaving besides your personal essence or your personal style, passions, beliefs, and ideologies?* These questions, in turn, emerged having as a triggering element the fact that the most I experienced in elementary teaching was the following guidance from my partners and superiors, which in teacher training courses, still persists in the voice of my students: *"You have to frame in the system or the system swallows you!",* and also: *"You have to be adjusted to the school system, it is not good to row against the tide!"* and also: *"Through the years, or you are adjusted to the function of the school or you give up at the beginning of the profession!"*

Reflecting about how to work in the initial formation of language teachers to help them how to deal with these and other professional impasses and demands, I found myself with the already existent theories about teacher identities, because for me it is obvious the pertinence of this professional to know himself/herself better, understand the other, and know how to make interact his/her self-personal with his/her self-professional. This self-professional is, according to studies in the area of social studies, much more complex than the simple mixture or combination of the two essences- personal and professional- and therefore, it is worth to highlighting that the interaction between these two instances is very important, because if it was not like that, the identity of the professor would fail, which could lead to a simple omission of one of the two pillars in the constitution of professional education.

The integration of aspects of the self-personal with expectations and demands of the self-professional is much more complex than a simple union of the two parts (ALSUP, 2006), or even more than mere juxtaposition of I versus the OTHER for the constitution of a professional identity more autonomous, reflexive, conscious and politically active. Alsup (2006) points out the synergy of I versus the Other, self-personal versus self-professional involves to bring these binaries parts together, to mix and unit them providing a collision among the personal ideologies and the professional expectations experienced in the pedagogical practices, that exist in public schools bringing to surface a third renewed identity face. According to the author, for achieving this it is necessary that we provide activities and instances that instigate our students' formation to engage in Borderland Discourse 2, which in her words it is characterized like this:

Discourse in which there is evidence of integration or negotiation of personal and professional selves. It is at the discourse borderlands and by associations at the borders of various subjectivities or senses of self, that preservice teachers can discover how to move from being students to being teachers, and can learn how to embody a workable professional teacher identity without sacrificing personal priorities and passions. (ALSUP, 2006, p. xiii-xiv).

It is perceived that as well the nomenclature as the definition of the expression borderland discourse, according to the excerpt, are not free from risks, such as simplifying too much or to reduce an ambiguous and complex process as the transformation and (re)construction of identities is. That is, a passage of identity of student-intern to become a language professor. In the words' author:

The problem with naming something like a form of discourse that facilitates identity formation is that readers may think it is stable, always similar, and easily identifiable across time and space (ALSUP, 2006, p. 5).

On contrary, that definition does not embrace all the scope and the complexity of the process as well. It is a challenging definition of every kind of discourse and not the intuitive to make easy the study in this process. Alsup created that nomenclature, which in front of her justifications; I believe it is pertinent and relevant to advance in studies about identity construction. It is important to point out that in the same way than the author caught up, it also occurred in this study of identity construction many times, during the path of her study of borderland discourse discussing and exploring more the power of the cognitive, emotional and psychological aspects instead of linguistics ones properly mentioned in the discourse. Without detracting the linguistic values and the strategy of exploring a field so obscure and unstable such the subjectivities of human being and his/her thinking, I chose to emphasize the sociolinguistic and emotional aspects of the discourse.

Despite the ambiguity registered in the own definition of the borderland discourse that sometimes refers to something stable, something fluid, moving from one to another position; I would like to make it clear to the lector that it kind of discourse is "complex, rich and depends on the social, cultural and historical context in which it is. (ALSUP, 2006, p.5). In other words, the transformative discourse of identities reflects in a more holistic vision of the identity of the preservice teacher, that is to say, his/her intellectual, corporal and emotional aspects in the regular (re)construction and integration of the self-personal to the self-professional, or still: the interaction among the different personal and professional subjectivities and thus, a eventual integration of those multiple identities facets or the subjectivities of the I.

In consonance with the points of the author, it has vital relevance that teachers engage on that kind of borderland discourse in which, despite the relationship, is sometimes tense and conflictive among those subjectivities. They can develop a professional identity making it richer, reflexive and active in the creation of an own and coherent pedagogy perspective according to its context or educational community. Taking into consideration some studies of the Training Education Area (ROGERS & BABINSKI, 2002; GRANT & ZEICHNER, 1981; ALSUP, 2006), we can point out that there is a baggage of information about the confronted problems by teachers at the beginning of their career and thus, it is still a challenge during that period of experience with teaching, because as Rogers & Babinsky (2002, p. 2) say: "despite all the investigation and all the books, and articles written about the difficulties confronted by preservice teachers, the first year of teaching continues being a moment extremely difficult for the majority of them".

Besides that, according to some investigations (GORDON, 1991; HULING-AUSTIN, et al. 1989), 50 % of the course of novice teachers does not last more than five years for making the situation even more worrying. Many teachers that choose to continue in the profession teach in an inconsistent and contradictory way with the pedagogical conceptions, beliefs, objectives and expectations they had, when they initiated a degree course or the ones that they created during their formation. So, many of them, in order to survive inside a system that generally exists in schools, remain in their classroom surrendered to the traditional system of teaching and such fixed and stereotyped identification of professor that is culturally disseminated in the social environment – emphasized, so contested in the last decades.

In front of those challenges found by the preservice teachers, it makes relevant the study of professional identities of those individuals, whose career demands much more of a professional than what was believed in earlier times, when it was thought that any person could teach just for desiring or vocation. Today, however, it is already observed how complex is the teaching and learning language system and the professor training (VIEIRA-ABRAHÃO, 1992, 1996, 2004; ALMEIDA FILHO, 2002 GIL, 2005; TELLES, 2002, 2009, and others).

To believe in the relevance of investigations that try through interdisciplinary dialogues, to clear the clashes and discursive games present in language classroom, outlining the professional, social and cultural identities; I have as a guiding thesis

of this investigation the following: when approaching discussions about identity and emotional aspects at the university, we will contribute to the more autonomous and critical construction of identities from the agents involved in this initial formation process. Among those actors are the people that act in the disciplines of supervised internship of the degree courses, namely: trainer-teacher, preservice teacher, regent-teacher of the field-school, students of the field-school and pedagogical team, and some others.

It is not my objective just to point out punctual experiences of identity development of preservice teachers, but also to explore and explain how the (re)construction of identities occurs inside and outside the university, for example in practices communities. Keeping this in mind, I discuss in this article, the (re)construction of identities of teachers in initial formation, both in the presence context and the virtual one. For that, we divide the text in four different moments. At the first, I discuss the term identity and its theoretical conceptions and re-significations; in the second one, I analyze some excerpts that connote the identity of preservice teacher and subsequently, in the third, I analyze and discuss also other excerpts related to the identity of language teacher participants to, in fourth, bring some final considerations.

Identity and Its Unfoldings

In a word, multiple theoretical approaches are absolutely essential if we are not to lose sight of real world complexity of our subject (VARGHESE, MORGAN, JOHNSTON, JOHNSON, 2005, p. 40)

In the last twenty years, the investigations in the fields of Anthropology, Sociolinguistics and socio-cultural theories have influenced the investigation related to teaching and teacher training considerably (NORTON, 2000). We can find them in Applied Linguistics and more specifically in the initial formation of teachers (VIEIRA-ABRAHÃO, 2010, 2006; VIEIRA-ABRAHÃO e GIL, 2008; GIMENEZ, 2005; OLIVEIRA e PAIVA, 2005, 2004; COLLINS, 2004; CELANI, 2004, 2003; DUTRA, 2003; COLLINS e CELANI, 2003; CASTRO, 2001), theories that can make us reflecting, questioning and looking at the fertile land of identities through various perspectives. Or still, they can conduct us to several notions that involve the subjective and complex self-human sense in its transformer and transformative essence of the discourse as an inseparable instrument of that interaction of I and the other, and the constant negotiation of identities at the infinitive forms of relations and social actions putting on all those questions in the center of attentions of studies on several areas, mainly the ones that delight with the magic of language and education.

If we keep distant from this tendency, we believe that those studies about professional (re)construction of identities approached in this work will contribute in actual and future ones to a better understanding of what means to be a teacher of foreign and mother languages; how to work in a efficient way in teaching learning languages, as well as in the training of future languages professors, in a context in which the subject on his totality odd is emerging from this process, that is much more than a simple addition of quantitative and evaluative results in its acquisition/learning or fluent in the target language.

According to Varghese et al. (2005), in recent years have increased considerably the number of investigations in Europe and USA that approach the teacher identity in the field of Applied Linguistics, which can be tested by the full bibliography already available (CLARKE, 2008; WENGER, 2008; ALSUP, 2006; MORGAN, 2004; PAVLENKO, 2003; JOHNSTON, 2003, 1999; VARGHESE, 2000; DUFF & UCHIDA, 1997). Also, something similar can be observed here in Brazil, what is evident when we notice the increasing number of studies about teachers' identity of foreign and mother languages in the country (FIGUEREDO, 2007; CORACINI & GRIGOLETTO, 2006; SIGNORINI, 2006; MOITA LOPES, 2006, 2003; CORACINE, 2003; RAJAGOPALAN, 2003; BARBOSA, 2011).

Varghese et al. (2005) in their recent investigations concluded that a professor has a relevant participation in language classroom practices and consequently it became the focus of attention of researches. Also, they added that the researches related to beliefs, knowledge, attitudes, emotions, philosophy and some other factors, led us to conclude that all these aspects of self-professor cannot be analyzed separately at their singularities. On contrary, all of them are joined to form the identities of the teacher when performing in the classroom. Moreover, we believe that "this line of thinking, then, sees teacher identity as a crucial component in determining how language teaching is played out" and learned (VARGHESE et al., p. 22).

Besides, the authors point out that the investigations related to the socio-cultural and sociopolitical aspects also revealed the importance of the identity of the language teacher, because it is already a consensus in literature and not the neutrality pervades the role of the teacher, both in the classroom and in the broad context in which they are situated. According to the authors, those two lines of research are inside Applied Linguistics, the former encompasses the cognitive and affective

aspects of a foreign language teacher; and the second one relates socio-cultural and sociopolitical aspects of a foreign language teacher. Those just led a scientific bias, whose orientation is inclined in the following sense: to understand the complex process of language teaching and learning, "Firstly, we need to comprehend the professor" (VARGHESE et al., 2005, p. 22), that is to say, that we need to have a clear sense of who they are and in which cultural, social and professional context they are positioned or can be positioned by others at the interactional moment.

We agreed with the asseveration of the authors in which all the changes, consequently, provided relevant significations to the identity term in our post-structural times. One essential component of that change point out that the identity cannot be more understood as a something fixed, stable, unitary and coherent; but instead, it is a multiple transitory, transformational and transformative in conflict in its essence and capacity of management of human being in his identity formation –agency in identity formation-, bringing to dance an I as an intentional and administrator being of his identities. Another aspect is related to the fact that the identity cannot be analyzed in a isolated way from a social and historical context and for that reason, emerged an important component that is the relationship between the identity or the identities assumed by the individual, which he/she declares to possess –claimed identity- and the identity imposed by the others –assigned identity- that means, identities that the other affirms or recognizes in the individual.

A third component would be the interrupted verification of identities constructed and (re)constructed in a continuous process of negotiation of meaning through the discourse and language. We would add, still in this topic, the social aspect as an important tool of negotiation of identities. For example, the responsible action by the (re)construction of identities in communities of virtual or presence practices, which will be discuss more in detail. It is important to mention that Wenger (2008) introduces identity and social practices as parts of the same process, which means, our experiences of identities like a form of being in the world. Moreover, he made us know that a language/discourse is not everything in the construction of identities.

These visions and conceptual perspectives of identity are the ones that we will assume in this study and for achieving our goal; we will take as a potential instrument to comprehend these experiences of the participants, their emotions and identities, their narratives, or life stories according with what is conceived by Johnson and Golombek (2011); Fina (2010); Alsop (2006); and Signorini (2006), among others. These narratives are disseminated in the internship reports, which are setting up as a part of a semester evaluation of the professor-beginner. The reports were produced in the lapse of four semester in which participants studied the discipline called Investigation of the Pedagogical Practice and Supervised Internship in English Language -5° period, Reports I; II 6° period, Reports II; III- 7° periods, Reports III; and IV- 8° period, and Report IV, in a total two years, from 2010 to 2011- of data collection.

Identity of the Preservice Teacher

In the text, we will pay attention to the following two participants: Laura and Richard. During the analysis, as we have perceived, this participants showed in their initial teacher-identity formation, dissatisfaction with the academic education they have received in their university course. Laura affirms in various moments, that there is a "breach" in her formation, or that her academic-theoretical formation does not prepare adequately for the real experiences in the schools yet. There is a discrepancy between the theory taught in the university on the one hand, and the experienced practice in schools on the other.

This approximation or relation between theory and practice has being discussed and analyzed by authors of the teaching and learning language area (SILVA; BARBOSA, 2009; GIMENEZ, 2009; VIEIRA-ABRAHÃO, 2002 and others). If, however, this question was rethought in the perspective of the reconstruction of professional identities, it is either "negotiating the tensions of being a student versus being a teacher" (ALSUP, 2006, p. 132). In other words, it would be a tense relationship among theories that were acquired at the university and the philosophies and expectations of the teacher in initial formation, in relation to his performance in the field-school, being this relationship experienced primarily at the borderland discourse.

It is important to mention that the negotiations between the subjectivities of the beginner-student and the trainer professor or still between the formation course received and the experiences of the field-school can provide a development of an odd professional identity, as it is conferred in the next excerpt 1 of Laura. In it, she questions that tense relationship between theory and practice, introducing in Meta Language the development of regulation of her I (JOHNSON e GOLOMBEK, 2011), when she perceives the complexity that involves the movement process from a training student to a language teacher.

Thus, 'for us, still future teachers, there are a lot of questions, still unsolved waiting for new ideas', like she mentions in her transformer and transformative discourse:

Excerpt 1

(1) Laura: I confess that during this first internship, I had the anxiety of learning how (2) to teach English and to approach that matter so attractive for the students, which unhappily, (3) did not happen. I perceived that our theoretical discourses are not enough (4) to answer the demand of practice and **still there is a breach in our (5) formation in relation to the English classes and how to teach...** After (6) observing all the classes, I understood that the little acquired at the degree course is not (7) enough with the reality of everyday school...Despite of various (8) discussions witnessed at the university, I realized that the majority of disciplines applied (9) in the degree course do not show how to employ or/and modify the same (10) content in the classroom, that is to say, to the school practice... **For us, still (11) future teachers, there are a lot of questions and problems that continue without (12) solutions, waiting for new ideas, new theories, new analyses, new heads** (Internship Report I-emphasis mine).

The reflection and systematization (JOHNSON and GOLOMBEK, 2011) of her thoughts, as well as, the development of her professional identity about the issue of negotiation of her identities of pupil in formation/apprentice and intern teacher happened more intensively in the last semester, when she was studying the discipline called Supervised Internship IV. At that moment, she used the Report IV as a meditational and determined to reflect about her main experiences as an apprentice to analyze those experiences critically and after that, to describe those analyses to her actual conceptions about how to be an internship teacher. On that new conception of Laura can be noticed at the beginning of her writing in the Report IV when she does the following dedication using a literally fragment of the Irish author Oscar Wilde:

When we thought we were experimenting on others we were really experimenting on ourselves.

Laura perceives that during she was testing her students with her lessons plans, strategies, methods and varied approaches; she was actually, testing herself in the new identity of an intern teacher. In other words, it is put a new negotiation of academic I- apprentice- x OTHER- intern teacher. It means that her professional identity was being tested by the negotiation between her subjectivities and the ones of the others involved in her formation process, such as: trained teacher, regent teacher of the field school, students of basic education, principals, coordinators, and others.

Richard is also engaged at borderland discourse through negotiations between his identity of apprentice/ academic student and researcher and as intern teacher identity, as it is noticed in the fragment below:

Excerpt 2

(1)Ricardo: The supervised internship is one of the most challenging moments during our (2) formation. (Even though I was working with the investigation through (3) Scientific Initiation (with my tutor that works with the internship), I feel too much (4) worried with the regencies and I consider them a big challenge, because I leaved from the (5) position of a student and researcher (roles in which I do not feel any pressure) to a teacher (6) position, in which I am being tested and evaluated not only by the trained one of (7) the university, but also by the students and the pedagogical team of the school in which I am (8). (Internship Report II).

In the excerpt before, Richard, in an asymmetrical exchange of power positions (NORTON, 2000) and roles, feels tense and until abashed with the new identity he will assume: the one of preservice professor. He is aware of as a trainer teacher; he will have on difficult, conflictive, or submissive situations for being evaluated not only by the trained teacher, but also by the regent one and by the pedagogical team of the field school.

Furthermore in his narrative, Richard assumes his identity of critical-reflexive student/apprentice and even, he assumes a challenging tone that criticizes his trainer teachers for not considering the real and chaotic conditions of language teaching in public schools. Moreover, the claiming continues when he affirms that the formation he received is still traditional and based on content, and it does not match with the continuing and fast reality in which he will perform through his identity of foreign language teacher or which does not prepare him to be a foreign language teacher in this contemporary and technological reality of XXI century, like it is showed at the following excerpts:

Excerpt 3

(1)Richard: We have theorists at the university, who think about teaching from the top of their (2) formations without considering the contexts in which they are (not) going to be applied. (3)The university is too much worried with the 'how it should be' and does not create (4) purposes to 'how it is'. (Internship Report III- emphasis mine).

Excerpt 4

(5) Richard: The trainer- teachers talk that they pretend to form (6) critics and reflexive professional, but they elaborate, applied and ask for positivist and (7) excluding activities, using some materials and long term and squared methods (8) dates to form professors that would teach in the liquid future and even more (9) fast. All principles of observation, experimentation and uncovering, which are (10) characteristics of the scientific spirit, are put on favor of (11) classic readings that are incorruptible and used on dissertations and theses of guides, without having (12) space to doubt or hesitate: in a test, the subject can approve or reprove. They use (13) methods that evaluate the competency and assimilation content by the (14) student, but they have little to contribute to the performance of the classroom and it (15) seems to start to the conception that just to dominate the content, it would (16) guarantee a good class...*Maybe I am arrogant, but I can wager in a (17) rate between 10 and 1 that any hyper specialist teacher could (18) be able to be better in a public school with all the (19) difficulties that we find today. They can do good as they can, but better (20) NOT.* (Internship Report IV-emphasis mine).

When Richard affirms that at the university all the principles of observation, experimentation and uncovering which are characteristics of the scientific spirit, are put on favor of classic readings that are incorruptible and used on dissertations and theses of guides, or still that at the university **'we have theorists at the university, who think about teaching from the top of their formations without considering the contexts in which they are (not) going to be applied'**, he is unsatisfied with the formation he received in the academic space and he also claims that his trainers are in a privileged space of education, living their experiences and ideologies far from the chaotic reality of public school education.

Zeichner (1987), a theorist of matters of connection and disconnection among theories studied at the university and experienced at the field schools, suggests that the disconnected conception, expressed by Richard – between the formation he received at the university and the experiences at the field- school, happens the majority of times when the trainer is more concerned with the contents and objectives established in the disciplines programs, instead of the philosophies and beliefs generated with and inside the classroom.

When that imbalance between the practice and theory happens in the preservice teacher training, as it is observed in the excerpts of Richard, it can be for the professor in initial formation that they trainer teacher are completely unworried with the challenges that they as training students, will have to confront in public schools, let them to conclude that all the theoretical knowledge they received at the university is not important for their future professions.

However, Richard shows a professional, confident and a develop identity, to the point of being in a symmetric position of its trainers when he provokes them to manage a class better than him: 'but I can wager in a rate between 10 and 1 that any hyper specialist teacher could be able to be better in a public school with all the difficulties that we find today'. As this already called attention, it matters to make clear that is justly in that initiating period of scholar activities, challenging to the novice professor, that his/her professional identity starts to be outlined and gain forms.

Many teachers do not achieve to negotiate this reconstruction of their personal and professional identities, from which can result in negative consequences for the future professional training, or even, the termination of the profession they have chosen with their ideologies, abilities and competencies, which they have thought to be the most compatible. This happened with Ricardo, who was worried about his appearance as an adolescent, due to the fact that he is physically short, compared with the Brazilian male average. The result is the following concern:

Excerpt 5

(1)Ricardo: Initially, I let my goatee grown, with the (2) expectation to look older and maybe guarantee a little more (3) respect, but when I met the class, most students had more (4) beard than I. Yes, it's funny, but it's true. (Internship Report II- emphasis mine).

Nevertheless, Ricardo reflects systematically with his participation in CdP, about his identity negotiations through the borderline discourse (ALSUP, 2006), between the Self-Personal and the Self-Professional. This motivated him to pass from an intern-teacher to a professor of languages, to "interfere in the best possible way". Now, we are going to focus on another identity facet: the identity of a language professor.

Identity of a Language Professor

Laura at her identity of a language professor assumes the responsibility of theorizing her own teaching method. She looks to check forms to her own pedagogy (ALSUP; 2006) through a critical reflexion about several methods and approaches of language teaching, without waiting a ready recipe from her internship supervisor. Moreover, she demonstrates the development of her professional identity and recognizes the significant relevance of old theories that at ingenious moments, the professor thinks of substituting using newer methods and approaches, looking for 'innovations' without perceiving that for a real innovations of her/his attitudes happens in relation to teaching, some changes have to occur at herself/himself, at her/his identities subjectivities as the participant demonstrates in the excerpt below:

Excerpt 6

(1)Laura: As teachers, we must not be extremists considering that it (2) is necessary to mix the innovation with what is traditional. Now that we are conscious of those (3) and other aspects, we must look for some alternatives of language teaching that (4) escape from a mere reproduction of methods without excluding the pattern of teaching, but do not (5) let them be exclusive. (Internship Report II).

(6)Laura: In that way, the teacher is obliged to be adapted with the reality of the classroom, (7) leaving aside all those beliefs of how being a good professor to (8) attend the students' demands (Internship Report III).

In the fragments from the Internship Report II and III of Laura, she concludes that the teacher must think primarily of his/her students' interests and not exclusively of himself/herself and the achievements as a professional modifying, in that way, the conception of being a good teacher. Consequently, she also shows some changes of her professional identity after introducing moments of borderland discourse and the negotiation of her personal identity –in which she had beliefs about how 'to be a good teacher'. She stopped it this to assume a new professor identity, that is to say, she perceives that not only by her interests must dominate the classroom, but also her students over all.

Lastly, the participant already expresses, in a firm way, to be a foreign language teacher- teacher identity- and no more an intern-teacher –preservice teacher identity-. So, she defines her conception of being a foreign language teacher, pointing out it worth it to struggle, like on the prior discourse -of other regent teachers- she expressed at the internship II, even though it is frustrating or discouraging. So, let's look at the fragment and discuss in detail its implications for the reconstruction of Laura's identity:

Excerpt 7

(1)Laura: At the end of the Internship we understand, taking into account the acquired experience in (2) our regency practice, that being a foreign language teacher or of any (3) other subject **it is to know how to be adapted to different situations and have a plan (4) B to dribble the unexpected situations** that happen at the moment of (5) 'let's see'. Being a teacher is to have passion for what it is made and believing in education, (6) even though everybody says that it is not worth it. (Internship Report III-emphasis mine).

(7) Laura: The teacher is the most important figure of the classroom and he/she seriously needs to carry (8) that responsibility, assuming that because when he/she is there is the person who (9) directs there. Even though, the system sometimes dictates the rules and imposes the (10) practices, **it is up of him/her to reformulate and adapt the (11) classes**, taking into account the context of every classroom and the (12) students' diversity. (Internship Report III-emphasis mine).

(13) Laura: **What we have now is the worry of our challenge: To be a different (14) teacher** in front of the diversities we will have (15) ahead of our students, remembering the promise (16) that we made of being different of the ones that we criticized and are (17) responsible, in a way, of flying until our 'ivory tower' (Internship Report IV-emphasis mine).

The three narrative segments of Laura reveal that the participant has a flexible professional identity, that is open to changes and adaptations in front of other challenges or negotiations that she will have to do with her self-personal and her self-professional. It can be observed at the discourse of the first narrative segment, when she affirms that being a teacher is 'to know how to be adapted to the different situations and have a plan B to know to dribble with unexpected situations'. It is also, in the second narrative discourse her flexibility when she says: 'It is up to that teacher [my professional identity] to reformulate the proposal [of the OTHER represented here by the voices of governors, principals, coordinators, professors, students and other actors] to adapt the classes'. That flexibility influences in the third segment, as we can observe, it is a fragment taken from the Internship Report IV, and she retakes that same professional identity face at the following semester when she affirms again: 'What we have now is the worry of our challenge: To be a different teacher' - [I-a foreign language teacher different from the OTHER, the regent teacher of the field-schools, the trainer professor, the Intern professor, the I-student/apprentice and others] -.

Richard also presents a professor identity too much holistic and developed. It can be perceived when it is put in front of the social OTHER and when he confesses his subjectivities changes or even, when he contrasts one change of his I versus the social OTHER. That is represented here by the politicians and governors, who are responsible by the laws that regularize the Brazilian Education, the educational system, as well as the principals, coordinators, secretaries, students, and teachers. That means: the social community involved on the educational process. Look at the following:

Excerpt 8

(1)Richard: The contact with the education by the perspective of the teacher alters, (2) profoundly, the way we feel and perceive the society and it interferes in a decisive (3) manner at the social processes in which we are involved...I believe that I (4) can construct such critics to experience what I defend and I am aware that (5) even I can achieve my own objectives. **For that reason, I do not pretend to desist of (6) progressing and helping to make the positive difference in every classroom** (Internship Report IV- emphasis mine).

It is necessary to point out the development of the professional identity when he shows us that he is aware of his professional identity 'will become' eternal, (re) doing at future negotiations of his SELF-personal versus SELF-professional, when he says: 'I am aware that I can achieve it'. According to Moita Lopes and Bastos (2002, p.9), that 'becomes' is a project of life in which we engage and it moves the subject 'to ambition to reflect about a social life', try to comprehend it at the same time in which "it points out new configurations about who we are or who we can be" (MOITA LOPES e BASTOS, 2002, p 9).

In Moodle, Ricardo echoes in his discourse a paternalistic language teacher's identity and was concerned about his relationship with the students, which is indicated by the use of the two verbs: attend and watch over. In this way, Ricardo calls in himself the responsibility to act like parents who take care for the education of their children's, as can be seen in the excerpt below:

Excerpt 9

(1)Richard: Don't come to tell me that if a teacher explains how a (cult) variety of (2) grammar of determined language (English, for (3) example) behaviors in determined situations to teach a language, but it is (4) not like that. You can be teaching something, except the language: the language cannot (5) be learned, it is lived. **For me, the professor must incentive the student to live the foreign (6) language, attending it what he demands (like (7) parents) and watching over for this experience happens in a more salutary (8) possible way.**

(9)What is your concept of teaching? (CdP-Saturday, October, 23rd, 2010).

Also, Laura presents an identity of a language teacher too much developed and critical (FAIRCLOUGH, 2003) when she lets to echo her power awareness at her discourse in Moodle. She believes in the professor as a more important figure in the classroom: 'When you are there, you are the person who directs there!' and also by 'the budget' (NORTON, 2000) in her profession as an objective of improving the practice each day. In a similar way, she presents an active and conscious professional identity of her transformer role inside that social context, given that she thinks, at her professional context, that

she is not happy with the conditions that are imposed. In other words, a professional engaged with the aspects and social actions of her environment, according to what is expressed next:

Excerpt 10

Laura: The professor is the most important figure in the classroom and he/she needs (2) to assume that, because 'When you are there, you are the person who directs! And don't come to (3) tell me that the system is the one that dictates your class, because it is not like that. The teacher is the (4) figure more influential in the classroom, and for that reason, it is necessary that assumes his/her (5) position, showing to the student the relevance of the content he/she is teaching. It is (7) just at that moment when he/she can present the foreign language through a vision (8) that is it beyond from the linguistics aspects, giving inside of political and (9) cultural questions. **In that way, I believe that being a teacher is a professional (10) that is not happy with the conditions that are imposed to work, and does not have limits to complain, but also look for the perfection and the (12) reflection in order to improve her/his practice each day. "What does mean to be a (13) foreign language teacher?** (CdP-Monday, June, 20th, 2011- emphases mine).

Richard continues to express his rejection for being an English language teacher, mirroring himself in the reflex of rejecting English language as the 'other' colonizer, imperialist, and arrogant in a superior relationship and power of L-speaker of the mother tongue, as it is evidenced in the other excerpts of Richard in which he shows that rejection. Sequentially, he believes that he does not have the 'don' or 'vocation' to be an English language teacher and concludes 'that it is not what he desires'.

Some Considerations

To conclude, I would like to come up four inferences which seemed relevant for the analysis and the discussion of the presented data. First: The participants of the institution that was the context of the research, confronted a long period of change that made the contexts analyzed privileged arenas for the negotiation of new professional identities, which made it palpable to verify the (re)construction of the professional identity of both participants. The participant who engaged more in the borderline discourse was Ricardo, despite finishing his course refusing to be a foreign languages teacher, and he developed his professional identity significantly, identifying himself as a teacher of mother language.

Second: To focus the reconstruction of a professional teacher identity in initial formation in some virtual and presence contexts in a Letras Course, we perceive the transiency of the categorized identities such as: 1) student/apprentice identity; 2) the identity of the internship professor; 3) the identity of a foreign language teacher; and 4) the socio-cultural identity. It is important to emphasize that they do not obey to a chronological order of development and interaction represented properly in this study, as a progressive movement of back- and- forth pendulum.

Third: All the discussions presented before about the excerpt of Laura and Richard reinforce our belief of the importance of the discipline Supervised Internship II, in other ways, the knowledge of theoretical and practices for the reconstruction of the professional identity of these teacher/apprentices, as well as for the consciousness of them in relation to the motivation role and the budget in the cultural-capital, that means, the improvement of their future professional career or in a better future (NORTON, 2000; BOURDIEU, 1997, 1991).

Lastly, the fourth: To analyze the interactions of the two participant in Moodle Platform, we observe there the most concurrency in the construction of the professional identity, which indicates that it space is preferentially like a environment of sharing frustrations, emotions, achievements, passions, anxieties, wishes, etc. We understand that this sharing of experiences served as emotional scaffolds (ROSIEK, 2003). Finally, it is evident that the narratives or stories when told in both virtual and/or presence contexts, would be a privileged site to understand synchronically the role of a language in the construction of who we are.

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The Use and Functions of Mother Tongue in EFL Classes at the Language Center of South East European University in Tetovo-Macedonia

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Abstract

The use of mother tongue (L1) in foreign language classrooms at Language Center is obvious. In this paper, the use and functions of it in various classes have been analyzed and discussed. The purpose of the present study was to find out to what level the instructors use mother tongue in their classes. We attempted to find out whether their mother tongue use changes according to different variables, for which functions they use it, whether they are aware of the amount and the functions, whether the instructors are satisfied with the amount of L1 they use, and whether their students are satisfied with it, and whether this satisfaction differs according to the amount used by their instructors. The study was conducted in the Language Center of South East European University in Tetovo, Macedonia, and it was based on both qualitative and quantitative research designs. The participants were 20 English teachers working in the Language Center and their 167 students. The data were collected through classroom recordings, questionnaires that were administered both to the instructors and the students, and interviews were conducted with all of the teachers and randomly chosen 49 students. The data have revealed that mother tongue is an indivisible part of language teaching, and it actually has different functions like "building up relations", "making the topic/meaning clear (by giving examples, explaining, making extra explanations, etc.)", "explaining difficult concepts or ideas", etc. It was also found out that both the instructors and the students were aware of the importance of using the target language as much as possible in the classes, however, they could not disagree with the need of mother tongue from time to time.

Keywords: Language Center; Use of mother tongue, Function of mother tongue; foreign language.

1. Introduction

The use of mother tongue (L1) has been a necessary part of second or foreign language teaching in different contexts where both the teachers and the learners have the same mother tongue. Despite the fact that it was prohibited at certain periods according to different language teaching methods such as Direct Method and Audio-lingual Method, it is allowed in various methods and approaches such as Natural Approach, Communicative Language Teaching, Task-Based Language Learning, etc.

Larsen-Freeman (2000, pp. 101-102) states that "the native language of the students is used in the classroom in order to improve the security of the students, to provide a bridge from the familiar to the unfamiliar, and to make the meanings of the target language words clear." Having various learning setting, most teachers are anxious about the use of mother tongue in the classes and cannot decide whether it is a good idea to use it or not, or if it is going to be used, when, why and for what purposes. In reality, the use of mother tongue may have a say to language learning process in various situations in the learning-teaching process; but still, the excessive use of it may result in too much reliance on it, which is not a wanted effect or outcome in the classes. According to Tang (2002), reasonable and thoughtful use of the mother tongue is supportive and can facilitate the learning and teaching of the target language. Schweers (1999, p.7) argues that "starting with the L1 provides a sense of security and authenticate the learners' lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves. The learner is then willing to experiment and take risks with English." Teachers use L1 for the purpose of motivating students, helping students cope with some problematic situations, explaining some grammatical patterns (Duff & Polio, 1990), explaining their ideas in writing composition or in oral work, and translating the reading passages (Patel and Jain, 2008; Nation, 2003). Also in many studies it has been reported that the use of L1 is used for different other purposes in EFL or ESL classes: explaining the grammar, giving instructions, helping students/checking them, correcting the activities

(Atkinson, 1987; Cook, 2001; Greggjo & Gil, 2007; Patel & Jain, 2008). Moreover, using L1 helps maintain class discipline, build rapport and reduce social distance with students (Nation, 2003; Jingxia, 2009; Ramos, 2005). According to Moghadam et al. (2012), teachers use code change to check understanding, to clarify and to socialize. In addition, it is used to give the meaning of unknown vocabulary (Çelik, 2003; Ünel, 2010), which is found “economical and is a direct route to a word’s meaning” (Thornbury, 1999, p.78).

Another important aspect of its use is the time saving. Atkinson (1987) focuses on time saving aspect of using L1 too; “a without delay ‘How do you say X in English?’ can often be less time consuming and can involve less potential uncertainty than other methods of eliciting such as visuals, mime, ‘creating a need’, etc.” (p. 243). In addition, it arouses students’ interest towards the lesson. However, the use of L1 should not be exaggerated because the more the students are exposed to the target language, the better they will learn it. For this purpose, Atkinson (1987) points out the danger of overuse of the mother tongue in language classes which will lead to the translation of most language items into L1. Nation (2003) warns that using the mother tongue in the classroom reduces the amount of input and the opportunity of practice. Furthermore, Cook (2001) points out the importance of modeling the target language and encouraging L2 use. It is a reality that teachers may use the mother tongue in various situations for different purposes. Therefore, this study has tried to discover all these issues by collecting both qualitative and quantitative data. For this purpose we had some research questions as follows:

How much mother tongue (L1) do the instructors use in the classes and in which situations, and are they aware of it?

Are the instructors’ use of L1 affected by different variables?

-Level of class

-Content of the course (Writing, reading, core language, listening & speaking).

-Instructors’ educational background

- Instructors’ experience

What are the beliefs of the instructors regarding the use of L1 in the foreign language classrooms?

-Are these beliefs and the applications in the classes consistent?

-Do these beliefs differ according to the instructor related variables?

Instructors’ experience.

Instructors’ educational background.

-Do these beliefs differ according to the content of the course?

What are the beliefs of the students regarding the use of mother tongue in the foreign language classrooms?

- Do these beliefs differ according to the target language levels of the students?

Are the instructors satisfied with the amount of English they use in the classes, or do they want to use more or less than the present one?

Are the students satisfied with the amount of English their instructors use in the class or do they expect their them to use more or less English than the present situation?

2. Methodology

This study is a descriptive designed with mixed methods using with both qualitative and quantitative data. The study was conducted in the EFL classes that the instructors were teaching in the Language, South East European University. In the language center, the learners have to take the English courses for four semesters, with 6-8 hours of classes each week. The curriculum encloses four levels of classes; elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate. The decision as to which a student is going to attend an appropriate level is made through the placement test conducted at the beginning of the academic year. The core language course includes all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)

and related grammatical patterns and vocabulary. The students at the same time continue with their main courses at their departments.

2.1. Participants

The participants in the study were 20 instructors who teach English and 167 learners studying English in the Language Center, South East European University University. In addition, the instructors had different educational backgrounds in terms of BA, MA or PhD degrees that they held and all of them had language background. On the other hand, the students included in the study, were in twenty different groups with three different levels of English, namely, pre-intermediate (51.7%), intermediate (28.3%) and upper-intermediate levels (19.9%). The students were grouped according to their placement test scores. The range of their age was between 19-22.

2.2. Data collection

For the purpose of the study, we had both qualitative and quantitative data: audio recordings of instructors in their classes, a questionnaire administered to instructors, a questionnaire administered to students, semi-structured interviews with 20 instructors and 39 students. The recordings were completed in about 8 weeks in each class. Each class hour lasted for about 50 minutes, and all 20 instructors (each one) were recorded 6 times in different courses, which is a totally 120 record. The instructors themselves audio recorded their classes. In addition, the questionnaires were designed to support up the data collected through the audio recordings. The questionnaires were adapted from various researchers who conducted similar research in the literature (Jingxia, 2008; Schweers, 1999; Duff & Polio, 1990; Levine, 2003; Bateman, 2008; Cook, 2001). The first questionnaire intended at finding out the attitude of the instructors towards the use of L1 in the classroom. The second questionnaire administered to the students aimed at finding out the amount of L1 the instructors used in the classroom, and the students' perceptions about it. Both questionnaires were reviewed by some ELT experts and piloted. The questionnaire for instructors had Cronbach's alpha value of .90, and the questionnaire for students had Cronbach's alpha value of .87.

Additionally, the follow up interview sessions were conducted in order to back up the questionnaires and the audio recordings, and triangulate the data. The Interviews were semi-structured and conducted with 20 instructors and 29 students, who were composed of two randomly selected voluntary students from each instructor's classes.

2.3. Data analysis

The data collected through audio recordings in this study were analyzed by listening to the recordings and taking notes of the instances when the mother tongue was used by the instructors. Thus, the functions of the use of mother tongue have been categorized under various group headings/themes. The total use for each pre-determined category was marked. While listening to the recordings, if an extra category was decided, it was added in the table. Five of the recordings were also listened by two other instructors to ensure that the researchers were correctly categorizing the instances when mother tongue was used. The cases of L1 use were marked and categorized as 51 items. They were also ranked from 1 to 51.

The data collected through the questionnaires were analyzed through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0. First, the data were calculated by using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test whether they were parametric or non-parametric. It was calculated that some parts of the questionnaires were parametric and the others were nonparametric. Next, independent sample t-tests, two-way ANOVA, were used for parametric data, Mann-Whitney-U Test and Kruskal Wallis test for non-parametric data in order to find out whether there was a major variation between instructors' use of mother tongue and variables such as their educational background, teaching experience, gender, the level of the class they were teaching in. The results of the audio recordings were compared to the results of the questionnaires and to the answers given in the interviews in order to be able to see whether the instructors were aware of how much L1 they used in the classroom or not.

3. Results and discussion

Regarding the first research question as to how much L1 the teachers use in the classes and in which circumstances they use it and whether they are aware of it, the results of the instructor questionnaire revealed that the instructors used L1 often to communicate with students outside the class. They usually used L1 for relationship building purposes (making jokes,

showing concern to the students, showing empathy, etc.), to explain difficult impressions or ideas, to talk about organizational information (course policies, syllabi, assignments, announcements, deadlines, etc.), to explain grammar rules, and to talk about the exams (see Table 1). The relationship building is one of the functions mentioned for which L1 is used in most of the studies done previously such as Schweers (1999), Saxena (2009), Al-Nofaie (2010), Bateman (2008).

On the other hand, what the instructors acknowledged about the use of L1 in their classes was different from what they actually performed in their classrooms. They stated that L1 was usually used for rapport building purposes (making jokes, showing concern to the students, showing empathy, etc.), but it was 45th place in the ranking list in the audio recording. Next, they stated that L1 was usually used to explain difficult concepts or ideas; however, it was in 49th

Table 1. The most frequent L1 use the instructors claim in the questionnaire, and the class recording results.

Situation	Mean	SD	Level of Participation	The Rank in Recordings
21-To communicate with students outside the class	4.40	.68	Often -	-
25-For rapport building purposes. (Making jokes, showing concern to the students, showing empathy, etc)	4.00	.86	Usually	45
22-To explain difficult concepts or ideas	3.95	.89	Usually	49
20-To talk about administrative information (course policies, 3.80 announcements, deadlines, etc.)	3.80	.95	Usually	7
26. Because of time limitation. (I have to cover too much material in a short time).	3.50	1.00	Usually	-
09. To explain grammarrules.	3.45	.89	Usually	9
14. To talk about the exams.	3.41	.88	Usually	-

Place in the ranking list. In addition, they also stated that L1 was used to talk about administrative information (course policies, announcements, deadlines, etc.), which was the only item parallel with what they actually performed in the classroom (see Table 1). Although instructors had such beliefs regarding the L1 use, the actual use of L1 in the classrooms was different. According to our data collected from class recordings, instructors used L1 to make the topic/meaning clear (by giving examples, explaining, making extra explanations, etc.), to present & explain the topic, to give feedback, to teach the meaning of new vocabulary, to translate sentences that the instructor utters or those in the book/listening text without considering if it is understood or not, and to give/explain tasks or instructions (see Table 2).

Table 2. The recorded use of L1 most in classes

Rank	Item	Recorded Items	Tally
1	22	To make the topic/meaning clear (by giving examples, explaining, making extra explanations, etc.)	896
2	2	To present & explain the topic	474
3	13	To give feedback	378
4	5	To teach the meaning of new vocabulary	339
5	48	To translate sentences that the instructor utters or those in the book/listening text without considering if it is understood or not	262
6	8	To give/explain tasks or instructions	260

During the interview, the instructors stated that they used L1 mostly in the grammar and the writing sections while they were explaining difficult parts of them. They also pointed out that they switched into L1 when they realized the students did not understand the topic/task/presented item, etc. For feedback, except one, all of the instructors claimed that they used L1 while giving feedback. 30% of the instructors stated that they directly used L1 for vocabulary teaching, but the others stated that they tried to explain the words in English, drew pictures, or acted out, etc. However, if the students still did not understand, then they used L1. All of the instructors emphasized that when they realized that the students could not understand, they used L1 to explain more or to translate. When giving/explaining tasks/instructions, some of them stated that they used L1 to explain the instructions. On the other hand, all of them pointed out that they used L1 to give homework in order to avoid students' complaint or any confusion among them. Greggio and Gil (2007), Morahan (2007), support this idea by pointing out that the key with teacher use of L1 is that it is used for clarification purposes, after an attempt has been made to communicate ideas in L2, and students still appear to be confused. One of the students interviewed, S8, pointed out that since they sometimes did not understand when the explanations were in English, the teachers were forced to use Albanian/Macedonia by the students in class. Timucin and Baytar (2015) found out that teachers exploit L1 to translate when students do not understand, to check understanding, to explain procedures, to give directions, to explain grammar and to manage the class.

In addition, the instructors' claimed that they sometimes used L1 to explain what s/he aimed to tell the students, to catch the students' attention, and to explain the meaning of new words. They stated that they rarely used L1 to elicit English words or sentences (see Table 3).

Table 3. The least frequent L1 use the instructors claim in the questionnaire, and the class recording results.

Situation	Mean	SD	Level of Participation	The Rank in Recordings
08-To explain what I aim to tell my students.	2.80	.52	Sometimes	1
18-To catch the students' attention.	2.75	.97	Sometimes	32
10-To explain the meaning of new words.	2.70	.92	Sometimes	4
17-To elicit English words or sentences.	2.70	.47	Sometimes	-
12-To give instructions.	2.55	.94	Rarely	6

On the other hand, what the instructors declared in the questionnaire was different from what they actually performed in their classrooms. Although they claimed that they sometimes used L1 to explain what s/he aimed to tell the students, it was in the 1st place in the ranking list. Next, they claimed that they sometimes used L1 to catch the students' attention, it was in the 32nd place in the ranking list. In addition, they stated that they sometimes used L1 to explain the meaning of new words, but it was in the 4th place in the ranking list. Another remarkable use of L1 was that they claimed that they rarely used L1 to give instructions; however, it was in the 6th place in the ranking list (see Table 3). Our class recordings revealed that the instructors were not aware how repeatedly they used L1 for various purposes. As a matter of fact the instructors used L1 least for the purpose of talking about something that is not related to course; confirming students' understanding; conflict management; discussing course policies, attendance and other administrative information; transition from one topic to the other (OK, well, now, let's); and helping students find the correct answers for the questions & activities in for the tasks in their textbooks (See Table 4).

Table 4. The recorded use of L1 least in classes

Rank	Item	Recorded Items	Tally
46	38	Talking about something that is not related to course	7
47	15	Confirming students' understanding	6
48	10	Conflict management	6
49	20	Discussing course policies, attendance and other administrative information	4
50	40	Transitions (OK, well, now, let's)	4

The second research question focused on whether the instructors' use of L1 were affected by different variables such as level of students, the content of the course, educational background, and the experience of instructors. Our findings showed that there was no statistically significant difference regarding the level students ($p = 0.357 > 0.05$). However, the upper intermediate level had a rather low mean ($m = 6.50$), which showed that the use of L1 fell down as the level increased. Qing (2010) has emphasized that "code-switching represents one of the strategies that EFL teachers often use to accommodate the students' level of English proficiency." (p. 112). Atkinson (1987) claims that "while giving instructions talking about the classroom methodology, while presenting and emphasizing the language, L1 is mostly used with the early stages of proficiency levels" (p. 244). Cole (1998) also claims that "the best use of L1 is with the beginning and low level students" (p. 2), which supports that L1 use in the classes differ according to the levels of the students. Regarding the content of the course, only writing course was statistically significant ($p = 0.03 < 0.05$) among core language, reading, writing and listening and speaking courses. Instructors claimed that they used L1 most in writing courses. Apart from this, the results in the recordings and the questionnaires support their argument. Our recording results showed that the instructors used L1 while teaching as to how to identify and write topic sentences, supporting sentences/ideas, paragraphs, thesis statements, and types of essays as well as giving feedback about their productions.

This result is in line with the results in the study of Stapa and Majid (2009) who claimed that when teachers use L1 in L2 writing classes with limited proficiency, students produce better quality essays. On the other hand, our statistical computation revealed that there was no statistically significant difference regarding instructors' educational background ($p = 0.29 > 0.05$), the degree the instructors held such as BA or MA ($p = 0.067 > 0.05$), and the year of experience they had ($p = 0.28 > 0.05$). Our next research question was related to whether the attitude of instructors differ according to some variables such as instructors' know-how, instructors' educational background (ELT or Non-ELT, BA or MA degree), the content of the course. Our results showed that there was no statistically significant difference for instructors' practice ($p = 0.73 > 0.05$), instructors' educational setting (ELT or Non-ELT, ($p = 0.15 > 0.05$), the degree the instructors held such as BA or MA ($p = 0.76 > 0.05$), and the content of the course ($p = 0.067 > 0.05$). This is parallel with the results of Ofiaz (2009) and Moran (2009). The fourth research question focused on as to what the attitude of the students regarding the use of L1 were in the foreign language classrooms. Students totally approved that the more English they used, the better they would learn it ($m = 4.70$). In addition, they agreed that they could help each other during the classes by using L1 ($m = 3.76$); using English needed extra effort ($m = 3.74$); L1 should be used in order to talk about the class rules, attendance or organizational information in class ($m = 3.72$); use of L1 aided comprehension ($m = 3.69$); in order to successfully acquire English, they should separate it from L1 ($m = 3.57$); they felt more contented about some functions or topics in L1 rather than in English ($m = 3.65$); they could talk in L1 in the class both with the instructors and with the students ($m = 3.43$). Students are aware of the importance of using target language in classes; however, they believed that they needed L1 for better grasp, to learn some key issues in grammar, and to discuss their problems in learning the target language. On the other hand, students totally opposed the item that when the instructor was too weary, s/he did not use English. In addition, they disagreed that they were used to the instructor's using L1, and it was hard for them to change it ($m = 2.40$); the instructor and students should use only English to discuss course policies, attendance, and other administrative information ($m = 2.36$); there was no use in using English in the classroom ($m = 2.23$); they thought they did not understand when the instructor spoke in English ($m = 2.18$). Students also revealed that their instructors had a tendency to use the target language most of the time, and they expected them to use it because they stated that they could understand them when they spoke the target language to most extent. Our last research question was whether the instructors were satisfied with the amount of English they used in the classes, or whether they wanted to use more or less than the present one. The same question was asked to students, too. Among the instructors, 12.5% of them stated that they needed to use less English, 51.25% of them pointed out that they should keep the same amount they use at present although 36.25% stated that they needed to use more English in their classes. On the other hand, what students stated regarding the amount of use of L1 was parallel with the instructors. Among the students, 6.5% of them expected that the instructors should use less English, and 60.25% of them expected that the instructors should keep the present amount of L1. However, 36.25% of them expected more English in the classes, which is also parallel with the expectations of the instructors.

4. Conclusion

It is a good idea for sure to use L2 most of the time; however, teachers should also know that they should not feel at fault while using L1 when it is really crucial and appropriate to do so. The situation might also be in the contrary way, that is, the

teachers might be counting too much on L1, which provides less amount of target language input. In this study, we have found out that the instructors used L1 most for relationship building purpose, making the topic/meaning clear (by giving examples, explaining, making extra explanations, etc.), explaining difficult concepts or ideas, etc. However, they used it least for the purpose of talking about something that is not related to course; confirming students' understanding; conflict management; discussing course policies, attendance and other organizational information; transition from one topic to the other (OK, well, now, let's); and helping students find the correct answers for the questions & activities in for the tasks in their textbooks. It was also found out that both the instructors and the students were aware of the importance of using the target language as much as possible in the classes, however, they could not disagree with the need of mother tongue from time to time. Both the instructors and students were satisfied about the amount of L1 use in their classes.

Through this study, we hope that teachers will be able to see the situations in which the others use L1, and have better understanding concerning the role of L1 in their classes. This study may have an impact on teachers in terms of questioning their own L1 use, and being more aware of their own teaching. Teacher trainers may also make use of the present study while they are training the prospect teachers. They may explain that using the target language as much as possible should be the goal of every foreign language teacher, however, the use of the students' L1 might also be necessary from time to time, so it should not be a unthinkable for them. This study might create some awareness as to how much and for which task some teachers feel the need of using L1 in their classes. They might find some solutions for some of the functions for which L1 is used, and thus, teachers can use more of the target language, which will lead to more target language communication in their classes.

We had some hypothesis and limitations for the study. The participant instructors and their students were assumed to represent the population. The classes recorded in the study were assumed to follow the normal procedures that the instructors had while they were not recorded. In addition, the instructors were expected not to make any changes in their teaching. The answers given to the questionnaires and the interview questions both by the instructors and the students were assumed to be truthful and reflect their real thoughts and feelings honestly.

As for limitations, one of the limitations of the study was that it was not a repeated study. Although it was tried hard to have as many recordings as possible in order to make the instructors and students grow more used to being recorded and to prevent them from conducting themselves, it was still not acceptable. Another limitation is that, since the study was conducted in the Language Center, South East European University, the results were limited only to the instructors and students in this center. If it were applied in different universities, it could have some different results. A further study that will look into the same scope with the present study may use multidisciplinary studies and a higher number of participants. Furthermore, the participants may be asked why exactly they used L1 in the situations straight after the recordings to find out the real reasons for it. Moreover, further study may look into the students' use of L1 in L2 classrooms, too. Finally, a further study might also look into the effects of the use of L1 on the achievement of the students. Whether the use of L1 contributes to the achievement of the students or holds back it or whether the various functions of using L1 help the students learn the target language better can be analyzed through a repeated study.

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Heart Based Meditation: Panacea for Today's Youth

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Abstract

Restlessness alloyed with negative or destructive emotionalism and experiencing meaninglessness in life in an existential manner has become almost the order of modern life. It is needless to say that for sensitive people it is a perennial problem. Those who take on things defying all the moral and ethical codes seem to have little or less botheration. They do escape the severity of the problems or challenges faced by intellectuals, although they end up with a disaster. It is truly a frustrating fact that reading does make a man learned but not necessarily wise. Therefore it would be better to first delearn and then systematically relearn with proper understanding so that one can equip self consciously with a right and pragmatically suitable knowledge to tread on a righteous path. The youth of today is groping in darkness and periodically snared in the mesh of pessimism. Everything is available in abundance around him but he lacks the art of pruning for self betterment. Therefore, this paper envisages the life free from all shackles for today's youth and for the same proposes a practical way of experiencing heart based meditation- Heartfulness. So let's get ready to get involved in a transformation process where one who goes in never comes out. Not because he has ceased to exist, or is dead, but because he has transformed into master. Spiritual power will give the strength to the purpose of living. Finally the paper would attempt to replace stress, conflict and the chaos within by peace, love and harmony, through heart based meditation.

Keywords: Restlessness, Righteous, Pessimism, Heartfulness, Meditation

Introduction

Why do we need a balanced existence?

Present day young minds are being excellently prepared for future challenges in an increasingly competitive world, but still there is a pressing need for the youths to equip themselves with better values, behavior and attitudes. Its about striving to provide them with means of overall wellness rather success and power. Today we are in the midst of multiple crisis – economic, environmental, and social. And we cannot wait for a leader to ride in on a white horse to save us. We all need to find the leader in the mirror, and take the steps needed to make a difference, both in our communities and at the other end of the world[1]. What kind of future do we view for the world as a whole? Is it a world of jealousy, fight, restlessness, anarchy and intolerance? Or a future filled with happiness, contentment and high performance individuals, not limited to materialism, but human condition. If it's the second case then what are we doing today? There are people from all fields doing extremely good work for humanity. At the same time we also see the people of opposite qualities. If we constantly put future in our view, how can we change our attitude to achieve this?

We live in an age of disruption. Any review of underlying forces will convince us that the rate of disruption will continue to go up, not down. It's too late to reverse these forces and trends. So if we cannot control the rate of exterior disruption, what, if anything, can we control? The only thing we can really control or shape is *our interior response*: how we show up when disruption hits. The future of our social systems, societies and the planet as a whole depends in no small way on the choices we make in these moments[2]. We need leader who should be a role model and not just an inspirator. There are many personalities such as Mahatma Gandhi, Mother Teresa who lived and followed what they preached.

Many times looking around the world, we see smart leaders – in politics, in business, in media – making terrible decisions. What they're lacking is not IQ, but wisdom. Which is no surprise; it has never been harder to tap into our inner wisdom, because in order to do so, we have to disconnect from all our omnipresent devices – our gadgets, our screens, our social media – and reconnect with ourselves. Being connected in a shallow way to the entire world can prevent us from being

deeply connected to those closest to us – including ourselves. And that is where wisdom is found. After all, the function of a leadership is to be able to see the iceberg before it hits the *Titanic* [3].

What's necessary today is not only a new approach to leadership. We need to go beyond the concept of leadership. We must discover a more profound and practical integration of the head, heart and hand – of the intelligences of the open mind, open heart, and open will – at both an individual and a collective level. The leaders or individuals or groups who initiate innovation are the “artists”. They create something new and bring it to the world. We can observe *what* leaders do, *how* they do it, what strategies and processes they deploy. But we can't see the inner place, the *Source* from which people act when, for example, they operate at their highest possible level or, alternatively, when they act without engagement or commitment. It is their interior condition – the source and quality of attention. The same person in the same situation doing the same thing can effect a totally different outcome depending on the inner place from where that action is coming. We can call it “seeing from our deepest source”: that is sensing and operating from one's highest future potential. It is the state each of us can *experience* when we open not just our minds but our *hearts* and our wills – our impetus to act – in order to deal with the new realities emerging all around us[4].

Fundamentals of meditation :

Meditation means to think continuously of the same thing. It is the time that we spend with our inner self.

Meditation is defined as “inner observation in silence”, which has got a positive influence on both mind and the body. For millennia, Raja Yoga meditation has proved its efficacy in producing calmness and peace, improving emotional stability, managing chronic ailments, enhancing health status and quality of life. Patanjali presented his practical approach to the world a few thousand years ago as the eightfold path:

Yama: (Good conduct) Abstinence from harming others, from falsehood, from theft, from incontinence, and from greed.

Niyama: (Regularity, Observation) Observance of purity, contentment, mortification, self study, devotion to God.

Asana: (Posture) Steady and comfortable posture, in reference to posture used for meditation practices.

Pranayama: (Breath Regulation) Control of breadth.

Pratyahara: (Inner withdrawal) Withdrawal of the mind from the senses and external objects.

Dharana: (Mental focus) It means concentration, or fixing the mind.

Dhyana: (Meditation) Meditation on the goal.

Samadhi: (Original condition / Balance / Super conscious state) Perfect balance as in the spiritual condition of absolute or bliss.[5-6]

In the current times it is not very easy to follow this method meticulously. So many simplified methods have emerged with subtle modifications to suit the current life styles. Example : Heartfulness meditation, Transcendental meditation, Kundalini yoga, Sudarshan kriya yoga etc.

Heartfulness provides a way of integrating various elements of yoga, without having to take up each step individually, through the practices of relaxation, meditation, cleaning of subtle body, and connecting with the Source through prayer. It is a complete package that provides simple practices for anyone who aspires to evolve.

The Oxford dictionary has given following definitions of Heartfulness: The fact or quality of being heartfelt. Sincerity or warmth of feeling or expression[7]. According to Hindu tradition and Sanskrit scriptures this concept can be defined as: “the realization of the inner self of its eternal connection with the higher self inside one's own heart and seeking its guidance from within- so as to be free from the burden of the results of one's own thoughts and actions.” This produces a state of “Dependence on the guidance from within” - in all the aspects of day to day living resulting in a well-balanced thinking and approach to life[8]. It is the unregulated mind, which is the main culprit of all the mental stress and its associated ill effects on the person [9].

Heart Based Meditation :

Heartfulness is heart based meditation. It is a simple and practical way to experience the hearts unlimited resources. Through Heartfulness, we are able to really listen to the heart which enables us to master our life in a joyful way. This exercise of fine – tuning the heart with the mind is done through a stepwise scientific approach to meditation. In Heartfulness meditation you sit in a comfortable position, close your eyes and start with a thought that divine light is present in your heart. Why do we meditate on the heart?

According to P. Rajagopalachari, "It is universally accepted in the system that **the heart is the seat of Divinity**. So when we approach Divinity through human system, we can do so by feeling this presence in our heart. Also human being is described by his heart. For example : kind hearted, soft hearted, bitter hearted, good hearted etc. Human character is defined by the heart. Human life is itself centred in the heart, as even if every other organ fails, life still exists. But if the heart stops everything stops. While meditation on the heart, we are able to affect the whole system in a total way. This is because blood circulation starts and ends with the heart. So this Divinity is passed on to each and every cell of human body. So when heart is purified it helps in the purification of each and every cell of human body and the whole system. According to Master, human heart has infinite capabilities well beyond those attributed to the organ of flesh-considered as the main organ of the body. The heart is the seat of the soul". [10]

Heartfulness is a process of discovering meditation first, just like that of a child learning through wonder and direct observation. These programs are designed in a way so as to touch the heart, offer relaxation, introspection and meditation.

Practical Experiences :

Being a part of conducting such a program at Government Engineering College, Aurangabad, I have seen the change in students' approach towards their friends, their career, their aim in life in general. Heart based meditation workshops are being conducted throughout the world but I would refer some of these conducted in western part of India. Harshal Jawale, zonal co-ordinator of Heartfulness, had a unique experience at MIT School of Management, Pune (India). The staff of this institute were concerned and worried about the defaulter students. To everyone's surprise it was seen that more than 70% of them did attend it regularly for 3 days. Further we were told that trouble makers changed to trouble shooters. A similar session was conducted at Bhima Institute of Management and Technology, Kolhapur, where nearly 1000 students attended and experienced heart based meditation.

I had an opportunity to co-ordinate in various such sessions and also the ones for faculty of the Institute/ College/University. In December 2016 we started this program for the students of "Earn and Learn" Scheme of Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Marathwada University, Aurangabad which went on till the end of academic year that is March 2017. Actually the students enrolled under this scheme come from rural areas and poor socio-economic background and University provides them the work for which they are paid and this helps to lower the financial burden on their family. After the 3- days workshop attended by more than 200 youths, they were more than willing to go for weekly sessions which our team volunteered for. It was very encouraging. Presently weekly sessions are going on at Girl's hostel in the University Campus. The Vice-Chancellor of the university, Directors of various student welfare schemes like NSS, NYKS, etc. have been very co-operative to carry on such an activity which is so simple at the same time very effective, has no pre-conditions and demands nothing than willingness on the part of the one who wishes to experience it. There are now some colleges, who have come forward in making Heartfulness meditation as their regular activity. Also the colleges affiliated to the University come under NSS (National Service Scheme), where college each adopts a village and the youths of NSS team stay in that village for a period of 7 to 10 days and volunteer for various welfare works like cleanliness drive, spreading health awareness and so on. During this camp Heartfulness team is invited to conduct meditation. Now because of these camps even villagers have started meditating.

Heart based meditation is also conducted for faculty members of various educational institutions. Teachers are first and foremost inspiring role models for students, encouraging them to be the future citizens and decision-makers of the world. It is a responsibility that requires commitment and, most of all, love.

Conclusion:

According to Coralie Imbert, a French freediver and meditation practitioner- "By evolving through meditation and asking myself questions, I was in a position to channel and regulate my mind, and to much better manage stress and pressure". She adds by saying that today her approach is totally different and now she lives it as a competition with herself [11]. All educationalists and especially those associated with youth recognize the need for interactive, dynamic learning

environments and holistic education, and this has been so since the ancient gurukula style of learning in the East and Socratic learning in the West. So enter the need for the heartfulness approach for teachers. It creates a balanced outlook towards their responsibilities. Heartfulness embraces critical thinking, questioning, observation and experiential learning. It also embraces the dimension that is critical to 21st century education, and that is the role of the heart in self-development.

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Effects of Physical Activity on Controlling Blood Pressure Among Hypertensive Patients at the Region of Prizren

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Abstract

Aim: To describe the effect of physical activity on controlling blood pressure among hypertensive patients at Region of Prizren. **Method:** A sample of 101 patients diagnosed with hypertension in the region of Prizren, which were randomly selected from those hypertensive patients who visited the Main Family Medicine Centre and Private ambulance "Nderimed" for their regular follow up. A structured questionnaire (Life Style Questionnaire and Perceived Stress Scale) with questions on different characteristics was administered. In terms of gender composition there were 41 men and 49 women, aged between 45 and 74 years old. **Result:** Among our sample just 7.8% reported that they make physical activity regularly. 68% of the sample reported that they engaged less than one hour per week in some kind of activity and their motivation to do so was also weak, just half of them report that they want to lose in weight. When participants were asked how many hours they move by walk or bike, with 0 hours reported 69%. **Conclusion:** The increased risk of physical inactivity in controlling hypertension in this study suggests that general practitioners must be in the habit of prescribing practice of physical exercise and patients are followed up regularly to confirm that they are adhering to the management plan and the blood pressure targets are being met.

Keywords: physical activity, hypertension, risk factors.

Introduction

Similarly, the lack of physical activity also represents a major health problem related to several diseases and even death rates. Thus according to the WHO report, an estimated 1.9 million deaths are attributable to physical inactivity annually worldwide.[2] Approximately one third of adults are not physically active at all.[3] Studies have demonstrated that physical inactivity increases with age and is more prevalent among females.[7] Physical inactivity itself is an important independent risk factor of many chronic diseases such as hypertension, diabetes mellitus and heart diseases; also it significantly increases the risk of cardiovascular diseases.[3, 6]

To summarize unhealthy diets along with physical inactivity are two of the main risk factors of many chronic diseases, including hypertension.[5, 6] According to National Institute of Public Health of Kosova (NIPH) 77% of the overall population in Kosovo suffers from hypertension; this disease also represents 57% of causes of deaths in the country [1]. Although a healthy diet and moderate physical activity are related to better management of hypertension, very little attention is being paid to these two aspects.[4, 6]

Aim/Purpose

The purpose of this study is to describe the effect of physical activity on controlling blood pressure, in a sample of patients with hypertension in Region of Prizren.

Methodology

Sample

Participants were 101 patients diagnosed with hypertension in the region of Prizren, which were randomly selected from those hypertensive patients who visited the Main Family Medicine Centre and Private ambulance "Nderimed" for their regular follow up. A structured questionnaire (Life Style Questionnaire and Perceived Stress Scale) with questions on

different characteristics was administered. In terms of gender composition there were 41 men and 49 women, aged between 45 and 74 years old.

In terms of education level, 12 (11.9%) of them were with four classes completed, 64 (63.4%) of them were with primary school, 5 (5%) of them were with secondary school, 3 (3%) of them were with university degree, 5 (5%) of them were with master degree and 1 with doctoral degree. Also as regards marital status, all patients were married except for one who was divorced.

Data collection and Design

This study was cross sectional and descriptive in nature. The methods of data collection comprised of personal interview and physical assessment (anthropometric and blood pressure measurements). A standardized, semi-structured, interviewer administered questionnaire (Life Style Questionnaire and Perceived Stress Scale) was used to obtain information on the socio-demographic characteristics of the study participants, dietary pattern and lifestyle. The questionnaire also included 13 questions on physical activity; examples were 'Do you exercise regularly', 'How many times in week you walk or bike', 'How much you feel motivated to make exercise' etc.

Data analyses

Data was analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 21 computer statistical software package. Frequency distribution tables were constructed; cross tabulations were done to examine relationship between categorical variables. The Chi-square test was used to compare differences between proportions. Logistic regression analysis was used to determine the variables that predict nutrition status and hypertension among the participants. All statistical analysis was set at 5% level of significance ($p < 0.05$).

Results

Among our sample just 7.8% reported that they make physical activity regularly. 68% of the sample reported that they engaged less than one hour per week in some kind of activity and their motivation to do so was also weak, just half of them report that they want to lose in weight. When participants were asked how many hours they move by walk or bike, with 0 hours reported 69%.

As demonstrated on the table below most of the sample was often motivated (Mean=1.86, where 1 always, 2 often, 3 sometimes and 4 never) to exercise, but in reality they don't exercise (82.2% say no as demonstrated on Table 2).

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Do you usually feel motivated to exercise?	86	1.00	4.00	1.8603	.82836
Valid N	86				

Table 2. Do you exercise regularly?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	7	6.9	7.8	7.8
Valid No	83	82.2	92.2	100.0
Total	90	89.1	100.0	
Missing System	11	10.9		
Total	101	100.0		

Conclusion

The increased risk of physical inactivity in controlling hypertension in this study suggests that general practitioners must be in the habit of prescribing practice of physical exercise and patients are followed up regularly to confirm that they are adhering to the management plan and the blood pressure targets are being met.

Findings seem to be quite problematic in terms of health behaviors displayed by patients with hypertension. Patients seem to engage very little in physical exercise besides other unhealthy life style. However it is not clear from the findings of the

study whether this unhealthy life style is due to lack of knowledge (they are not educated about the importance of engaging in physical exercise or other life style importance) or lack of motivation to do so (despite knowledge). Moreover, the involvement of culture specific factors might also be examined; e.g., red meat being part of the typical diet in Kosovo. Nonetheless these findings suggest the need to inform and educate patients into following a proper diet and physical activity regimen, two aspects which are crucial in keeping the condition under control. The implications are clear for health professionals dealing with these patients, especially in providing life-style advice and support. In this context future research might be suggested which investigates the real reasons behind these findings especially in terms of the roles that health professionals have in this process; for instance health professionals might be asked on the type of medical advice they provide to these patients and conversely patients might be asked the same about doctors. To conclude, despite the limitations (small sample, descriptive data etc.) the present study provides some important directions for future research.

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The Differential Effect Of Auditor Type on the Value Relevance of Earnings and Book Values: Evidence from Listed Firms in Nigeria

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Abstract

A determining factor of investors' decision is mostly represented by the auditing of financial statements carried out by a Big4 company, because investors appreciate the quality of the auditing service in terms of image, size and reputation of the auditing firm. This study examines the differential effect of auditor type classified as Single Big4 audit firm; Single Non-Big4 audit firm; and joint audit team of Big4/Non-Big4 audit firms, on the value relevance of earnings and book values of listed firms in Nigeria. A sample of one hundred and seventeen listed (117) firms trading on the floor of Nigerian Stock Exchange from 2009 to 2015 were examined. The study adopted Ohlson model (1995) modified to include auditor type variable and control variables. A simultaneous pooled OLS regression using the Seemingly Unrelated Regression Estimates (SUEST) approach was utilized in running the analysis of all relevant data collected. The findings of the study reveal that while Nigerian investors perceive the earnings of firms audited by a Single Big4 to be of high quality, they seem indifferent as to whether it is audited by a joint audit team of Big4/Non-big4, or a Single Non-Big4 audit firm. The study therefore recommends that investors looking for more value relevant EPS should focus on firms audited by single Big4, since they are more likely to have greater value relevant earnings with stronger positive connection to price.

Keywords: Joint audit, single audit firm, share prices, earnings, book values, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Value relevance research is primarily carried out in order to examine whether companies' financial statements provide users of financial reports with high quality and valuable accounting information that will enable them to make informed decisions. Value relevance of accounting information addresses the degree to which accounting information is impounded in share prices. Such researches examine the association between share prices or returns as a dependent variable, and a set of independent variables (earnings, book values, and any other relevant accounting information). Thus, accounting information is considered value relevant from an investor's perspective, when there is a significant statistical association between the independent variables with the dependent variable. Such researches have empirically established that the higher the association, the higher the financial reporting quality, and the more reliable and useful the accounting numbers reported are, to the valuation decisions of investors (Francis & Schipper, 1999; Barth, Landsman & Lang, 2006; Banimahd, Poorzamani & Ahmadi, 2013).

Accordingly, when making decisions about capital allocation, investors need to know that the financial information they are given is credible and reliable (Schilder, 2011). Empirically, an accounting amount is deemed value relevant with some reliability if it increases the power of the estimating equation in assessing market values (Barth, et al., 2006). But, the reliability of the accounting information provided in the audited financial report is the crux of the problem faced by users of financial statements especially investors in their decision making process. Auditors, by doing audits in accordance with the Generally Accepted Auditing Standards (GAAS), will attest to the fairness of corporate financial reports by detecting and reporting material deviations from the generally accepted accounting standards to various stakeholders (Lai, Lin, Li & Wu, 2009).

Users of financial information therefore, place their reliance on the information contained in audit reports as a platform for their decision making purpose largely based on the assurance that the information obtained from the audited financial statements is reasonably accurate, complete and unbiased. This is because audited annual reports generally represent the most significant feature of the audit process used by auditors to offer an independent, objective and professional opinion regarding the true and fair view of the financial position and performance presented by the company's management in the financial statements (Al-Thuneibat, Khamees, & Al-Fayoumi, 2008). Moreover, the effective functioning of the capital markets is achievable only when investors and other stakeholders have sufficient confidence in the audited financial statements.

As such, the major rationale proposed in the literature for a company to hire an auditor and to accept the additional monitoring by an external party, is derived from the Agency Theory, because, the choice of a specific auditor is linked with arising agency costs, resulting in directors of companies making this decision with the goal of reducing agency costs caused by several information asymmetries arising in a company's environment. Accordingly, the ability of an external auditor to qualify an audit opinion indicates some level of independence and quality. Consequently it is expected that the type of auditor can be used in gauging the reliability of audited financial reports and hence impact positively on the value relevance of accounting information by sending a positive signal to capital market.

Auditor type is defined in this study as the category of independent audit firm(s) engaged by an entity to perform its audit in accordance with statutory regulation and professional requirements. The audit firm in accounting literature is broadly categorized according to variations in firm size, mostly in line with either big *x*/non-big *x* firm or a joint audit team. As such, the study further categorizes auditor type into three classes; Single Big4, Single Non-big4 and joint audit team of Big4/Non-big4 audit firms looking at the audit firm structure in Nigeria. The single audit firm category refers to the engagement of one distinct audit firm either a Big4 or a Non-big 4 firm, while the joint audit refers to the engagement of two audit firms of Big4/Non-big4 audit firm. However, it should be noted that joint audit generally refers to the engagement of either a Big4/Big4 or Big4/Non-big4 audit firms.

In the accounting literature, a significant issue frequently raised is whether opinion of auditors from large firms differs to a large extent from those of auditors engaged by other firms. Extant literature attempted to find the relationship between auditor type (categorized using the Big *x* / Non-Big *x* dichotomy) and audit independence with majority of the results of these researches concluding that big audit firms have more independence and higher quality in their audit work (De-Angelo 1981; Francis & Wilson, 1988; DeFond, 1993; Francis & Yu, 2009; Chen, Lin & Lin, 2008; Cheng, Liu, & Chien, 2009). The result of studies that evaluated the impact of joint audits on audit quality such as Ratzinger-Sakel, Lesage and Kettunen (2012) and Zerni, Haapamaki, Jarvinen and Neimi (2012) showed contradictory evidence, with the former indicating a negative significant relationship and the latter having a positive significant relationship.

Furthermore, other studies which examined the effect of auditor type categorized as single audit firms (big 4 or non-big 4) and joint audits (big 4 – big 4; or/and big 4 – non big 4) such as the studies of Deng, Lu, Simunic and Ye (2012); Alsadoun and Aljabir (2014); Guo, Koch and Zhu (2015) and Lobo, Pangam, Zhang and Casta (2016) on audit quality, cost of equity capital, conservatism, audit market structure and consumer surplus, respectively, obtained inconclusive findings. The above mentioned studies focused on investigating the impact of joint audit on financial reporting and audit quality, without looking at the investors' perception in the pricing of firms based on the auditor type. However, related studies on auditor type and value relevance of earnings and book values of Lee and Lee (2013) in Taiwan and that of Okolie (2014) in Nigeria considered auditor type using the Big4/Non-big4 dichotomy. This study uses a different approach considering the audit firm structure in Nigeria by classifying the auditor type as Single Big4; Single Non-big4; and joint audit team of Big4/Non-big4. The study also assesses the differential effects of these audit firm categories in addition to their effect on reported earnings and book values of equity. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has used these two approaches.

Nigeria's economy is considered as the largest in Africa, and companies listed on the stock exchange can access long-term capital from a wide range of local and international investors. Listed firms on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) enjoy the benefits of trading domestically and globally, thereby, helping to distribute risk which gives initial investors the chance to realize some or all of their investments. Interest in the Nigerian stock market has grown as the investment culture in Nigeria has shifted to the capital market due to steps taken by the government to foster its development especially in the 20th century. As such, in order for the findings of the study to be generalized and for more robust and meaningful conclusions to be drawn, all listed firms actively trading on the floor of the stock exchange for the entire period of the study (2009 to 2015) were considered.

In light of the foregoing, a research of this nature can be considered relevant and justified, given the fact that the audit firm is the most significant factor attributed to the reliability of audited financial statements in making decisions by users. Therefore, this paper contributes to the literature on different audit firm structures and their effects on the value relevance of earnings and book values in Nigeria. In order to achieve this aim, the study assesses whether Nigerian investors distinguish between audited financial reports derived from Single Big4 audit; joint audit team of 'Big 4/non Big4'; or Single Non-Big4 audit firms, when examining such reports for decision making. That is, do users' agree a Big4 audit firm's - audit report is more value relevant than Single Non-Big4 or a joint team of Big4/Non-Big 4 audit firms by testing the following null hypotheses:

- H01a:** Reported earnings of Nigerian listed firms audited by a joint audit team of Big4/ Non-big4 is not significantly value relevant to Nigerian capital market investors.
- H01b:** Reported book-value of Nigerian listed firms audited by a joint audit team of Big4/Non-Big4 is not significantly value relevant to Nigerian capital market investors.
- H02a:** Reported earnings of Nigerian listed firms audited by a single Big4 firm is not significantly value relevant to Nigerian capital market investors
- H02b:** Reported book-value of Nigerian listed firms audited by a single Big4 firm is not significantly value relevant to Nigerian capital market investors
- H03a:** Reported earnings of Nigerian listed firms audited by a single non-Big4 firm is not significantly value relevant to Nigerian capital market investors
- H03b:** Reported book-value of Nigerian listed firms audited by a single non-Big4 firm is not significantly value relevant to Nigerian capital market investors
- H04a:** The value relevance of reported earnings for firms audited by a single Big4 firm is not significantly different from the value relevance of reported earnings for firms audited by a joint audit team of Big4/Non-Big4
- H04b:** The value relevance of reported book-value for firms audited by a single Big4 audit firm is not significantly different from the value relevance of reported book-value for firms audited by a joint audit team of Big4/Non-Big4
- H05a:** The value relevance of reported earnings for firms audited by a single Non-Big4 auditor is not significantly different from the value relevance of reported earnings for firms audited by a joint audit team of Big4 and Non-Big4
- H05b:** The value relevance of reported book-value for firms audited by a single Non-Big4 auditor is not significantly different from the value relevance of reported book-value for firms audited by a joint audit team of Big4 and Non-Big4
- H06a:** The value relevance of reported earnings for firms audited by a single Big4 is not significantly different from the value relevance of reported earnings for firms audited by a single Non-Big4
- H06b:** The value relevance of reported book-value for firms audited by a single Big4 audit firm is not significantly different from the value relevance of reported book-value for firms audited by a single Non-Big4

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 illustrates audit and accounting environment in Nigeria as well as discusses relevant prior studies. Section 3 describes the research methodology. Section 4 presents the empirical results of this study. Finally, Section 5 gives a brief summary of findings, and conclusion.

2. Literature Review and Conceptual Issues

External auditors are entrusted by law with conducting statutory audits by offering an opinion on whether the financial statements reflect a true and fair view of the company's state of affairs. The objectivity of auditors in the course of their duties therefore, is of paramount importance as it guarantees independence and compels trust and confidence in the users of the financial statements. Audit quality plays an important role in upholding an efficient market environment because it strengthens confidence in the credibility and integrity of financial statements which is essential for well-functioning markets (Farouk & Hassan, 2014) therefore, auditors are expected to be independent and objective at all times. Thus, the role of auditing is to improve the quality of financial statements as high quality reporting can reduce information asymmetry problems between the firm and providers of financing.

2.1 Regulatory Framework of Auditing Practice in Nigeria

A substantial proportion of practicing auditors in Nigeria are members of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN) and Association of National Accountants of Nigeria (ANAN). These professional bodies have rules guiding the conduct of members in practice. In the same vein, public limited companies in Nigeria are mandated by law to have their financial statements audited by an independent public accountant. Even though the responsibility for the preparation and presentation of financial statements of companies lie on the company directors, they have to be prepared in accordance with International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) and the provisions of Section 357 (1) of CAP C20 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria (LFN) 2004, and the Financial Reporting Council of Nigeria Act, No 6 (2011). This is to enable the preparation of the financial statements to be free from material misstatements. Similarly, the external auditor is responsible for auditing the financial statements of his clients in accordance with Generally Accepted Auditing Standards (GAAS) to offer reasonable assurance that the financial statements give a true and fair view of the companies' state of affairs (Olowookere & Inneh, 2016).

In Nigeria, the International Standards on Auditing (ISA) are mandatory for companies quoted on the Nigeria Stock Exchange (NSE) where Nigerian Auditing Standards do not exist. But due to the peculiarity of the Nigerian environment in July, 2006, nine (9) Nigerian Standards on Auditing (NSA) were issued. These claimed priority over the ISAs in the Nigerian context. The Nigerian Standards on Auditing (NSAs) are based on International Standards on Auditing (ISAs) of the International Auditing and Assurance Standards Board, published by the International Federation of Accountants (IFAC) in July 2012 and is used with permission of IFAC. The Nigerian Standard on Auditing (NSA) deals with the independent auditor's overall responsibilities when conducting an audit of financial statements in accordance with NSAs. Specifically, it sets out the overall objectives of the independent auditor and explains the nature and scope of an audit designed to enable the independent auditor to meet those objectives. NSAs became effective for audits of financial statements for periods beginning on/or after April, 2013 (NSA, 2013:4).

According to Olowookere and Inneh (2016), Nigeria has two thousand (2,000) audit firms providing audit services to both listed and unlisted companies in the country. However, notwithstanding the availability of various audit suppliers, statistically, the audit market is dominated by four large audit firms; Akintola Williams Deloitte (AKWD); Ernst and Young (E & Y); Klynveld, Peat, Marwick and Goerdeler (KPMG); and PriceWaterhouse Coopers (PWC). The 'Big Four' international accounting firms audit more than 90 percent of listed companies in Nigeria, with the remaining 10 percent audited by 15 national firms with international affiliation. Globally, the market share gap between the Big Four (Deloitte, E & Y, KPMG and PWC) and other firms have become wider potentially reducing the possibility for the small firms to become significant service providers in capital markets worldwide.

2.2. Audit Firm Size

Theoretically De Angelo (1981) states that the relationship between audit quality and auditor's size has been analyzed with observations positing that large auditors will have more clients and their total fees will be allocated among those clients. Also, she argued that large auditors can contain the loss of a client and therefore, will provide higher quality of audit. According to Jeong and Rho (2004), large international accounting firms have established brand reputation and have motives to maintain it by providing high-quality audit, as lack of financial affiliation with clients makes bigger auditors more independent. This independence provides big auditors with stronger negotiation stance with their chart compared with smaller audit firms (Nelson, Elliott & Tarpley, 2002).

Similarly, Woodland and Reynolds (2003) suggest that perhaps the most commonly used indirect measure of audit quality is the audit firm size dichotomized as Big x versus Non-Big x dichotomy. Theoretical motivation for Big x / Non-Big x

dichotomy as an indirect measure of audit quality is strong, and empirical evidence on its performance generally supports its use (Simunic, 1980; DeAngelo, 1981; Francis & Wilson, 1988; O'Keefe et al. 1994; Moizer, 1997; Becker, Defond, Jiambalvo & Subramanyam 1998; Bauwhede et al., 2000; DeFond, Raghunandan, & Subramanyam, 2002, Krishnan & Schauer, 2000; Ebrahim 2001; Ferguson, Seow, & Young, 2003; Krishnan, 2003; Hussainey, 2009; Dang, Brown & McCullough, 2011; Lin & Tepalagul, 2012; Farouk & Hassan, 2014; Okolie & Izedonmi, 2014). Also, Colbert and Murray (1998) posit that one of the reasons why the evaluation of the relationship between auditor size using the Big x / Non-Big x dichotomy is important, is because users of audited financial statements can easily employ this observable dichotomy in their assessments of audit quality and the resulting financial statement credibility.

DeAngelo (1981) and Francis (2004) posit that accounting firm size is mostly used as a proxy for quality because no single client is important to a large auditor, and the auditor has a greater reputation to lose their clients if they misreport. However, an accounting firm with only one client may plausibly conclude that they have more to gain by going along with their client and misreporting than by being tough and potentially getting fired.

2.2.1 Joint Audit

Joint audit can be defined as an audit in which financial statements are audited by two independent auditors with any of the following characteristics which may differ across countries: shared audit effort; one single auditor's report signed by both auditors; and joint liability for both auditors (Ratzinger-Sakel, Audosset-Coulier, Kettunen, & Lesage, 2012). Generally, joint audit involves the appointment of a lead audit firm and a support audit firm by a client with the mandate to jointly carry out the audit of a given entity within a defined time period usually a year. A joint audit is an audit on a legal entity (the auditee) by two or more auditors to produce a single audit report, thereby sharing responsibility for the audit. A typical joint audit has audit planning performed jointly and fieldwork allocated to the auditors.

Joint audits contribute positively to audit quality, thereby giving credibility to financial statements because by appointing two different audit firms, the client firm allows audit firms to rotate, safeguarding auditor independence, but also retaining the remaining auditor's knowledge and understanding of the client's business operations, thereby avoiding the potential downside of auditor rotation of a discontinuity in competence. Additionally, the threat to auditor independence due to economic bonding is likely to be a less significant issue with the joint audit approach than it is with the single auditor approach, because, in joint audits, the audit fees and lucrative consulting fees are distributed between two different audit firms (i.e. there are lower fees at stake). Consequently, the two different audit firms may take a stronger stand against pressure from the managers and/or controlling owners and report their opinions on the clients' accounts more independently (Zerni, Haapamaki, Jarvinen, & Neimi, 2012).

Joint audits are not uncommon as since 1966, France has mandated joint audits of public companies. Similarly, joint audits are mandated for the financial services sector in South Africa. Various countries, such as India, Germany, Switzerland, and the U.K., have proposed voluntary joint audits. Several studies have analyzed the effect of joint audit regulations on audit quality. Francis et al. (2009) examine joint audit and its effects on audit quality in France, where joint audits are mandatory, and report evidence consistent with an agency-driven demand to employ higher quality auditor pairs. They also find that client firms employing higher quality auditor pairs have smaller abnormal income-increasing accruals than the firms that do not use Big 4 auditors (i.e. those that use two non-Big 4 auditors) and that this effect is strongest when client firms use two Big 4 auditors. In Nigeria, joint audit is voluntary.

2.3 Earnings, Book Values and Market Value

Market value is one of the most important factors which affect investors' investment decision. According to Sharma (2011), a market value is the price of a single unit of saleable shares of a company, which represents the balance struck between the buyers and sellers at a particular moment, viewed as the collective wisdom and knowledge of the market. Changes in prices of shares determine the return on investment on the shares. The market value is therefore, considered as one of the most important factors which affect investors' investment decisions. The market value is mainly determined by the forces of demand and supply of a particular security in the market, and can be obtained from the stock exchange market (Zahir & Khanna, 1982).

Suggestions from empirical studies reveal that Earnings per Share (EPS) is one of the strongest factors affecting the share price or market value (Sharma, 2011). The pioneers of the studies on determinants of share price were Collins (1957) and Gordon (1959). Both of them in their independent studies identified earnings as one of the factors influencing share prices.

Beaver (1998) postulates that current period earnings provide information to predict future periods' earnings. The future periods' earnings provide information to develop expectations about dividends in future periods. This in turn provides information to determine share value and hence the share price. In an ideal situation, the difference between the book and market values (share price) of equity is minimal (Barth, 1991), but in more pragmatic settings, there have always been cases where a considerable variance exists between the market and book value of a business.

Empirical studies have provided evidences of EPS and BVPS being significantly value relevant to users of accounting information, however, some of these studies indicate EPS being more value relevant than BVPS (e.g. El-Shamy & Kayed, 2005; Keener, 2011; Shamki & Abdulrahman, 2012;) while others indicate BVPS being more value relevant than EPS (e.g. Gee-Jung & Kwon, 2009; Qua & Zhang, 2012; Chandrapala, 2012; Aleksanyan & Karim, 2013). Thus, contemporary researches of value relevance are now focused on finding out which of these two variables (EPS or BVPS) is more value relevant to investors, with this study also seeking to provide an empirical evidence in this line particularly as it relates to auditor type of listed firms in Nigeria.

2.4 Auditor Type and Market Value

An influencing factor of the share price is mostly represented by the auditing of financial statements carried out by a Big 4 company, because investors appreciate the quality of the auditing service in terms of image, size and reputation of the auditing company (Martinez, Vico, & Benau 2004; Robu & Robu, 2015). The auditors of a company in the Big 4, considered a large company, are allowed to spend much time with training and getting to know the latest technologies that are used in the field, thus developing their professional competences. Also, due to the fact that a company in the Big 4 does not depend on a single client, it can resist the pressures of the client in terms of opinion freedom (Boone, Khurana & Raman, 2010). Thus, if a listed company aims to increase its share price, it can choose a famous auditing company known by investors.

Investigating the market reaction to auditor switching from big 4 to third-tier small accounting firms Chang, Cheng and Reichelt (2010) used two separate sample periods of regulatory changes (2002 to 2006). The result showed a relatively more positive stock market reaction to clients switching from a big 4 to a smaller third-tier auditor in period 2. When an audit quality is decreasing, this relatively more positive reaction in period 2 reflects companies seeking better services rather than a lower audit fee. In examining whether audit quality can increase the value relevance of fair value accounting, the study results of Kang-Tao and Ying-Li (2011) indicate that fair value accounting information has incremental value relevance and Big 4 auditing firms can improve the value relevance of fair value accounting information.

The joint audit study of Holm and Thinggaard (2011) and Ratzinger-Sakel et al. (2012) examine whether joint audit impacts audit quality of non-financial companies listed on the Copenhagen Stock Exchange (CSE) in the Danish setting. Their findings confirm that joint audits do not have an impact on audit quality, as measured by the level of abnormal accruals, in Denmark. However, the study of Zerni et al. (2012) on the impact of voluntary joint audit on audit quality of listed non-financial companies in the Swedish setting for the 2001- 2007 period, suggests that companies opting voluntarily for joint audits have a higher degree of earnings conservatism, lower abnormal accruals (proxy measures for audit quality), better credit ratings and lower risk forecasts of becoming insolvent within the next year than other firms (proxy measures for perceived audit quality).

The findings of Zerni et al. are consistent with the view that joint audits improve both audit quality and perceived audit quality. The authors acknowledge that opting for voluntary joint audit is not a random choice, as Swedish minority shareholder protection legislation stipulates that minority shareholders who have, in total, at least 10 per cent of a firm's shares have the right to require the appointment of a minority auditor. Hence the joint audit decision might be driven by minority shareholders who prefer a higher degree of conservatism in the firm's accounting decisions.

Assessing the value relevance of the audit report, auditor type and auditor tenure in Iran, Banimahd, Poorzamani and Ahmadi (2013) used multiple regression analysis approach (Ohlson model - 1995) and the results obtained indicate that audit report and audit quality is not valued by the capital market in Iran. However, auditor type (audit firm size) was found to be positively significant suggesting that firms audited by public audit organizations give a positive signal and lead to the market reaction in the Iranian capital market over those using private audit firms. Lee and Lee (2013) examined whether big 4 firms improve the value relevance of earnings and equity. Evidence from the Taiwan capital market reveal that the earnings and book value of equity audited by Big 4 auditors explain more variations in stock return than those audited by Non-big 4. Also, Ardiana (2014) investigates the effect of external audit characteristics on the value of company. Multiple

regression analysis was used to establish the relationship between audit tenure, firm size opinion, and firm value. The study finds that higher value of company is achieved by shorter audit tenure, brand name audit firms, and unqualified audit opinion.

Furthermore, the results of the study of Okolie (2014) on audit firm size and market price per share of quoted companies in Nigeria indicate that audit firm size exerts significant influence on the market price per share of quoted companies in Nigeria with the study providing evidence of a positive significant effect of big 4 firm on share price. Guo, Koch and Zhu (2015) studied on how introducing a joint audit requirement will affect audit market structure and social welfare in the UK market using the structural estimation approach model, and categorising audit firm size into small sized, medium sized and big 4 groups. Findings reveal that medium-sized audit firms and small audit firms gained market share at the expense of three of the big four audit firms. Interestingly, the largest audit firm was able to maintain its market share.

Analyzing the influence of audit report on the relevance of accounting information reported by listed Romanian companies, Robu and Robu (2015) used ANCOVA regression analysis, and the findings reveal that audited financial statements have a significant influence on the stock return, depending on the opinion in the audit report and on the auditor's Big 4 membership. Similarly, Robu and Robu (2016) analyzed whether the adoption of IFRS makes auditors' affiliation to the Big 4 and the audit opinion to be value relevant for investors of 59 companies listed on Bucharest Stock Exchange (BSE). The results achieved from the Ohlson and Feltham (1995) regression analysis indicate that information provided by the audit report, auditors' affiliation to the Big 4 and the audit opinion, are value relevant for investors and have a significant impact on the share price.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

The agency theory is the most prominent and widely used audit theory of the existing theories in auditing. Watts and Zimmerman (1986) suggest that the auditor is appointed in the interests of both the management and the third parties. However, since the focus of financial reporting has shifted from being carried out for monitoring purposes, to focus more on the needs and the provision of information to enable users to take economic decisions (Higson, 2003), an alternative or complement to the monitoring hypothesis is the *information hypothesis*. Consequently, the audit is valued by investors as a means of improving the quality of financial information (Wallace, 1980).

Investors require audited financial information in order to take and assess decisions regarding their investments' and expected returns and/or risks, respectively. Therefore, they value the audit as a means of improving the quality of financial information, and also as a means of improving the financial data used in internal decision making. Information hypothesis emphasizes that financial information is needed by investors to determine market values, which are a means of making rational investment decisions, even in the absence of an explicit contract with the agent (Wallace 1980). As such, if investors are aware of the information asymmetry and the fact that insiders can profit on value relevant information before public disclosure, they can alternatively adapt their trading behaviour, leave the market (Merton, 1987) or react to the information asymmetry and the risk of insider trading by gathering information themselves or obtaining information from intermediaries (Barth, Kasznik & McNichols, 2001). The information environment is closely related to the latter choice of action and refers to the richness of the information available concerning the firm. Specifically, for larger firms there is greater distribution of firm-specific information on the market from both accounting and non-accounting sources (Mitra & Cready, 2005).

3. Methodology

The study adopts a correlational research design, and secondary data was obtained from a population of one hundred and thirty eight (138) actively trading companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange that had readily available 2015 data. However, a total of twenty (20) firms with unavailable inputs in some years were filtered out, resulting in one hundred and seventeen (117) quoted companies to form the sample size of the study over a period of seven years from 2009 to 2015. Relevant data were extracted from audited annual reports and accounts of sampled firms and the share price data was extracted from www.cashcraft.com which is a financial data base in Nigeria owned and managed by Asset Management Limited a member of the Nigerian Stock Exchange. The study uses the Ohlson (1995) price model modified to include auditor type variables as well as control variables in order to test the hypotheses of the study. Following the model, market value is regressed on earnings, book values and auditor type to substantiate the relationship between accounting measures and market price.

A simultaneous Pooled OLS regression using the Seemingly Unrelated Estimates Regression (SUEST) approach was utilized in running the analysis. SUEST was used because apart from testing coefficients across different equations, it also takes into account the differences in the compositions of the partitioning variables.

3.1 Model Specification

The following equations present the regression models for this study which are estimated individually and then simultaneously at once, to facilitate the test of coefficients across equations.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} MVPS_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 EPS_{it} + \beta_2 BVPS_{it} + \lambda_1 COMSIZE_{it} + \lambda_2 COMGRWT_{it} + \epsilon_{it}, \quad \text{IF BIG4_NON_BIG4} \dots \dots \dots (1) \\ MVPS_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 EPS_{it} + \beta_2 BVPS_{it} + \lambda_1 COMSIZE_{it} + \lambda_2 COMGRWT_{it} + \epsilon_{it}, \quad \text{IF BIG4} \dots \dots \dots (2) \\ MVPS_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 EPS_{it} + \beta_2 BVPS_{it} + \lambda_1 COMSIZE_{it} + \lambda_2 COMGRWT_{it} + \epsilon_{it}, \quad \text{IF NON_BIG4} \dots \dots \dots (3) \end{array} \right.$$

Where:

$MVPS_{it}$ represents market value (share price) of company i at time t ;

EPS_{it} represents earnings per share of firm i at time t ;

$BVPS_{it}$ represents book value per share of firm i at time t ,

$COMSIZE_{it}$ represents company size of firm i at time t ,

$COMGRWT_{it}$ represents company growth of firm i at time t ,

i denotes a specific firm and t is the financial year

β_0 is the intercept

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \dots$ represent the coefficients of independent variables

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots$ represent the coefficients of control variables

ϵ is the random error term

Table 1: Study Variables and Measurement

S/N	Variables	Type	Measurement
1	Market Value per Share (MVPS)	Dependent	Share price at four months after the end of financial year
2	Earnings Per Share (EPS)	Independent	From Income Statement
3	Book Value Per Share (BVPS)	Independent	Equity divided by outstanding shares at the end of financial year.
4	Auditor Type (AUDIT_TYPE)	Independent	Nominal scale of 1, 2, 3, for joint audit (big4- Non_big4), Single big4, and Single non_big4 respectively
5	Company Size (COMSIZE)	Control	Natural Log of total assets at the end of financial year
6	Company Growth (COMGRTH)	Control	Market value per share to book value of equity at end of financial year

Source: *Researchers' Compilation*

4. Discussion of Results

The study used a balanced panel data of one hundred and seventeen listed firms on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) over a period of seven (7) years from 2009 to 2015 resulting in a total of 819 observations. The results obtained from the analysis of data are presented and discussed as follows:

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the study variables. Looking at the table, it can be observed that the average of market values per share (MVPS) for the entire firms under study stand at approximately 20.27 (Nigerian Naira). The minimum share price for all sampled firms is 50 kobo, the maximum is 1,040 Naira. This wide variation can be evident in the high standard deviation of about 69.25 which is outside the range of a normal distribution. Earnings per share (EPS) of the firms under study averaged at 1.14 Naira. This average factored in the losses incurred by some firms during the study period. This accounts for the lowest EPS figure of -24 Naira, indicating that some investors lost about 24 Naira of accounting earnings for every 20.27 Naira market value invested (if we are to go by the average of MVPS, ignoring initial market values). Nevertheless, some investors gained as high as 37.57 Naira for every 20.27 Naira invested during the period. That is approximately 85% earnings returns (if we are to ignore the capital appreciation). The standard deviation for EPS, though far lower than that of MVPS, is still out of normal range. Thus, this analysis should be viewed in light of this deviation's extent.

The book value per share (BVPS) yields an average of 7.93 Naira. Adding this to the average earnings of 1.14 Naira gives us 9.7 Naira worth of book assets for each share of 20.27 Naira. Ignoring the variation, one may be quick to perceive overpricing of these shares, considering the high market to book ratio. Looking at the dispersion indices however, it can be evident that while some firms have a negative net worth of as low as -30.71 Naira, other firms have a positive net worth of as high as 321.02 Naira for every 20.27 Naira market value of shares.

The variable AUDIT_TYPE is a factor variable on a nominal scale of 1 to 3. It's minimum and maximum is there to verify the correctness of the coding. No out of range code is evident there in. The control variables, firm size (COMSIZE) and firm growth (COMGRTH), respectively produced average of a natural logarithm of assets' book value of about 4.24 and a ratio of 5.497. While the statistics reveal a less noisy distribution of COMSIZE (with a standard deviation of 0.9), the COMGRTH statistics show a significant dispersion among the firms, in terms of growth, having a standard deviation of 78.9. This is further highlighted in the minimum and maximum figures. The figures show that some firms experienced very low (as low as a market-to-book ratio of -1176.194) growth opportunities as gauged by the market, while others experienced very high growth opportunities (as high as a market-to-book ratio of 1690.626), based on market's assessment.

The above statistics should be viewed in light of the distribution of the firms based on their respective audit types. Of the 819 firms' years observations, only 30 of these engaged the service of joint audit teams, the rest engaged single audit teams. Among the single audit classification, about 296 firms' years engaged the service of non big 4, while majority of the firms' years patronized big 4 audit teams. In all likelihood therefore, the above may hold more for firms using single audit firms and even better possibly for firms patronizing single big four audit firm.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

VARIABLES	MEAN	STANDARD DEV	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
MVPS	20.272	69.246	0.5	1040
EPS	1.143	3.725	-24	37.57
BVPS	7.934	18.370	-30.71	321.02
AUDIT TYPE	2.324	0.541	1	3
COMSIZE	4.237	0.900	2.069	9.357
COMGRTH	5.497	78.943	-1176.194	1690.626
	BIG4_NON_BIG4	BIG4	NON_BIG4	TOTAL

FREQUENCY	30	493	296	819
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Source: Author's computation using Stata-13 Software

It should be noted that, in view of the technique of hypotheses testing which the study has opted for, the perceived noisiness in most of the variables distributions, may not affect the validity of the findings. The study estimated three OLS regression results, simultaneously, with a robust standard error. This takes care of any possible inconsistency or biasness which may affect the error terms due to data noisiness. This result is presented and interpreted in the next subsection.

4.2 Hypotheses Test Results

This section presents the results of simultaneous regression results, as well as the equality of coefficient tests carried out by the study. Based on the study's objectives, the analysis was conducted with a view to ascertaining the extent to which auditor type affects the value relevance of earnings and book value, as well as whether, the effect varies significantly among audit type categories. Table 3 presents a summary of the simultaneous regression results using SUEST approach. Detailed results (direct outputs), including the initial non-simultaneous regression results, can be found in the appendix section. Following the table is a discussion of the results.

Table 3: Pooled OLS Regression (SUEST with Robust Standard Error) Results

MEAN COEFFICIENT (T-VALUE) SIG			
	BIG4	NON_BIG4	BIG4+NONBIG4
EPS	16.292 (5.33)***	0.859 (1.29)	-0.625 (-1.39)
BVPS	0.221 (1.50)	0.895 (2.22)**	1.074 (3.47)***
COMSIZE	-2.178 (-0.72)	3.050 (1.63)	-4.301 (-3.62)***
COMGROWTH	0.000 (0.05)	.055 (2.57)***	-0.340 (-0.26)
CONSTANT	9.624 (0.90)	-8.881 (-1.29)	26.401 (3.74)***

SOURCE: Author's computation using Stata-13 Software

(asterisks ***, ** and * represent 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance)

From table 3, the earnings response coefficient (EPS loading) for firms that were audited by a joint audit service of Big4 and non big4 auditors, is positive. The corresponding z-value however is not significant even at 10%. This means that for our sampled firms/years, joint audit service does not have a significant effect on the value relevance of earnings. With this, the hypothesis Ho1a is retained. For firms' years that employed the service of single Big4 auditors, the coefficient is positive and significant. It indicates that for every one unit increase in EPS of the firms audited by a single big4 auditor, MVPS increased by approximately 16.3% of a unit share's value. This is significant even at 1% level. This therefore led us to reject the null hypothesis Ho2a and uphold that big4 audit firms have a significant positive effect on the value relevance of earnings. Beta of EPS for non-big4 is negative. It means that investors perceive the reported earnings of firms under the watch of non-big4 in a bad light. However, this finding is not significant. We thus fail to reject the null hypothesis Ho3a.

Regarding the factor loadings of BVPS, while this is significant for all the three categories of auditing, the loading is not significant for firms using single big4 but significant for firms using either of non-big4 of joint audit of big4 and non big4. Based on these, we hence reject H01b and H03b and fail to reject H02b. The control variables, COMSIZE is negatively and significantly value relevant only for firms using a joint audit service. This is plausible, considering that smaller firms taking a serious approach to the auditing of its books, is indeed a sign of reliability. COMGRTH is positive and significant

only for non-big4 firms' years. The cogency here could be that high growth firms may not spare the extra penny in hiring big4 audit firms or even big4 plus non-big4 firms.

The following table depicts the result of equality of coefficient tests carried out after the SUEST estimates. This result is used in testing whether the effects of audit type on the value relevance of earnings and book value is significantly different among firms under the different categories of audit types (H04a&b, H05a&b and H06a&b). Following the table is a discussion on the table's content. Detailed results can be found in the appendix section.

Table 4: Equality of Coefficient Test Results

TEST PARAMETERS	EPS	BVPS
BIG4_NONBIG4 = BIG4	29.97***	6.16***
BIG4_NONBIG4 = NON-BI4	3.41*	0.12
BIG4 = NON-BIG4	24.32***	2.47

SOURCE: Author's computation using Stata-13 Software

(asterisks ***, ** and * represent 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance)

From table 4, the chi-2 statistics for the tests of whether the effect of big4 audit firms on the value relevance of EPS is significantly different from the effect of joint audit team (big4_non_big4) on the value relevance of EPS, is significant even at 1%. This shows that the two effects are significantly different. To fully discern which of the effect is greater than which, we refer back to the initial regression coefficients initially estimated (table 3). It shows that the earnings response coefficient of big4 audited firms is greater (bigger z-value) than that of the firms under joint audit. Thus, we conclude here that the EPS of firms audited by a Big4 audit firm is of significantly greater value relevance than that the EPS of firms audited by joint audit (big4 and non-big4). We therefore reject H04a.

H04b too is rejected since the reported chi-2 is significant. However, here, it is the coefficient of BVPS for firms under the joint audit that is significantly greater (see table 3). For firms under either of joint audit or non-big4, there seems not to be any significant difference in both EPS and BVPS, i.e. the market is indifferent as regards to the earnings and book value information supplied by firms audited by a joint audit or a single non-big4. Thus, the study fails to reject both H05a and H05b. The evidence as well favors rejecting H06a, in as much as the chi-2 result for testing the equality of EPS coefficients of big4 versus non-big4 is significant. Combining this result with the regression result will led to conclusion that in fact, the effect of big4 on the value relevance of earnings is significantly greater than the effect of non-big4. The same however cannot be said on the book value (insignificant chi-2 of 2.47). Here, though non-big4 has bigger effect on the value relevance of BVPS, the evidence is however not statistically significant. For this fact, the study retains H06b.

5. Conclusion

The study investigates the extent to which auditor type affects the value relevance of earnings and book value, using listed firms in Nigeria for a period seven years. Based on the study's findings, it was discovered that, while Nigerian investors perceive the earnings of firms audited by a single big4 to be of high quality, they seem indifferent as to whether it is audited by a joint audit or a single non-big4 auditor. This supports the free rider hypotheses. In a joint auditing, it is possible for one auditor to freely ride on the effort of the other without providing appropriate level of effort, by relying on the other auditor's work. The market therefore, may value a single auditor with established reputation to guard (like the big4) than a joint audit team, or another single auditor with not much to loose as a reputation. In addition, considering big4 as a symbol of quality, the findings implies that either Nigerian investors do not value firms' net worth as they value earnings and as such they are mostly investors with short term profit motive, or that they trust a joint audit team or a single small auditor to do a better job at scrutinizing firms reported net worth.

In view of the foregoing, we recommend that investors looking for more value relevant EPS should focus on firms audited by single big4, as firms audited by big4 are more likely to have greater value relevant earnings (with stronger positive connection to price). Our findings are in line with the findings of related studies of Deng, Lu and Simunic (2012); Lee and Lee (2013); Alsadoun and Aljabr (2014) and Okolie (2014). Lastly, this study is not without limitation. The study used a pooled OLS regression in estimating the relationship. Though with robust standard error, the technique failed to take account of the possibility of unobservable panel effects which may also contribute to the relationship. The study therefore

recommends further studies to take this into account. The validity of the technique is however unaffected by this limitation and hence the results and findings can be relied upon.

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APPENDICES

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

. summarize mvps eps bvps auditype comsize comgrth

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
mvps	819	20.27226	69.24603	.5	1040
eps	819	1.143407	3.724673	-24	37.57
bvps	819	7.934396	18.37026	-30.71	321.02
auditype	819	2.324786	.5412189	1	3
comsize	819	4.237008	.9007122	2.069143	9.357426
comgrth	819	5.496741	78.94258	-1176.194	1690.626

REGRESSION (SUEST) RESULTS

. regress mvps eps bvps comsize comgrth comgrth if auditype==1
 note: comgrth omitted because of collinearity

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	30
Model	1979.46128	4	494.86532	F(4, 25) =	9.70
Residual	1274.86035	25	50.9944142	Prob > F =	0.0001
				R-squared =	0.6083
				Adj R-squared =	0.5456
				Root MSE =	7.141
Total	3254.32163	29	112.217987		

mvps	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
eps	-.6246955	.8446104	-0.74	0.466	-2.364203	1.114812
bvps	1.073473	.2337171	4.59	0.000	.5921232	1.554822
comsize	-4.301125	1.410379	-3.05	0.005	-7.205854	-1.396396
comgrth	-.3404236	1.021889	-0.33	0.742	-2.445044	1.764196
comgrth	0	(omitted)				
_cons	26.40131	7.935308	3.33	0.003	10.05823	42.74438

. regress mvps eps bvps comsize comgrth comgrth if auditype==2
 note: comgrth omitted because of collinearity

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs =	493
Model	2391374.82	4	597843.706	F(4, 488) =	216.52
Residual	1347429.74	488	2761.12652	Prob > F =	0.0000
				R-squared =	0.6396
				Adj R-squared =	0.6367
				Root MSE =	52.546
Total	3738804.56	492	7599.19627		

mvps	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
eps	16.29299	.6227059	26.16	0.000	15.06948	17.51651
bvps	.2218633	.1152691	1.92	0.055	-.0046216	.4483483
comsize	-2.178716	2.782631	-0.78	0.434	-7.646133	3.288701
comgrth	.0004635	.0251986	0.02	0.985	-.0490477	.0499747
comgrth	0	(omitted)				
_cons	9.624123	12.34591	0.78	0.436	-14.63359	33.88183

```
. regress mvps eps bvps comsize comgrth comgrth if auditype==3
note: comgrth omitted because of collinearity
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 296		
Model	14033.213	4	3508.30326	F(4, 291) =	17.64	
Residual	57867.4865	291	198.857342	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.1952	
				Adj R-squared =	0.1841	
Total	71900.6995	295	243.731185	Root MSE =	14.102	

mvps	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
eps	.8593913	.2934608	2.93	0.004	.2818165	1.436966
bvps	.8945656	.1420964	6.30	0.000	.6148987	1.174233
comsize	3.050764	1.35989	2.24	0.026	.3742963	5.727232
comgrth	.0545202	.0240118	2.27	0.024	.0072615	.1017789
comgrth	0	(omitted)				
_cons	-8.881752	5.141609	-1.73	0.085	-19.00121	1.237703

```
. suest big4_non_big4 big4 non_big4
```

Simultaneous results for big4_non_big4, big4, non_big4

Number of obs = 819

	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
big4_non_big4_mean						
eps	-.6246955	.4481884	-1.39	0.163	-1.503129	.2537377
bvps	1.073473	.3097893	3.47	0.001	.4662967	1.680648
comsize	-4.301125	1.188166	-3.62	0.000	-6.629888	-1.972362
comgrth	-.3404236	1.324179	-0.26	0.797	-2.935767	2.254919
comgrth	0	(omitted)				
_cons	26.40131	7.065862	3.74	0.000	12.55247	40.25014
big4_non_big4_lnvar						
_cons	3.931716	.2469673	15.92	0.000	3.447669	4.415763
big4_mean						
eps	16.29299	3.057828	5.33	0.000	10.29976	22.28623
bvps	.2218633	.1476923	1.50	0.133	-.0676083	.511335
comsize	-2.178716	3.024636	-0.72	0.471	-8.106894	3.749462
comgrth	.0004635	.0093709	0.05	0.961	-.0179032	.0188302
comgrth	0	(omitted)				
_cons	9.624123	10.74014	0.90	0.370	-11.42616	30.67441
big4_lnvar						
_cons	7.923394	.32616	24.29	0.000	7.284132	8.562656
non_big4_mean						
eps	.8593913	.6677675	1.29	0.198	-.449409	2.168192
bvps	.8945656	.4021385	2.22	0.026	.1063886	1.682743
comsize	3.050764	1.869209	1.63	0.103	-.6128175	6.714345
comgrth	.0545202	.0211733	2.57	0.010	.0130213	.0960191
comgrth	0	(omitted)				
_cons	-8.881752	6.894606	-1.29	0.198	-22.39493	4.631427
non_big4_lnvar						
_cons	5.292588	.4843859	10.93	0.000	4.343209	6.241967

WALD COEFFICIENT TEST RESULTS

```
. test [big4_non_big4_mean]eps=[big4_mean]eps
( 1)  [big4_non_big4_mean]eps - [big4_mean]eps = 0
      chi2( 1) =    29.97
      Prob > chi2 =    0.0000

. test [big4_non_big4_mean]bvps=[big4_mean]bvps
( 1)  [big4_non_big4_mean]bvps - [big4_mean]bvps = 0
      chi2( 1) =    6.16
      Prob > chi2 =    0.0131

. test [non_big4_mean]eps=[big4_non_big4_mean]eps
( 1)  - [big4_non_big4_mean]eps + [non_big4_mean]eps = 0
      chi2( 1) =    3.41
      Prob > chi2 =    0.0650

. test [non_big4_mean]bvps=[big4_non_big4_mean]bvps
( 1)  - [big4_non_big4_mean]bvps + [non_big4_mean]bvps = 0
      chi2( 1) =    0.12
      Prob > chi2 =    0.7245
```

Understanding Global Citizenship Levels of Turkish Erasmus Students in Poland from Different Variables

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Abstract

Global citizenship has been a phenomenon at presence since Kant's Perpetual Peace (1795) though it is seemed nascent. The concept defined as "world citizen by Kant, has been widely used as "post national citizenship", "cosmopolitan citizenship" and "global citizenship" as a solution to the problems of the global age. Sociology, International Relations and Educational Sciences emphasizes different aspects of global citizenship while all of them champion the effect of study abroad experience on global citizenship. In other words, study abroad experience helps awareness of the global problems, produce solutions for these problems and finally take actions at the global level. Hence forth, Erasmus program which is one of the most extensive study abroad programs is considered to contribute to personal awareness process for responsibilities beyond his own society. From this point of view this study conducted through descriptive survey model aims to understand the effect of different variables on the global citizenship levels of Turkish Erasmus students in Poland. In line with this aim, 201 Turkish Erasmus students in Poland were conducted "global citizenship scale" developed by Morais & Ogden (2010). Findings suggest that Turkish Erasmus students have an intermediate level of global citizenship, and get the lowest level from global civic engagement sub dimension. Also it is understood that some variables have an impact on global citizenship.

Keywords: Global Citizenship, Turkish Erasmus Students, Poland

Introduction

If we need to define one phenomena for world history and international relations in recent era, it will be globalization. The shrinking of the world, appearance of supra national institutions like the EU and the extending borders of money and trade circulation are both causes and outcomes of this still working process. With the rise of globalization the global citizenship concept have started to be discussed. Global citizenship definition covers the awareness of one's role as a citizen of this wide world, respecting diversity, understanding how the world works, being reactionary against social injustice, being engaged in different communities ranging from local to global, being ready for any kind of action that aims to make world more equal and sustainable and feeling the responsibility of one's actions (Oxfam, 2006). Thought in this context, Erasmus program with its diversity, scope and aims can be considered as an effort to educate global citizens.

Turkey sees the EU as a way of adapting and integrating to globalization. EU membership policy has been one of the main pillars of Turkish Foreign Policy. Turkey's EU experience has a long history dating back to 1959. Since then Turkey has been aiming to be a full member of the EU. And there have been official accession negotiations since 2005. But Turkey's involvement in Erasmus program had started in 2004. After 2004 starting from big universities in Turkey, almost all universities began to benefit from this exchange program.

Increasing number of outgoing Turkish Erasmus students has opened the way for various studies focusing on different perspectives; the efficiency of the program for Turkey's integration to the EU, the outcomes of Erasmus experience of Turkish students, the comparison of Turkish students with the host country's students, etc. The majority of the studies have focused on those students who have just completed their Erasmus experience. Yagci et al. have, for example, carried out satisfaction survey (daily life, academic life, student affairs etc.) with Hacettepe University students who have Erasmus

experience. Şahin (2007) similarly has looked into the questions whether students have achieved their goals set before the Erasmus experience and what kind of changes have occurred after the experience. Bulut (2008) also has studied the efficiency of the Erasmus program in terms of Turkish students. Demir and Demir (2009) have focused on the contribution of the program to the students at Erciyes University Faculty of Education. They have highlighted the benefits of the program to students' personal development and problem solving skills. Sarı and Aktan (2010) and Onder and Balci (2010) have also tried to uncover opinions of students about Erasmus program.

This study aims to understand Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship level. What makes this study different from previous studies is that the data collected through fieldwork and Morais and Ogden's global citizenship scale was carried out during Turkish students' Erasmus experience in Poland. The Turkish version of the scale was already used by doing validity and reliability tests by Şahin and Çermik (2011). Looking through the literature, it will be the first study carried out with Turkish Erasmus students during their experience.

To uncover what kind of variables have an impact on Turkish Erasmus students' level of global citizenship, these hypotheses will be tested:

H1: There is a positive correlation between being a membership of a NGO, being interested in politics and global citizenship level.

H2: Those proving Turkey's membership to the EU have a higher level of global citizenship.

H3: Gender makes a difference in global citizenship level.

H4: The more family income a student have, the better s/he has a global citizenship level.

Method

Research Model

In this study survey model, one of the quantitative research methods is used to understand global citizenship levels of Turkish Erasmus students in Poland in terms of various variables. Survey model is a quantitative research method that helps to reveal the opinion, behavior or attitude of a sample about an issue or situation (Creswell,2012)

Study Group

The study group is composed of 201 Turkish Erasmus students in Poland at University of Warsaw in Warsaw (the biggest and the capital city of Poland), Tischner European University in Krakow (the second biggest city of Poland) and University of Information Technology and Management in Rzeszow. Some demographic information of the study group is given the tables below

Table 1. Gender distribution of the study group

Participants	Gender					
	Female		Male		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Turkish Erasmus Students	70	34,8	131	65,2	201	100

34,8 % of 201 participants of Turkish Erasmus students is female and 65,2 % of that is male.

Table 2. Age distribution of the study group.

Participants	Age							
	18-19		20-22		23 and over		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Turkish Erasmus Students	14	7	111	55,2	76	37,8	201	100

The biggest majority of the participants (55,2 %) belongs to 20-22 ages while the lowest participation belongs to 18-19 ages (7,8 %).

Table 3. Distribution of the study group by mother's education level

Mother's Education Level	Turkish Erasmus Students	
	f	%
Illiterate	8	4
Only literate	10	5
Primary School Graduate	48	23,9
Secondary School Graduate	24	11,9
High School Graduate	69	34,3
University graduate and above	42	20,9
Total	201	100

There are 8 students whose mother is illiterate and majority of students' mother is high school graduate (34,3 %).

Table 4. Distribution of the study group by father's education level

Father's Education Level	Turkish Erasmus Students	
	f	%
Illiterate	-	-
Only literate	4	2
Primary School Graduate	43	21,4
Secondary School Graduate	23	11,4
High School Graduate	62	30,8
University graduate and above	69	34,3
Total	201	100

There is no student whose father is illiterate and majority of students' father is university graduate (34,3 %). When Table 3. and Table 4. taken into consideration, it can be seen that more than half of the students' parents are not university graduate. This finding emphasizes the importance of Erasmus for Turkish students.

Table 5. Distribution of the study group by monthly family income

Income Level	Turkish Erasmus Students	
	f	%

1001-2000 TL	44	21,9
2001-3000 TL	55	27,4
3001-4000 TL	45	22,4
4001 + TL	57	28,4
Total	201	100

There is a homogeneity distribution in income level for Turkish Erasmus students: 21,9 % of the study group has 1001-2000 TL monthly income; 27,4 % has 2001-3000 TL monthly income; 22,4 % has 3001-4000 TL monthly income and 28,4 % has 4001 + TL monthly income.

Table 6. Distribution of the study group by being a member of a nongovernmental organization

Being a Member of a Nongovernmental Organization	Yes		No		Total	
	f	%	f	%	F	%
Turkish Erasmus Students	41	20,4	160	79,6	201	100

The number of Turkish Erasmus students who are a member of a NGO is only 41 (20,4 %).

Table 7. Distribution of the study group by the level of interest in politics

The level of interest in politics	Turkish Erasmus Students	
	f	%
None	22	10,9
Little	42	20,9
Some	79	39,3
Much	58	28,9
Total	201	100

The majority of Turkish Erasmus students feel interested in politics ("some" = 79 and "much" = 58) while 10,9 % of them has no interest in politics.

Table 8. Distribution of the study group by proving Turkey's EU membership.

The attitude towards Turkey's EU membership	Yes		No		No Idea		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Turkish Erasmus Students	127	63,2	52	25,9	22	10,9	201	100

The rate of those students who supports Turkey's EU membership is 63,2 % while that of who doesn't support Turkey's EU membership is 25,9 % and 10,9 % of the students has no idea about the process.

Data Collection Tool

A personal information form consisting variables considered to be influential on global citizenship level, and Global Citizenship Scale developed by Morais and Ogden (2010) were used to understand Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship level. The Turkish version of the Global Citizenship Scale was adapted by Akin, A., Sarıçam, H., Akin, Ü., Yıldız, B., Demir, T., and Kaya, M. (2014). The Global Citizenship Scale has three subdimensions : Social responsibility, Global competence and Global civic engagement. The coefficients of internal consistency reliability of the scale are as follows for the subdimensions: .60 for global responsibility, .69 for global competence and .86 for global civic engagement. It can be said that these results proves the scale to be reliable.

Data Analysis

Data obtained from the study was analyzed via SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program. The answers to the 5 point likert scale have been interpreted as seen in the table below.

Table 9. Score intervals used to interpret the averages.

Score Intervals	Grading	Interpretation
1,00 – 1,80	Strongly Disagree	Very inadequate
1,81 – 2,60	Disagree	Inadequate
2,61 – 3,40	Neutral	Average
3,41 – 4,20	Agree	Satisfactory
4,21 -5,00	Strongly Agree	Very Satisfactory

Findings And Comments

Table 10. Global citizenship levels of Turkish Erasmus students.

Global Citizenship Scale Subdimensions	Turkish Erasmus Students		
	N	\bar{X}	S
Social Responsibility	201	3,72	,695
Global Competence	201	3,50	,502
Global Civic Engagement	201	3,10	,606
TOTAL	201	3,34	,398

It is seen from Table 10. that Turkish Erasmus students have an average (3,34) global citizenship score from the overall of the scale. Also, Turkish Erasmus students' social responsibility score is average (3,72) and it is higher than their global competence score (3,50). This finding suggests that Turkish Erasmus students have enough faith in taking responsibility but they don't see themselves competent enough to go into action. What is also important to note that the lowest score of Turkish Erasmus students belongs to global civic engagement dimension (3,10), which implies that they don't have strong belief in actions requiring engagements to solve global problems.

Table 11. t-test results of Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship levels by gender variable

Global Citizenship and Subdimensions	Gender	N	\bar{X}	S	sd	t	p
Social Responsibility	Female	70	23.55	3.88	199	3,117	,002
	Male	131	21.67	4.18			

Global Competence	Female	70	30.48	4.18	199	-2,451	,015
	Male	131	32.10	4.61			
Global Civic Engagement	Female	70	46.41	8.10	199	-,123	,902
	Male	131	46.58	9.60			
Global Citizenship	Female	70	100.45	11.47	199	,055	,956
	Male	131	100.35	12.26			

Table 11. shows that female Turkish Erasmus students feel more social responsibility while male Turkish Erasmus students feel more globally competent. As for global citizenship overall score and global civic engagement dimension, not any significant difference has been found.

Table 12. One way variant analysis of Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship scores in terms of income level

Subdimensions	Variance Source	KT	sd	KO	F	p	Difference Scheffe
Social Responsibility	Between groups	116.5449	4	38.848	2.272	0.081	-
	Within groups	3367.783	197	17.095			
	Total	3484.328	201				
Global Competence	Between groups	20.454	4	6.818	0.329	0.803	-
	Within groups	4071.436	197	20.667			
	Total	4091.890	201				
Global Civic Engagement	Between groups	354.526	4	118.175	1.438	0.232	-
	Within groups	16181.622	197	82.140			
	Total	16536.149	201				
Global Citizenship	Between groups	573.986	4	191.328	1.343	0.261	-
	Within groups	28057.963	197	142.42			
	Total	28631.950	201				

No significance has been found between income level of Turkish Erasmus student and their global citizenship overall scores and other subdimensions scores (Table 12.). This means that income level has no influence on students' global citizenship levels.

Table 13. t test results of the impact of university education on students' global citizenship level.

Global Citizenship and Subdimensions	The impact of university education	N	\bar{X}	S	sd	t	p
Social Responsibility	Yes	145	22,37	4,27	199	,278	,781
	No	56	22,19	3,93			
Global Competence	Yes	145	32,05	4,34	199	2,734	,007
	No	56	30,16	4,70			

Global Civic Engagement	Yes	145	47,79	8,70	199	3,264	,001
	No	56	43,23	9,33			
Global Citizenship	Yes	145	102,24	12,04	199	3,644	,000
	No	56	95,58	10,40			

As seen in Table 14. except from social responsibility dimension, there is a significance between student's education experience in Poland and their global citizenship levels. In other words, it can be emphasized that the Erasmus education they get in Poland have a positive impact on Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship levels. It should also be highlighted that the big majority (145 out of 201) believes that the education they get in Poland have an impact on their global citizenship.

Table 14. t test results of the impact of being a member of a NGO on students' global citizenship level

Global Citizenship and Subdimensions	NGO Membership	N	\bar{X}	S	sd	t	p
Social Responsibility	Yes	41	22,78	3,95	199	,777	,438
	No	60	22,21	4,23			
Global Competence	Yes	41	32,39	5,68	199	1,348	,179
	No	60	31,32	4,16			
Global Civic Engagement	Yes	41	48,87	10,11	199	1,871	,063
	No	60	45,91	8,74			
Global Citizenship	Yes	41	104,04	11,86	199	2,214	,028
	No	60	99,45	11,84			

Table 14. shows that there is no significance between subdimensions of global citizenship and Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship levels. However it is also seen that those students who are a member of a NGO have higher overall global citizenship score that those who aren't

Table 15. One way variant analysis of Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship scores in terms of interest in politics.

Subdimensions	Variance Source	KT	sd	KO	F	p	Difference Scheffe
Social Responsibility	Between groups	50.580	3	16.860	0.967	0.409	
	Within groups	3433.747	197	17.430			-
	Total	3484.328	200				
Global Competence	Between groups	185.706	3	61.902	3.121	0.02	
	Within groups	3906.183	197	19.828			Much-None
	Total	4091.890	200				
Global Civic Engagement	Between groups	390.352	3	130.117	1.587	0.193	
	Within groups	16145.796	197	81.958			--
	Total	16536.149	200				
Global Citizenship	Between groups	1329.896	3	443.298	3.198	0.02	Much-None
	Within groups	27302.053	197	138.589			
	Total	28631.950	200				

It has been found that there is a significance between overall global citizenship and global civic engagement scores and students' interest in politics (Table 15). In other words, those students who are interested in politics tend to have a better sense of global citizenship and feel more globally competent.

Table 16. One way variant analysis of Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship scores in terms of proving Turkey's EU membership.

Global Citizenship Subdimensions	Variance Source	KT	sd	KO	F	p	Difference Scheffe
Social Responsibility	Between groups	113.468	3	56.734	3.332	0.03	1-2
	Within groups	3370.859	198	17.024			
	Total	3484.328	201				
Global Competence	Between groups	101.234	3	50.617	2.511	0.08	--
	Within groups	3990.655	198	20.154			
	Total	4091.890	201				
Global Civic Engagement	Between groups	115.154	3	57.577	0.694	0.50	--
	Within groups	16420.994	198	82.934			
	Total	16536.149	201				
Global Citizenship	Between groups	432.508	3	216.254	1.518	0.22	--
	Within groups	28199.441	198	142.421			
	Total	28631.950	201				

Table 16. gives us that significance is only seen between social responsibility dimension and those students who prove the Turkey's EU membership. In other words students who wish Turkey to be a member country feel more socially responsible than those who don't.

Results, Discussion And Recommendations

In this study these hypotheses have been tested;

H1: There is a positive correlation between being a membership of a NGO, being interested in politics and global citizenship level.

H2: Those proving Turkey's membership to the EU have a higher level of global citizenship.

H3: Gender makes a difference in global citizenship level.

H4: The more family income a student has, the better s/he has a global citizenship level

H1: There is a positive correlation between being a membership of a NGO, being interested in politics and global citizenship level: True

It has been found in Table 15. that there is a significance between overall global citizenship and global civic engagement scores and students' interest in politics In other words, those students who are interested in politics tend to have a better sense of global citizenship and feel more globally competent. Have an interest in politics can be said to be one of the perquisites of global citizenship. In other words, someone who is interested in politics to some degree will also be aware of global problems.

As for being a member of NGO, Table 14. shows that there is no significance between subdimensions of global citizenship and Turkish Erasmus students' global citizenship levels. However it is also seen that those students who are a member of a NGO have higher overall global citizenship score that those who aren't. There many NGOs that have different functions and scope ranging from local districts to global. The type of NGOs that Turkish young people tend to be a member and those who don't tend to be a member may be analyzed in further studies. This way it will be better to understand Turkish young peoples' attitude towards NGOs.

H2: Those proving Turkey's membership to the EU have a higher level of global citizenship: Partially True.

Table 16. gives us that significance is only seen between social responsibility dimension and those students who prove the Turkey's EU membership. In other words students who wish Turkey to be a member country feel more socially responsible than those who don't. Normally, it is expected that there would be a strong correlation between those who proves Turkey's membership and global citizenship levels. But correlation only exists in social responsibility dimension. Other dimensions (global competence and global civic engagement) and overall global citizenship score have no correlation with wish to Turkey's membership.

On the other hand, the rate of Turkish Erasmus students who proves Turkey's membership (127 out of 201 , 63,2%) is higher than Turkish public opinion (in 2010 42% , in 2012 36% , in 2013 38%) (EU Commission Standard Eurobarometer 74,2010, EU Commission Standard Eurobarometer 79, 2013). Here it can be explained that the Turkish Erasmus students have known "the other", tried to understand Europe and embrace European values to some extent. Indeed, many Europeans see the EU as "free circulation", "education and work freedom" while it is considered by many Turks as "economic welfare", social protection", "influence in the world" (EU Commission Standard Eurobarometer EB 81 2014). At this point, it is worth studying in detail exactly which rights, freedoms or privileges influenced Turkish Erasmus students.

H3: Gender makes a difference in global citizenship level: Partially True

Table 11. shows that female Turkish Erasmus students feel more social responsibility while male Turkish Erasmus students feel more globally competent. As for global citizenship overall score and global civic engagement dimension, not any significant difference has been found. These findings tell us that though gender seems to make some difference in global competence and social responsibility dimensions, there is not a big difference that make us think that gender is an important variable for global citizenship level.

H4: The more family income a student has, the better s/he has a global citizenship level: False

No significance has been found between income level of Turkish Erasmus student and their global citizenship overall scores and other subdimensions scores (Table 12.). This means that income level has no influence on students' global citizenship levels. To put in a different way, the income level which is one of the most important determinant of socio cultural level has no direct correlation with global citizenship. The wide scope of globalism is felt by almost every income groups. At least this is valid for our study group, Turkish Erasmus students To elaborate this finding, those students who are studying in private universities outside Turkey should be targeted in terms of global citizenship. This will help to understand those students who are in the top of income level and compare them to the others.

Acknowledgements

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Explaining Global Citizenship Levels of Polish University Students from Different Variables

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Abstract

At the age of a new kind of everything (a new kind of communication, a new kind of education, a new kind of social problems etc.) citizenship also takes a new kind form: global citizenship. Global concept has been conducted on almost every area including citizenship. Therefore, citizenship has been understood from a global perspective to overcome new global scale problems. EU is a good example of changing citizenship understanding differing from the national base. Poland is a good target country taken its membership since 2004. 12 years duration means that new generation has been raised in the atmosphere of a supra national environment. At this point, what kinds of variables have what kinds of impact on the global citizenship level of this generation is worth being studied. This study has aimed to understand this question using a personal information form in addition to a "global citizenship" scale developed by Morais & Oden (2010). The study conducted through survey model included 353 Polish university students. It is understood from the results of the study that Polish students have an intermediate level of global citizenship and low level of global civic engagement. It is also one of the findings that some variables have impact on global citizenship levels. In this respect, the study will contribute to the understanding of the global citizenship levels of EU member students. This document gives formatting instructions for authors preparing papers for publication.

Keywords: Global Citizenship, Polish University Students, EU, Poland

Introduction

In 2000s, the global effect and impact of problems has been felt in a sudden and dramatic way. The 9/11 attacks, and therefore 2003 US military intervention in Iraq, the process called as Arab Spring, the migration flow as a result of Syrian civil war, global ISIS terror attacks may be the primarily global concerns at glance. Environmental (e.g. climate change) and economic problems (e.g. 2008 crisis) may also be added to these global concerns. The widening scope of problems leads to the widening scope of solutions as a matter of course. Indeed, the citizenship definition which is based on a national base is being defined at a global scale so as to solve global problems.

The citizenship definition that goes beyond the nation base has been distinctively and practically reified in The European Union. The Union has entitled its member citizens a European Union citizenship right in addition to their national ones and provided individuals with rights that make it possible to address and apply for EU institutions directly. In this context, the significance of The EU not only comes from its economic and political togetherness also comes from the closest point it gives for the transnational content of the citizenship concept.

Given the relationship of The EU with citizenship, Poland which has been the member of The Union since 2004 gives us a dependable sample with its young generation who has been raised during the membership. The aim of the study, at this point, is to evaluate the variables that are thought to be influential on global citizenship. To this end, a global citizenship scale was carried out with Polish university students and the correlation between variables on the personal information form and global citizenship levels was tried to be uncovered.

In this study these hypotheses will be tested;

H1: There is a positive correlation between being a membership of a NGO, being interested in politics and global citizenship level.

H2: Those proving the membership of Turkey have a higher level of global citizenship.

H3: Gender makes a difference in global citizenship level.

H4: The more family income a student have, the better s/he has a global citizenship level.

Method

Research Model

In this study, one of the quantitative research methods, survey model is employed to evaluate global citizenship levels of Polish university students in terms of various variables. Survey model is a quantitative research method which helps to reveal the opinion, behavior or attitude of a sample about an issue or situation (Creswell, 2012).

Study Group

The study group is composed of 353 Polish university students who are studying at University of Warsaw in Warsaw (the biggest and the capital city of Poland), Tischner European University in Krakow (the second biggest city of Poland) and University of Information Technology and Management in Rzeszow. Some demographic information of the study group is given in the tables below.

Table 1. Gender distribution of the study group

Participants	Gender					
	Female		Male		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Polish University Students	162	45,9	191	54,1	353	100

45,9 % of 353 participants of Polish university students is female and 54,1% of that is male.

Table 2. Age distribution of the study group.

Participants	Age							
	18-19		20-22		23 and over		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Polish University Students	145	41,1	162	45,9	46	13	353	100

20-22 ages group consists of the highest share with 45,9 % while the lowest share belongs to 23 and over ages group.

Table 3. Distribution of the study group by mother's education level

Mother's Education Level	Polish University Students	
	f	%
Illiterate	-	-
Only literate	2	0,6
Primary School Graduate	4	1,1
Secondary School Graduate	4	1,1
High School Graduate	117	33,1
University graduate and above	226	64
Total	353	100

There is no participant whose mother is illiterate and mothers of 64% has a university and above level of education.

Table 4. Distribution of the study group by father's education level

Father's Education Level	Polish University Students	
	f	%
Illiterate	1	0,3
Only literate	2	0,6
Primary School Graduate	6	1,7
Secondary School Graduate	7	2
High School Graduate	152	43,1
University graduate and above	185	52,4
Total	353	100

Only one participant's father is illiterate among the study group. Those Polish students whose father has a primary school education level is 1,7 % while those whose father has a university and above education level is 52,4% .

Table 5. Distribution of the study group by monthly family income

Income Level	Polish University Students	
	f	%
500- 1500 Euro	242	68,6
1501-2000 Euro	62	17,6
2001-3000 Euro	31	8,8
3000 + Euro	18	5,1
Total	353	100

The highest income level (3000+ Euro) consists 5,1% of the study group while the lowest level consists 68,6 % of the study group.

Table 6. Distribution of the study group by being a member of a nongovernmental organization

Being a Member of a Nongovernmental Organization	Yes		No		Total	
	f	%	f	%	F	%
Polish University Students	61	17,3	292	82,7	353	100

The rate of those Polish university students who are a member of a nongovernmental organization is 17,3% .

Table 7. Distribution of the study group by the level of interest in politics

The level of interest in politics	Polish University Students	
	f	%
None	45	12,7
Little	110	31,2
Some	153	43,3
Much	45	12,7
Total	353	100

The rate of Polish university students who feel much interested in politics is 12,7% while that of Polish university students who don't feel interested in politics is 12,7. And the highest rate belongs to those who feel some interested in politics.

Table 8. Distribution of the study group by proving Turkey's EU membership.

The attitude towards Turkey's EU membership	Yes		No		No Idea		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%

Polish University Students	123	34,8	87	24,6	143	40,5	353	100
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The rate of Polish university students who prove the Turkey's membership to EU is 34,8% (123). On the other hand, those who don't approve Turkey's membership has 24,6% share. And, 40,5% of the study group has no idea about the Turkey's EU membership process.

Data Collection Tool

In this study, a personal information form that is made of variables thought to be influential on participants' global citizenship level and "Global Citizenship Scale". developed by Morais and Ogden (2010) have been employed to determine global citizenship levels of Polish university students. The Global Citizenship Scale has three subdimensions : Social responsibility, Global competence and Global civic engagement. The coefficients of internal consistency reliability of the scale are as follows for the subdimensions: .60 for global responsibility, .69 for global competence and .86 for global civic engagement. The Global Citizenship Scale was translated into Polish and then explanatory factor analysis was carried out for the construct validity. The scale was proved to be reliable according to the results.

Data Analysis

Data obtained from the study was analyzed via SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program. The answers to the 5 point likert scale have been interpreted as seen in the table below.

Table 9. Score intervals used to interpret the averages.

Score Intervals	Grading	Interpretation
1,00 – 1,80	Strongly Disagree	Very inadequate
1,81 – 2,60	Disagree	Inadequate
2,61 – 3,40	Neutral	Average
3,41 – 4,20	Agree	Satisfactory
4,21 -5,00	Strongly Agree	Very Satisfactory

Findings and Comments

Table 10. reveals the fact that Polish university students' total score from the scale equals to "average" (2,95). It is also recorded that Polish students has "average" (3,59) level of social responsibility while they have lower score of global competence (3,29). This finding suggests that Polish students have enough faith to take social responsibility but they don't have enough global competence to fulfill these responsibilities. The lowest score that Polish university students have is seen in global civic engagement dimension. (2,50 = inadequate). This finding highlights that Polish university students don't feel confident enough to take action for solving the global problems.

Table 10. Global citizenship levels of Polish university students.

Global Citizenship Scale Subdimensions	Polish University Students		
	N	\bar{X}	S
Social Responsibility	353	3,59	,690
Global Competence	353	3,29	,575
Global Civic Engagement	353	2,50	,754
TOTAL	353	2,95	,484

As seen in Table 11. female students have higher scores in subdimensions of social responsibility and global civic engagement. Also female students have a higher total global citizenship score compare to male ones. As a result of these findings it is clear that female Polish university students have a better sense of global citizenship than male ones. They also have more social responsibility conscious and show more global civic engagement compared to male ones.

Table 11. t-test results of Polish university students' global citizenship levels by gender variable

Global Citizenship and Subdimensions	Gender	N	\bar{X}	S	sd	t	p
	Female	162	22.31	4.29			
	Male	191	20.96	3.91			
	Female	162	29.96	4.93			
	Male	191	29.46	5.38			
	Female	162	38.92	11.19			
	Male	191	36.29	11.30			
	Female	162	91.20	14.10			
	Male	191	86.72	14.61			

What is striking to find is that income level makes no difference in university students' global citizenship level. Table 12. shows in detail that neither subdimensions nor global citizenship total score has any correlation with income levels.

Table 12. One way variant analysis of Polish university students' global citizenship scores in terms of income level

Subdimensions	Variance Source	KT	sd	KO	F	p	Difference Scheffe
	Between groups	18.4612	3	6.153			
	Within groups	6017.153	349	17.241			
	Total	6035.614	352				
	Between groups	34.634	3	11.544			
	Within groups	9414.708	349	26.976			
	Total	9449.342	352				
	Between groups	62.190	3	20.730			
	Within groups	45016.052	349	128.985			
	Total	45078.243	352				
	Between groups	51.970	3	17.323			
	Within groups	74330.233	349	212.980			
	Total	74382.203	352				

A significant difference has been found between the university education the students' global citizenship scores except social responsibility subdimension (Table 13.). In other words those who believe the university education makes them feel more global citizen including global competence and global civic engagement.

Table 13. t test results of the impact of university education on students' global citizenship level.

Global Citizenship and Subdimensions	The impact of university education	N	\bar{X}	S	sd	t	p
	Yes	207	21,60	4,21			
	No	146	21,56	4,04			
	Yes	207	30,70	4,94			
	No	146	28,26	5,18			
	Yes	207	39,24	11,21			
	No	146	35,03	11,02			
	Yes	207	91,55	14,27			
	No	146	84,85	14,04			

Table 14. gives interesting implications about the relationship between being a member of a NGO and global citizenship. First of all, as seen in the table, big majority of Polish university students (292 out of 353) aren't a member of a NGO. Secondly, those students who are a member of a NGO have a better sense of global citizenship sense including global

civic engagement dimension while those who aren't a member of a NGO feel more socially responsible. Here it can be suggested that being a member of a NGO make students feel more global citizen but it also fails to make them feel more socially responsible.

Table 14. t test results of the impact of being a member of a NGO on students' global citizenship level

Global Citizenship and Subdimensions	NGO Membership	N	\bar{X}	S	sd	t	p
	Yes	61	19,75	4,45			
	No	292	21,96	3,97			
	Yes	61	30,37	5,62			
	No	29,54	5,08	4,16			
	Yes	61	43,22	10,87			
	No	292	36,30	11,05			
	Yes	61	93,36	14,64			
	No	292	87,82	14,35			

Table 15 gives us opinion about the correlation between being interested in politics and the level of global citizenship. According to the results seen in the table, there is a positive correlation between the interest in politics and global citizenship level. That being said, the more a students feel interested in politics, the better they feel global citizen. However, social responsibility dimension should be excluded from this correlation because not any significance has been found for social responsibility dimension.

Table 15. One way variant analysis of Polish university students' global citizenship scores in terms of interest in politics.

Subdimensions	Variance Source	KT	sd	KO	F	p	Difference Scheffe
	Between groups	18.567	4	6.189			
	Within groups	6017.047	349	17.240			
	Total	6035.614	353				
	Between groups	813.566	4	271.188			
	Within groups	8635.775	349	24.744			
	Total	9449.342	353				
	Between groups	2871.988	3	957.329			
	Within groups	42206.255	349	120.934			
	Total	45078.243	353				
	Between groups	6366.7261	4	2122.242			
	Within groups	68015.477	349	194.886			
	Total	74382.203	352				

The attitude towards to Turkey's EU membership has also been asked to the study group. Table 16 shows that those students who prove the membership of Turkey seems more global citizen including global competence and global civic engagement dimensions. In other words, except from social responsibility dimension, those proving the membership of Turkey have more global competence and global civic engagement, thus they have a better sense of global citizenship.

Table 16. One way variant analysis of Polish university students' global citizenship scores in terms of proving Turkey's EU membership.

Global Citizenship Subdimensions	Variance Source	KT	sd	KO	F	p	Difference Scheffe
	Between groups	192.608	3	96.304			
	Within groups	5843.005	350	16.694			
	Total	6035.614	353				
	Between groups	521.010	3	260.505			
	Within groups	8928.332	350	25.509			
	Total	9449.342	353				
	Between groups	2868.651	3	1434.325			
	Within groups	42209.592	350	120.598			
	Total	45078.243	353				
	Between groups	4843.337	3	2421.668			
	Within groups	69538.866	350	198.682			
	Total	74382.203	353				

Results, Discussion And Recommendations

In this study these hypotheses have been tested;

H1: There is a positive correlation between being a membership of a NGO, being interested in politics and global citizenship level.

H2: Those proving the membership of Turkey have a higher level of global citizenship.

H3: Gender makes a difference in global citizenship level.

H4: The more family income a student have, the better s/he has a global citizenship level.

*H1: There is a positive correlation between being a membership of a NGO, being interested in politics and global citizenship level. **True***

Table 15 gives us opinion about the correlation between being interested in politics and the level of global citizenship. According to the results seen in the table, there is a positive correlation between the interest in politics and global citizenship level. That being said, the more a students feel interested in politics, the better they feel global citizen. However, social responsibility dimension should be excluded from this correlation because not any significance has been found for social responsibility dimension.

Table 14. gives interesting implications about the relationship between being a member of a NGO and global citizenship. First of all, as seen in the table, big majority of Polish university students (292 out of 353) aren't a member of a NGO. Secondly, those students who are a member of a NGO have a better sense of global citizenship sense including global civic engagement dimension while those who aren't a member of a NGO feel more socially responsible. Here it can be suggested that being a member of a NGO make students feel more global citizen but it also fails to make them feel more socially responsible.

Firstly, it should be remembered that being interested in politics shows the awareness of contemporary issues in the world. Independent from ideological background, someone who is interested in politics is considered to know migration problem, conflicts, global and local inequalities are nowadays problems thanks to the speed of information flow and vanishing national-international distinction. At this point, those who are aware of the global concerns should be understood, in Kantian sense, to feel the violation of a Right in one place of the world (Kant, 2010). Taken from another perspective, those who are interested in politics are the closest group to think globally and act globally while those who aren't interested in politics tend to consider local issues. Also, NGO memberships are among the examples of what a citizen can do to be a global

citizen regardless of legal regulations (Dower, 2000). By being a member of a NGO that works for global purposes someone can take responsibility to solve global issues (Armstrong, 2006) and this person can be considered as a global citizen in both structural and moral terms (Dower, 2000).

The rate of Polish university students being a NGO is 17,3%. 2014 fieldwork research results supports this finding showing that only 20% of Polish young people have become a member in the last year (EU Commission Flash Eurobarometer 408, 2015). The weakness of civil society is also considered to be a negative impact on global citizenship level. Young people of 21st century should be directed to NGOs and the factors that hinder Polish young people from being a member of a NGO should be revealed.

H2: Those proving the membership of Turkey have a higher level of global citizenship. True

Table 16 shows that those students who prove the membership of Turkey seems more global citizen including global competence and global civic engagement dimensions. In other words, except from social responsibility dimension, those proving the membership of Turkey have more global competence and global civic engagement, thus they have a better sense of global citizenship. The number of students who proves Turkey's membership is 123 (34,8%) and this rate reflects approximately the EU average; in 2008 % 31, in 2010 % 30) EU Commission Standard Eurobarometer 74, 2010). What is more interesting is that 40,5% of Polish university students have no idea about Turkey's membership process. This result is supported by the view that Polish ruling elites have no policy agenda to bring Turkey's membership to the public debate (Szymanski, 2009, Balcer, 2010, Biegaj 2012). In fact 73% of Polish sees Turkey belong to Europe geographically while 61% of them sees Turkey belong to Europe historically in 2006 (EU Commission Eurobarometer 66, 2006). At this point it is worth to analyze what has changed since then.

Turkey that has been in accession negotiations since 2005 is about to lose Poland in which public opinion does not reflect any prejudice against Turkey's membership today. This study reveals that there is a 40,5% share who is waiting to be convinced or at least be informed about Turkey's EU membership process. If Turkey wishes to be a member of EU, it should effort more to inform and convince these Polish young people.

H3: Gender makes a difference in global citizenship level. True

Table 11. shows that female students have higher scores in subdimensions of social responsibility and global civic engagement. Also female students have a higher total global citizenship score compare to male ones. As a result of these findings it is clear that female Polish university students have a better sense of global citizenship than male ones. They also have more social responsibility conscious and show more global civic engagement compared to male ones. This gender difference should be studied in detail trying to understand why male Polish students have a weaker sense of global citizenship.

H4: The more family income a student have, the better s/he has a global citizenship level. False

One of the interesting result of the study is that income level makes no difference in university students' global citizenship level. Table 12. shows in detail that neither subdimensions nor global citizenship total score have any correlation with income levels. It can be said that it is not a prerequisite for being a global citizen to have a certain level of income. Everybody from all income levels have a potential be a global citizen. It won't be incorrect to claim that the globalism wind has touched at every citizen of all income groups.

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Teacher Candidates' Views Regarding Multicultural Education: A Case Study on Content Integration Dimension

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher candidates' perceptions regarding multicultural education in general, as well as to investigate whether content integration dimension is effective in terms of teaching multicultural education. Data for the study were collected from the semi-structured interviews performed with 10 teacher candidates. The participants were enrolled in the department of social sciences teaching of a faculty of education at a state university in Western Black Sea Region, Turkey. The results of the study revealed that teacher candidates' perceptions with regard to defining multicultural education, constructing the definition, promoting multicultural education, the place of multicultural education in teacher training programmes and the effect of content integration differ greatly based on their experiences and educational backgrounds.

Keywords: Multicultural Education, Content Integration, Teacher Candidates

1. Introduction

Multiculturalism and multicultural education are two important phenomena in schools all over the world and with the growing diversity, educators encounter some challenges that demand new approaches to teaching and learning in multicultural classes. In the modern sense, multiculturalism usually refers to the variety in the societies with regards to culture, language, religion, gender and so on. The concept was defined as "A philosophical position and movement that assumes that the gender, ethnic, racial, and cultural diversity of a pluralistic society should be reflected in all of the institutionalized structures of educational institutions, including the staff, the norms and values, the curriculum, and the student body." (Banks & Banks, 2009, p. 447). Multiculturalism also refers to the societies living in the same state but speaking different languages, believing in different religions and belonging to a variety of cultures and customs. Because of this, understanding and implementing multiculturalism is important not only the emphasis it puts on culture but also its contribution to both diverse societies and changing societies as a result of migration and other reasons. Within this process, multicultural education acts as a key concept in teaching the individuals to overcome social barriers caused by cultural diversities.

In the 21st century, as a result of such elements as migration, technology, increasing number of shared items in social media, easy and fast transportation, multicultural education is better understood and the implementations at schools have rapidly increased. Furthermore, multicultural education has become a crucial element of school environment when the researchers started to investigate the schools in terms of educational inequalities along with the effect of external factors.

The term multicultural education is defined as "A reform movement designed to change the total educational environment so that students from diverse racial and ethnic groups, students of both genders, exceptional students, and students from each social-class group will experience equal educational opportunities in schools, colleges, and universities." (Banks & Banks, 2009, p. 446)". The effects of this reform have become an important aspect of teacher training programs, because today the differences among the students with regards to the race, ethnicity, culture and language are more than ever before (Milner, Flowers, Moore, Moore, & Flowers, 2003). For this reason, multicultural education aims at graduating teacher candidates cognizant of the differences in daily practices and skillful regarding the diversities (Barry & Lechner, 1995; Walker, Shafer, & Iiams, 2004). This aim can only be accomplished through the courses added to the teacher training programs and creating opportunities for the teacher candidates to encounter multicultural issues (Premier & Miller, 2010).

Thus, teacher candidates can empathize with their students in terms of diversities. Furthermore, integrating multicultural education into teacher training programs could minimize the difficulties faced during teaching process and prospective teachers could better understand social equality and behave accordingly (Liggett & Finley, 2009). The studies carried out revealed that courses on multicultural education and field experiences added to the teacher training programs have positive effects on teacher candidates' attitudes and efficacies (Bodur, 2012; Cochran-Smith, 2003; Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

While integrating multicultural education into the existing teacher training programs, it is crucial to move forward systematically. To this end, Banks (1993) presented five key dimensions of multiculturalism; (1) content integration; (2) the knowledge construction process; (3) prejudice reduction; (4) an equity pedagogy; and (5) an empowering school culture and social structure. These dimensions help the educators define more creative and effective reforms to implement multicultural education and set the limits and determine the scope of multicultural education.

The first dimension, content integration, is about using examples, activities and content from different cultures and groups to exemplify key concepts, principles, generalizations, and theories in the subject area of an instructor (Banks & Banks, 2009). In this process, the integration is to be carried out in a logical fashion, not make-believe. Banks and Banks (2009) also states that some areas are more suitable for integrating the content than others. Especially in the courses in social studies, teachers have a great deal of opportunities to present multiculturalism. To this end, in this study multicultural education activities were integrated into classroom management course in social studies teaching programme. Therefore, the study can contribute to the design of multicultural education in such countries as Turkey where multicultural education course is not a part of teacher training programmes.

Considering the practices in terms of multicultural education, it can be noted that the importance of the concept has long been recognized in the world and the curricula are designed in line with the goals of multicultural education. For instance, in the United States of America, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education implied the importance of cultural diversity in 1972 (Baptiste & Baptiste, 1980). 30 years later, multiculturalism was integrated into teacher training programs and after 15 years it was offered as a separate course for the teacher candidates at 54% of the universities (Levine & Cureton, 1992). In addition, The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) started to require "show evidence of planning for multicultural education in their curricula" from the institutions applying for accreditation (Ladson-Billings, 1999). In Turkey, Ministry of National Education (2006) added some competences related to cultural differences under "Teachers' Core Competences" in 2006 and recently started to emphasize the importance of multicultural education by adding course objectives and themes to the newly developed curricula.

To this end, the main purpose of the research was to investigate the perceptions of the teacher candidates regarding multicultural education after a 10-week content integration process. Based on this, answers to the following question were examined:

- What are the teacher candidates' perceptions with regards to multicultural education?

2. Method

2.1. Research Design

In this study, in order to gather data through interviews, case study approach, one of the most prevalent and important methods of qualitative data collection, was employed (Merriam, 1998; Myers & Newman, 2007). The reason behind the selection of case study as the research method was that it provided the researcher with the opportunity to deeply understand the participants' views through talking and listening to their observations.

2.2. Participants

In the qualitative studies, to collect data purposeful sampling is widely used for the identification and selection of information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest (Palinkas et al., 2015). For this purpose, ten teacher candidates were selected to participate in the study during the 2015-2016 spring semester. The participants were enrolled in 2-hour classroom management course within the teacher education program at the Department of Social Sciences Teaching of a faculty of education at a state university in Western Black Sea Region, Turkey. Prior to the selection of the participants 10 weeks of 14-week multicultural content integration program were completed.

2.3. Data Collection Tool

The data for the study were collected through semi-structured interviews. 4 open-ended questions were prepared after reviewing the books, articles and theses in the field of multicultural education (Banks & Banks, 2009; Bodur, 2003; Dodici, 2011; Esposito, 2011; Jefferson, 2013; Mulder, 2010; Neuharth-Pritchett, Reiff, & Pearson, 2001). Based on expert opinion 2 more questions were added in order to broaden the scope of interviews. The final interview form included the following questions:

In your own words, please provide a description or definition of what you consider multicultural education to be.

How did you construct your definition of multicultural education?

What is your perception of how multiculturalism should be promoted in school settings?

What do you think about the place of multicultural education in the courses you have taken so far?

What is your opinion about the multicultural education activities during the classroom management course?

2.4. Data Collection and Analysis

The interview for each participant was approximately lasted for 30 minutes. The interviews were recorded by voice recorder and transcribed for analysis. After finalizing the transcription process, the data were examined by using thematic analysis. According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 6) "Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail."

In this study, the procedures during data analysis and interpretation process were carried out under five headings; data management, reading and memoing, describing, classifying and interpreting the themes, interpreting the data, representing and visualizing (Creswell, 2007). In the first phase, a qualitative data set based on the interviews was created. In the second phase, the data contexts were interpreted as a whole. In this phase, each interview transcript was carefully read line-by-line. In the third phase of the analysis process a coding system was developed to identify patterns of findings. The researcher used these patterns of findings, as developed through the coding system. Forth phase included the interpretation of the data and the researcher tried to reveal the relations among the findings. In the final phase, the representation and visualization were completed. In this phase, the findings were presented in tables and direct quotations were given.

3. Findings

The findings of the study are presented under each interview question with regards to the themes and sub-themes.

3.1. Teacher Candidates' Views Regarding the Definition of Multicultural Education

The findings about the teacher candidates' views regarding the definition of multicultural education are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Teacher candidates' views regarding the definition of multicultural education

Theme	Sub-Theme	f
Differences	Culture	8
	Region	7
	Race	6
	Belief (Religion)	3
	Language	2
	Gender	2
	Traditions	1
Acceptance - Contribution	Blending - Including	5
	Accepting everyone	4
Prejudice	Contributing	4
	Education without prejudice	3

According to Table 1, it can be said that the teacher candidates focused on three themes; differences, acceptance and prejudice. When the sub-themes are examined, it is observed that 8 teacher candidates implied cultural differences and 7 teacher candidates focused on different regions in their definitions of multicultural education. Sample answers from teacher candidates are as follows:

“A type of education that cares about different beliefs and sects (St-1).”

“An educational perception accepting everyone with diversities and an educational environment where the existence of different races and genders are accepted (St-2).”

“Inclusion of different cultures into education and providing education for each culture (St-5).”

3.2. Teacher Candidates' Views Regarding Construction of the Definition of Multicultural Education

The findings about the teacher candidates' views regarding the construction the definition of multicultural education are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Teacher candidates' views regarding construction of the definition of multicultural education

Theme	Sub-Theme	f
Environment	University - Dormitory	8
	Region - Country	3
	Family	1
Differences	Different culture	4
	Race	4
	Language	3
	Food - Drink	2
	Traditions	2
Experiences	Friends	10
	Sharing	8
	Experience	4
	Media	3
Problems	Pressure	5
	Discussion	2
	Discrimination	1
Courses	Multicultural Education Practices	1

As seen in Table 2, the concepts that helped the teacher candidates construct the definition of multicultural education were environment, differences, experiences, problems and courses. When the participants' views were examined, it was observed that friends as a sub-theme was the most cited concept (N=10). In addition, 8 participants implied the importance of university/dormitory and sharing in constructing the definition; however, some of the participants mentioned the effect of such negative issues as pressure, discussion and discrimination. On the other hand, only 1 participant referred to multicultural education practices, which indicates that the effect of environment and experiences is much more than the theoretical information provided during the activities. Sample answers from teacher candidates are as follows:

“In general, the places I have been, university and my friends are effective. Sometimes we encounter big problems based on multicultural issues and these problems lead to bigger discussions. I realize that the habits related to food, drink, speaking, traditions are different (St.-1).”

“My experiences and my friends at the dormitory are effective. Having friends from different regions helped me understand their traditions and habits better. I have friends from Diyarbakır (a city located in the eastern part of Turkey), in the beginning we had some reservations but later we realized that we had common ground. These helped me construct the definition of multiculturalism (St. 10).”

3.3. Teacher Candidates' Views Regarding Their Perception of How Multiculturalism Should Be Promoted in School Settings.

The findings about the teacher candidates' views regarding their perception of how multiculturalism should be promoted in school settings are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Teacher candidates' views regarding their perception of how multiculturalism should be promoted in school settings

Theme	Sub-Theme	f
Education	Academician	3
	Teacher	3
	Student	3
Communication	Incorporation/sharing	6
	Language	5
	Communication	4
	Empathy	3
Method/Technique	Freedom of thought	1
	Presentation	5
	Activities (videos / games)	5
Negative Issues	Group work	1
	Pressure	6
	War	3
	Discussion	2
	Racism	2

As seen in Table 3, the themes related to the teacher candidates' views regarding their perception of how multiculturalism should be promoted in school settings were education, communication, method/technique and negative issues. According to these findings, it can be said that the participants mainly implied sharing, language and presentations and activities in promoting multicultural education. Furthermore, teacher candidates emphasized the importance of raising teachers, academicians and students awareness with regard to multiculturalism and multicultural education. On the other hand, cultural repression comes to the fore as a negative issue. Sample answers from teacher candidates are as follows:

"It is important that teachers know their students well and be aware of the culture they were raised. Adding words or items from the students' culture may help them embrace the school environment. Teachers should provide opportunities for the students to present themselves and their culture. Discussing these issues and freedom of thought are important for our classes (St.-3)."

"People have different cultures and cultural background, but teachers act as if there is only one culture in their classes. Sometimes teacher try to impose their political views and dominant culture. In my opinion, multiculturalism involves blending and sharing ideas. The group works in the classes become mono cultured when we choose the groups ourselves. We don't know each other and we stay in our boundaries. Teachers should help us know and recognize each other. They should create opportunities for us (St.-9)."

3.4. Teacher Candidates' Views Regarding Multiculturalism in Teacher Training Programmes

The findings about the teacher candidates' views multiculturalism in teacher training programmes are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Teacher candidates' views regarding multiculturalism in teacher training programmes

Theme	Sub-Theme	f
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Courses	Classroom Management (Multicultural Education Practice)	9
	Social Psychology (Gender)	3
Issues	Not mentioned in the courses	5
	Pressure / Fear	4
	Monocultural Course	2
	Exclusion/ Discrimination	2

As presented in Table 4, the findings with regards to multiculturalism in teacher training programmes were courses and issues. According to the results, it can be said that Classroom Management Course whose content was integrated into Multicultural Education Practices contributed most to the multicultural education. Moreover, the participants implied the contribution of Social Psychology Course in terms of gender equality. However, when the answers were investigated the effect of such problematic issues as pressure, fear, mono-culturalism and exclusion also came to the fore. Sample answers from teacher candidates are as follows:

"This is my 5th year, no course have contributed to multiculturalism so far. The courses mainly focused on dominant culture or just presented its theoretical information. These caused problems, there shouldn't be mono-cultural teacher. There are many people around us with diversities. We have to embrace them (St.-1)."

"Indeed, till this year, we haven't talked about multiculturalism. I noticed that people do not have same opportunities. Especially in our university we don't give much importance to multicultural issues. I am happy to talk about these kind of subjects and I believe this is freedom of thought. There are many courses where we can't talk about our culture. People with diversities are excluded in our classroom (St.-3)."

3.5. Teacher Candidates' Views Regarding Multicultural Education Activities during Classroom Management Courses

The findings about the teacher candidates' views regarding multicultural education activities during classroom management courses are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Teacher candidates' views regarding multicultural education activities during classroom management courses

Theme	Sub Theme	f
Content Integration	Effective	8
	Awareness	4
	Empathy	1
Activities during the course	Videos	6
	Discussions	1
	Presentations	1
A separate Multicultural Education Course	Elective Multicultural Education Course	8
	Compulsory Multicultural Education Course	3

As seen in Table 5, the themes related to teacher candidates' views regarding multicultural education activities during classroom management courses were content integration, activities during the course, a separate multicultural education course. The participants, in particular, stated the effectiveness of content integration and implied that the activities were of great significance in terms of raising awareness. However, dedicating only a part of a course to multicultural activities were regarded insufficient and the teacher candidates expressed their views about a compulsory or an elective course. Sample answers from teacher candidates are as follows:

"The theoretical information presented during the course and the video activities were effective. We learned how to emphasize with other cultures and diversities. It would be better to have a separate course rather than short activities in other courses (St.-1)."

"There were positive effects, we continue the discussion after the course; however, there weren't long-term effects. I would love to attend an elective multicultural education course. I also would like to talk about myself (St.6)."

4. Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, teacher candidates' perceptions regarding multicultural education and the effect of content integration dimension on their perceptions in terms of teaching multicultural education were investigated. The results of the study revealed that teacher candidates' perceptions with regard to defining multicultural education, constructing the definition, promoting multicultural education, the place of multicultural education in teacher training programmes and the effect of content integration differ greatly based on their experiences and educational background. The results of the 1st interview question revealed the participants, in general, do not base their definition of multicultural education on theoretical knowledge. Most of them associated multicultural education with race, language, religion, accepting others and contributing; however, they did not mention multicultural education as a reform movement or its relation to disability, giftedness or gender. This finding implies that content integration process was not effective in terms of teaching a more comprehensive definition of multicultural education. The findings of the study carried out by Sia and Mosher (1994) revealed that the participants defined multicultural education as learning about, respecting and accepting other cultures. Alanay (2015) and Atasayar (2015) also stated that teacher candidates viewed multiculturalism and multicultural education as respecting and recognizing religion, language, race, socio-economic background, tolerance and empathy.

With regards to the construction of the definition of multicultural education, the participants emphasized the effect of the environment they live in and their experiences. To this end, it can be noted that using a variety of teaching methods and considering the effect of university or dormitory environment and friends when planning multicultural education are of great significance. In a study conducted by Demirsoy (2013), half of participants also implied that they were affected by the multicultural environment in their university and the students coming from other cultures contribute to their perceptions and knowledge. The findings of the study, on the other hand, revealed that the effect of multicultural education practices on the construction of definition of multicultural education was very little. However, Bodur (2003) noted that the participants in his study mostly based their definitions on the experiences they gained during multicultural education courses.

The results revealed that the actors in the education process (academicians, teachers and students), the means of communication and the methods utilized during the courses were the agents to promote multiculturalism in school settings. According to the findings, a more comprehensive approach embracing both the school environment and out-of-school time should be adopted to recognize and promote multiculturalism. Furthermore, supporting the education environment with such methods and techniques as presentations, video activities, group work and so on is important. In a study carried out by Estupinan (2010) stated that the teacher candidates implied the importance of teaching strategies, multicultural classroom management strategies, group activities and presentations to introduce different cultures in promoting multicultural education. Besides the activities carried out in the school, creating opportunities to establish communication with other cultures out of the school was regarded as a crucial component of promoting multicultural education. The results of some other studies also imply the importance of teaching techniques and styles, empathy, interaction and communication (Alanay, 2015; Brady, 2014; Demirsoy, 2013; Estupinan, 2010).

The teacher candidates participating in the study noted that they did not have any course on multicultural education or talk about multiculturalism till 3rd grade. In addition, the findings revealed that the concept of culture was not mentioned even in courses where culture is a part of content and sometimes the participants face discussions leading to assimilation. However, the results indicate that the teacher candidates were aware of the need for multicultural education. Other studies also implied such a need and the deficiencies in teacher training programmes in terms of multicultural education (Alanay, 2015; Brady, 2014; Esen, 2009; Estupinan, 2010; Gray, 2010; Kaya, 2014).

The results of this study revealed that integrating the content of multicultural education during the classroom management courses was effective in terms raising awareness of the participants regarding the diversities encountered in and out of the classroom environment. Most of the participants implied that they recognized the differences with the help of the videos, presentations and discussions. Furthermore, the teacher candidates noted that the move beyond awareness and to take action a multicultural education course either compulsory or elective should be added to teacher training programmes. These findings are in line with the studies carried in other countries (Barry & Lechner, 1995; Bodur, 2003; Brady, 2014; Capella-Santana, 1995; Estupinan, 2010). As a result the study carried out by Brady (2014), it was expressed that teacher candidates need more courses supported with field practices and workshops on multicultural education. Barry and Lechner

(1995) also implied that teacher candidates have positive attitude towards multicultural education and they want more courses to improve their skills.

Finally, it can be stated that although content integration supports multicultural education as an introductory phase, faculties should move beyond and start to add separate courses on multiculturalism to the teacher training programmes.

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The Role of Higher Education in Promoting Social Mobility in Indonesia

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Abstract

This paper explains the link between higher education and social mobility in Indonesia. There are several theoretical frameworks talking about the link between higher education and social mobility and the relevant theory of them is Raymond Boudon's *Inequality of Educational Opportunity* (IEO) and *Inequality of Social Opportunity* (ISO). The results reveal that the link between higher education and social mobility in Indonesia is influenced by other factors: inequality of social-economy and geography and cultural disparities. Furthermore, the more decreasing inequality in the society, the more people can go to higher education and in turn will promote upward social mobility.

Keywords: higher education, social mobility, educational opportunity, social opportunity

Introduction

This paper is written related to the fact that there is a paucity in the study of the role of higher education attainment toward upward social mobility in Indonesia. According to many studies, the study of social mobility is very important to learn the accessibility of a community toward education and the inequality in the education (Mok 2016). Moreover, social mobility is correlated to social origins and social reproduction. Student's social origins and social reproduction are a pivotal mean to know factors influencing students' persistence and performance in the higher education. Prior studies on student persistence and performance stated that student's social origins are a determinant factor to determine student's decision to persisting and completing study (Kember 1989, 1995, 2007; Sweet 1986; Tinto 1993).

When the globalisation and the evolution of the knowledge-based economy got fully underway, the function and characteristics of education in the world are changing dramatically (Burbules & Torres 2000; Crossley 2000). In recent years, higher education credentials become a pivotal instrument in the global competitiveness and then made many countries in the world increasing number of higher education and professional institutions in their respective countries. However, the rapid expansion of higher education is not correlated positively with employment and social mobility. For instances, around 40-50% of college graduates in the USA are doing sub-graduate work; about 52% of four year college graduates are in job that match their skills, whereas 48% are overqualified for their current jobs (Vedder, Denhart, dan Robe 2013). In the same way, Green and Mok (2013) found the growing number of unemployed college graduates in Europe and Asia.

Therefore, there are pros and cons regarding the link between educational attainment and social mobility. Prior empirical studies, particularly that have used human capital theory, highlighted a positive correlation between the level of education and earnings. The youth people who completed and hold higher education credentials usually have higher earnings and more opportunity for upward mobility. Therefore, in this case, higher education attainment is an important determinant of social mobility (Checchi 2004; Becker 1993; Psacharopoulos, 1994; Psacharopoulos dan Patrinos, 2004). Whereas, some scholars believe the opposite perspective that the most significant determinants of income and social mobility are not education-related factors (Young 1990). According to these scholars, some prior studies showed that family background significantly affects educational achievement and graduates' employment in the labour market (Brown et al. 2001; Dale 2015; Coleman et al. 1966). Therefore, obtaining a higher education credential is no longer guarantee of employment, higher earnings, or most importantly, upward social mobility.

Based on these pros and cons perspectives, the role of higher education in social mobility is context-bounded and needs comparative research. Hence, this paper will examine the effect of higher education attainment on upward social mobility in Indonesia.

Research Method

This study used the secondary data as a primary source including the relevant prior studies, statistical data, journal articles, and other sources. Furthermore, these data were analysed descriptively in order to know the role of higher education attainment toward upward social mobility in Indonesia.

Higher Education, Educational Opportunity, and Social Mobility

The role of educational institutions, particularly schools and higher education, become more important since the schools have taken on functions formerly performed by the church, the family, and a number of other institutions. Starting in 1950s, higher education serves as a vehicle of mobility for masses of people and becomes a mandatory stage in the trajectories of upward mobility (Burlutskaia 2014).

In relation to the role of higher education, John Goldthorpe (2002) stated that higher education attainment can develop a merit-based system. This a merit-based system is expected to replace social class in determining economic earnings. Moreover, Goldthorpe (2002) revealed that higher education attainment functions also as a filter for parents to keep parents' economic position by passing straight through to their children.

According to Gholthorpe (2002), a less class-based society needs several requirements: 1) the link between individuals' social origins and their schooling must increasingly reflect only their ability; 2) the link between their schooling and their eventual employment must be strengthened by qualifications acquired through education; 3) the link between schooling and employment must become constant for individual of differing social origins.

However, the link between higher education and upward social mobility is frequently mediated by economic position or family earnings. For instances, the children from wealthy family tend to have meritocratic characteristics, such as ability, motivation, and preparedness, comparing to poor family. Therefore, the children having the meritocratic characteristics tend to have more opportunity to get upward social mobility (Shapiro & Willen 2005). From this case, it can be said that there is a link among social economic status, meritocratic traits, and upward social mobility.

Furthermore, in relation to the link among educational opportunity, social origins, and social mobility, Raymond Boudon (1974) proposes two concepts of 'inequality of educational opportunity' (IEO) dan 'inequality of social opportunity' (ISO). IEO refers to differences in educational attainment according to social background. Whereas ISO is defined as differences in achieved social status according to social background.

The model of social opportunity developed by Boudon (1964) includes two components: 1) a model of changing IEO under conditions of educational expansion, and 2) a model of ISO under conditions in which the supply of educated individuals grows more rapidly than the availability of social positions. Therefore, the Boudon model needs a meritocratic society to apply the model in which the highest social positions tend to go to those with the highest levels of education.

Moreover, the most crucial element of the IEO component is Boudon's distinction between the primary and secondary effects of social stratification on educational inequality. In this case, the primary effects refer to those expressed through the association between children's social backgrounds and their educational performance. Meanwhile, the secondary effects are expressed through the educational choices made by children from differing social backgrounds but with similar levels of performance. From this explanation, it can be stated that Boudon explicitly differentiates between cultural (primary effects) and positional (secondary) effects. (Boudon 1974; Jackson & Jonsson 2013).

In relation to IEO and ISO, there are four axioms to identify Boudon's IEO and two axioms to define ISO. The subsequent axioms (E1-E4) explain the method in which primary and secondary effects of social stratification combine to produce socially differentiated educational outcomes for a group of students (Thompson and Simmons 2013).

E1: the society is stratified, and primary effects of stratification exist in which underlying academic acability is differentiated by social class from an early age. These primary effects are persistent; that is, the academic aptitude of an individual does not change over time.

E2: the curriculum available to young people is differentiated for a substantial proportion of an educational career. Some routes offer progression to the highest levels of academic attainment, whilst others do not. At certain transition points, students must choose whether to continue with the higher curriculum. Once having left this curriculum, students are unlikely to return to it.

E3: at any transition, secondary effects of social stratification operate, so that the probability of a particular individual continuing with the higher curriculum is an increasing function of social status as well as academic aptitude.

E4: the society is in a state of educational expansion. The probabilities of continuing with the higher curriculum are increasing with time, although not necessarily uniformly for all social groups.

Whereas, two assumptions as a foundation in the ISO generating component are as follows:

S1: the social structure, in terms of the number of social positions available at each level, changes considerably less rapidly over time than the educational structure.

S2: an individual's achieved status depends on four independent variables: social background; educational attainment; social structure; and educational structure, in terms of the number of people reaching each level of educational attainment.

Therefore, despite many factors influencing social mobility, the nature and form of education plays an important role in individual social achievement. In this case, Boudon's model highlights that greater differentiation within education increases inequality of attainment, over and above that which can be attributed to socio-cultural influences on academic aptitude (Thompson and Simmons 2013).

Higher Education in Indonesia from the Colonial Era to Post-Colonial Era

The development of higher education in Indonesia was closely related to prior colonialism (1500S – 1942). In the colonial era, the Dutch established the first formal and official universities in Java starting at the end of the eighteenth century. The reason behind these establishment was to fulfill the shortage of Dutch experts, especially during World War One. Some universities established by the Dutch were the medical school and law school in Jakarta, the engineering institute in Bandung, and the agriculture center in Bogor. In that time, Dutch was the exclusive language of instruction and served as an effective means of selection of male nobles across the thin numbers of high school graduates (Logli 2016; Idrus 1999).

The student profiles in the universities reflected the colonial hierarchy, with the Dutch at the top and the indigenous people at the bottom. However, the number of Indonesian students increased steadily year by year and in 1938, their number rose to 200 out of the total 1000 students (Buchori and Malik 2004; Cummings and Kasenda 1989). Beyond the numbers, colonial universities were actually arenas of social and cultural conflict. On one side, colonial universities were a pivotal mean to get opportunity to climb the colonial hierarchy towards a higher social status and better jobs. On the other side, the Indonesian student were worried about losing of their original identities and traditions due to Dutch education (Alisjahbana 1966).

Moreover, the establishment of colonial universities in Indonesia had opened the Pandora's box by creating the elite intellectual groups of colonial universities graduates that in turn protested and rejected the colonialism. Those groups also became leaders in endorsing nationalism and eradicating colonialism in Indonesia (Buchori & Malik 2004; Cummings & Kasenda 1989).

In the post-colonial era, after getting independence from Japan, the development of higher education system was much influenced by political situations. In 1945, the first state Islamic university was established with the name Universitas Islam Indonesia. Whereas, Universitas Gajah Mada was the first Indonesian secular university with no colonial legacy established in 1949. In 1961, Indonesian Government enacted the 1961 Law No 22 on Higher Education and by this law, the government prescribed the establishment of at least one public university in each province of Indonesia to expand accessibility and equal opportunity for all citizen (Buchori and Malik 2004; Mason, Armove and Sutton 2001; Nizam 2006).

The main effect of the 1961 Law No. 22 is the fast growing number of private higher education institutions in Indonesia. In 1980, the number of private higher education was above 1,000 institutions for all regions in Indonesia. However, private higher education institutions in Indonesia has a pivotal role in opening access to higher education and increase participation for those people who can not attend in the state higher education. Finally in 1990, the number of graduates of private higher education institutions has exceeded the number of graduates of state higher education (Logli 2016; Kristiansen & Pratikno 2006).

The growing number of private higher education institutions unveil other problems, the quality of learning process and graduates. In the meantime, lack of autonomy becomes another problem to encounter by the institutions. Consequently, higher education in the Soeharto era tend to be less innovative due to merely bureaucratic and centralistic.

Therefore, Indonesian government through the ministry of higher education set up the quality standard for both graduates of higher education and learning process in higher education.

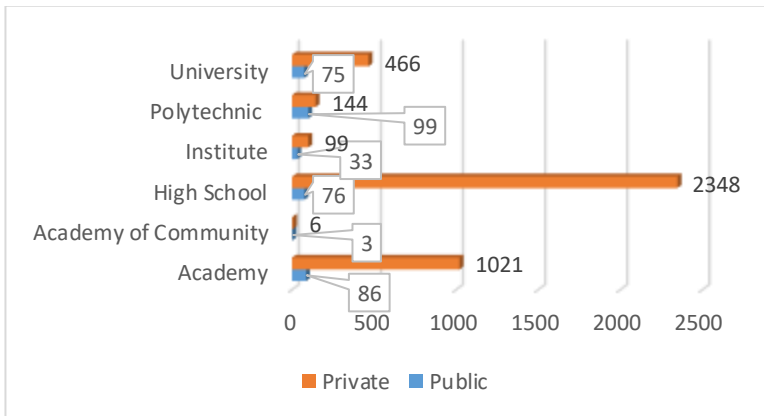
In the post-Soeharto era, there is a shifting in the higher education system that the Indonesian government provides more autonomy in finance dan institutional development in order to endorse more Indonesia universities becoming a world class university. This changing system was enacted initially by Law of Education Agency on 17th December 2008 (Brojonegoro 2012; DJKN 2013).

However, the enactment of the Law of Educational Agency has impacted on commercialisation of higher education. This situation has brought to inequality of educational opportunity. Later, the Law of Education Agency has been cancelled by the Supreme Court due to against the highest law of 1945 (Purbayanto 2012; Prasetya 2005; Basit 2017; Subhan 2012; DJKN 2013). Therefore, the Indonesian Government replaced the Law of Education Agency by enacting the Law No. 12 year 2012 on Higher Education.

The Size of Students and Higher Education in Indonesia

Indonesian government has established a state university in every regions throughout Indonesia. However, the number of those universities were not able to absorb the high number of people who want to learn at higher education level. Due to the out of number of people to study at the university level, Indonesian government invited public participation to establish private universities. In 2016, the number of state and private universities in Indonesia reached 4312 institutions (diagram 1). Comparing to China, the number of university in Indonesia is higher than in China (2000 universities and 6 million students) but with fewer students (Mok 2016).

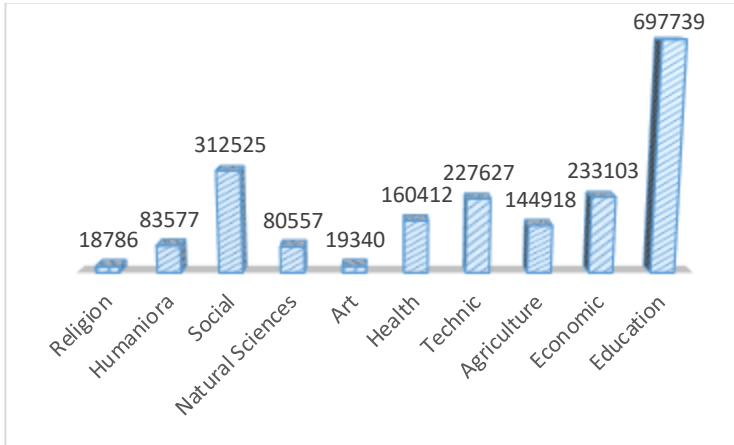
Diagram 1. Number of Public and Private Universities in Indonesia



Source: <http://kelembagaan.ristekdikti.go.id/index.php/statistik-5/>

In 2016, the number of students at public universities reached 1,979,584 students enrolling in diversing disciplines (diagram 2). Among those disciplines, most students enrolled in education (697,739) and then followed by social sciences around 312,525 students (Ristekdikti, 2017). The reason behind the high number of students selecting education due to the shifting of education institutes into a university and offers more course programmes to students.

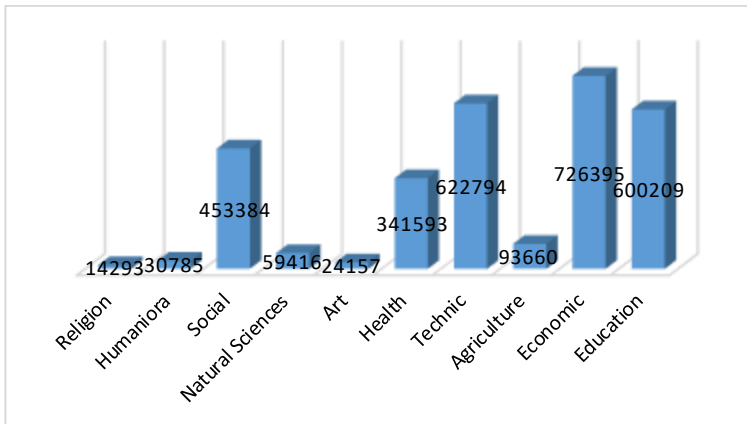
Diagram 2. Number of Students according course programme at state universities



Source: <http://kelembagaan.ristekdikti.go.id/index.php/statistik-5/>

Meanwhile, the number of all students (2,966,686 students) from private universities (4,084 universities) is double than number of students at state universities. Diagram 3 shows that most students at private universities selected economics, engineering, education, and social sciences. These selections are probably caused by the high demand of those graduates in labour market.

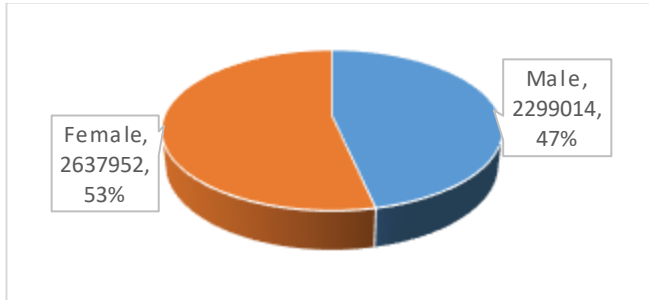
Diagram 3. Number of students at private univesities according to course programmes



Source: <http://forlap.dikti.go.id/mahasiswa/homegraphbidang>

Meanwhile, according to gender, female students more interested in studying at higher education than male students (diagram 4). This data shows a cultural shifting in society that patriarchy is starting to fade and providing female people social opportunity to get higher education.

Diagram 4. Number of students according to gender



Source: <http://forlap.dikti.go.id/mahasiswa/homegraphik>

The Effect of Higher Education Attainment on Social Mobility in Indonesia

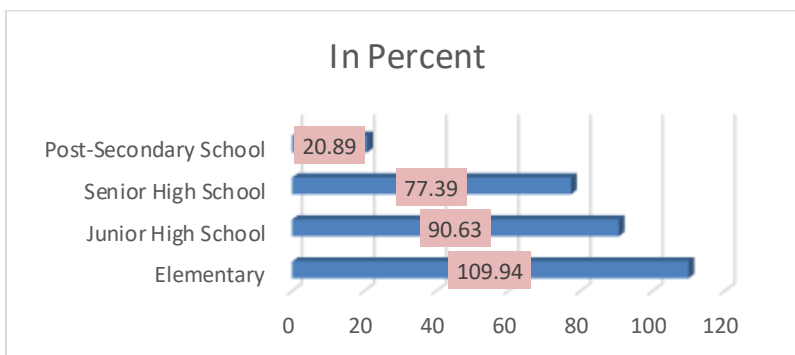
Social mobility in society is influenced by many factors and education is the most significant factor in promoting social mobility (Ianneli & Peterson 2007; Haveman & Smeeding 2006). Moreover, several studies showed that the positive link between educational level and salary (Mok 2015).

However, many studies of social mobility were missed to explain the role of social inequality in the society. Therefore, facts of domination and oppression in the society should be investigated in the studies. Other studies founded that accessibility to higher education is not only determined by education but also family background (Gao 2011; Brown, Lauder & Ashton 2011). Moreover, the emergence of globalisation also changes the predictors of social mobility in which the ownership of certificate of university level has not direct effect on easyness to get job, income, and particularly upward mobility.

In terms of accessibility, rough participation rate at the university level around 20,89% in 2015 even this rate is lower than rate in 2013 and 2014. Moreover, rough participation rate at the university level is lower than elementary school level (109,94%), junior high school (90,63%) and senior high school (77,39%) (BPS 2017).

There are several barriers to go to higher education, such as social and economics status, and cultural and geography disparities. However, the most determinant barriers of those factors are social and economics status (Moeliodihardjo 2013). The link between educational opportunity and social and economics status might be reflected in rough participation rate of education in Indonesia. Table 1 shows that the lowest participation rate is higher education due to socio-economic factors. In this case, the lower socio-economic status they have, the lower access the get to study at higher education (World Bank 2014).

Tabel 1. Number of Rough Participation Rate according to Education Background



Source: BPS, 2017

CULTURAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL DISPARITIES

Geographical disparity refers to the lack of social and economics infrastructures in underdeveloped regions and remote areas (Moeliodihardjo 2010). The emergence of geographical disparity in Indonesia has affected many people to get an educational opportunity, particularly access to higher education. This issue might be reflected in providing scholarship of BIDIK MISI by Indonesian Ministry of Higher Education. This scholarship has not reach the poor people living outside Java island and is only focused for people living in Java island. (World Bank 2014). The result of study conducted by World Bank (2014) revealed inequality in educational opportunity between communities living in Java island and other communities in Sumatera island. In this context, geographical disparity has influenced educational opportunity between Javanese and non-Javanese.

The long distance from town centre is also a big barrier for people to get access to higher education. The results of the study conducted by the World Bank indicated that almost 58% students enrolled in higher education institutions come from the lowest social group and reside in rural areas. Furthermore, the lack of high quality of higher education institutions becomes another barrier for rural people in remote areas to have a social opportunity for getting access to higher education.

Meanwhile, cultural disparity describes several factors influencing access level to higher education, such as ethnicity, language, and gender. Indonesia has almost 300 thousands ethnic groups and more than 700 local languages. Therefore, the use of Indonesia language in schools becomes a barrier for children to complete their studies. According to World Bank (2014), the number of dropout students who did not speak Indonesian language is higher than students who speak Indonesian language. Furthermore, a gender disparity is also becoming a barrier for marginal people in accessing higher education. This barrier comes up due to hegemony of patriarchy in society.

Therefore, there are multiple barriers for the lowest social groups in getting social and educational opportunities in which those barriers are not only social economic status but also including geography and cultural disparities.

Conclusion

The discussion on social mobility in the society is commonly used as a mean to legitimize or hidden the fact of social inequality. The gap between the rich and the poor is frequently presented as a common fact. However, there are numerous facts behind these phenomena that inequality of educational opportunity may influence one's accessibility to higher education as a mean to get an upward social mobility.

Analysis toward social mobility in Indonesia indicated that higher education attainment is a pivotal factor in promoting upward social mobility. However, there are many barriers for Indonesian people to get access to higher education due to social inequality. Therefore, in this case, the Boudon's model of Inequality of Educational Opportunity (IEO) and Inequality of Social Opportunity (ISO) is quietly relevant for analysing social mobility in Indonesia.

Moreover, the relationship between higher education and upward social mobility in Indonesia is mediated by inequalities in the society, such as social-economics inequalities, geography, and cultural inequality. Therefore, it can be said that the more decreasing inequality in the society, the more people can go to higher education and in turn will promote upward social mobility.

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The Impact of Baghdad-Berlin Railway on Britain's Nautical and Commercial Interests in Iraq's Rivers

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Abstract

With the beginning of 20th century, Germany emerged as a strong state after the unification of Germany in 1871. It found itself behind the major powers in the field of colonialism. After the accession of Emperor William II the rule, he looked forward to gaining colonies and to get the ranks of major countries such as Britain and France. Germany has found in railway projects the means to achieve its ambitions. It has turned its attention to Iraq and the Arabian Gulf because of the enormous wealth that was there in Iraq. It also wanted to use it as a market for its products. Since Iraq and the Arabian Gulf were under the authority of Britain that had many interests in, as the road to India, it stood against the German penetration. As these areas were monopolized by Britain alone, it opposed the extension of the rail into Iraq and the Arabian Gulf.

Keywords: Baghdad, Berlin, Railway, Ottoman

Introduction

Baghdad-Berlin Railways Project

After Germany has achieved its national unity in 1871, it has emerged as a powerful state with great rapacity (Al-Assadi, 2001), particularly, after its economic development and the need for new markets for its products outside Europe (Abdul Aziz, 2007). This had culminated in investing its capitals in economically undeveloped countries (BOA, HR, SYS, /08/38/23-4-1903) and its attempts to build other colonies outside Europe (Al-Badaidi, 2011). The main focus of Germany in these concerns was in Asia, particularly, in the Ottoman State and Iraq to control their markets and raw materials (Al-Tikriti, C, 1966). Hence, Germany turned its attention to Iraq. And when General Von Moltke was working as an expert in the Ottoman army, he visited the Euphrates Valley and thought of what can be done there. Since then, he experienced an influence on the German orientation (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911), referring to the great fortunes in this region, especially, the agricultural sector (Al-Tikriti, H, 1985).

Germany thought of Iraq as an important source for raw materials and the food stuff it needs, especially, cereals (Shukri, 1994). On this basis, certain studies were conducted on the geography of Iraq, its potential fortunes and the navigation opportunities in its rivers. Thus, in the fifth decade of the nineteenth century, Karl Ritter dealt with the heights of the Euphrates valley (Salih, 1968).

Germany has conceived railways projects as the means which achieve its ambitions and interests in Minor Asia. These projects could encourage Germany to gain colonies whereby splendid areas will be open for it (BOA, HR, SYS, /08/38/23-4-1903). The economic deterioration and financial confusion in the Ottoman State provided a great opportunity for the German funders to build railways in this region (Aluzbaki, 1977).

Since 1873, the Germans worked extensively in building railways in the Asian part of the Ottoman State (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911). In 1875, the German engineers built the first part of the Anatolian Railways as requested by the Ottoman

government(BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911). When Sultan Abdul Hammed II (1876-1909)⁽¹⁾ came to power, he showed a desire to build railways in the Ottoman state for political, strategic and economic goals. From the political and strategic perspectives, the Sultan would be able to move his troops in all the Anatolian region and the Mesopotamia. This would help him maintain security and order and give the Sultan a great power (BOA. HR. SYS, 108/38/23-3-1903). As for the economic side, the railways would increase the revenues of the Ottoman State and work to develop its economic sources (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-5-1911). Hence, all the obstacles facing the Germans were removed exploiting the relationship between Emperor William II⁽²⁾ and Sultan Abdul Hammed II. This relationship has rapidly developed after the Emperor's visit to the Ottoman State in 1898 whereby the Sultan promised him to give the concession of building the railways to the Germans (Malhut, 2013). On his part, the Emperor expressed his support to the Sultan in the Islamic University Project and showed his pretentious protect to Islam (BOA. HR. SYS, 108/38/23-4-1903).

Sultan Abdul Hameed II appointed a board to discuss the means that facilitate building the railway and everything pertaining to this project. The board included Raouf Effendi, Minister of Trade, Hassan Effendi, Minister of General Labor, Mr. Wettendorf, Consultant of Ministry of Finance, Rachid Bay, Sultan Special Secretariat and Mr. Bernam, Chancellor of Customs in addition to other prominent personnel. After certain investigations and discussions concerning the adoption of the best way that links Istanbul with Baghdad, the board suggested expanding the lines from Eski shehir to Konia then to Baghdad. The board thought that this line is useful since trading ships would be able to move from Shatt Al-Arab to Balis, which gives great facilities to transfer construction materials to build the railway. Moreover, this line would be significant in times of war to confront attacks using boat fleets (FO, 78, 3385, XIL00799).

The budget of the project was 16 billion pounds. However, due to the difficult situation of the Ottoman funders, the company would shoulder the financial expenditures of this line. As a compensation of the losses, the Ottoman State would grant the company the concession of mining in Arkali and Ciwas (FO, 78, 3385, XIL00799).

The starting point of the railway would be Izmir towards Eski shehir, then Kutahya then Konia towards Adana then Aleppo to finally reach Baghdad following the right side of the Euphrates. The building of this line would be divided into six sections and it would cross mounts, rocks, mountains, and valleys leading to several difficulties. The first section of the line is 225 kms in length and it starts from Izmir to Eski shehir. As for the second section, it is 200 kms in length and it extends from Eski shehir to Kotahya then KarahHissar. The third section covers the region between KarahHissar and Konia to pass Rakman Valley towards Konia. It is 280 kms in length. The fourth section goes from Konia to follow Kirman Valley and reach Arkali. The fifth section is 350 kms and it starts from AoloKashla to Aleppo. Finally, the sixth section is 915 kms in length and it goes from Aleppo to Baghdad following the right side of the Euphrates ⁽³⁾. Generally, the total length of the line from Izmir to Baghdad is 2200 kms and it requires expenditures amounting to 15 million pounds (FO, 78, 3385, XIL00799).

In 1888, the Ottoman Company of Anatolian Railway was established (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911). This company worked on building the railway inside the Anatolia to The Bosphorus with Ankara, which was completed in 1892 (Rafiq, 1978). In 1896, this line reached Konia (Kent, 1996) to reach Baghdad and a point on the Arab Gulf in 1899 through a concession to the Company of Anatolian Railway(BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911). The company agreed to finish the railway within 8 years subject to any delays emerging from compellynch circumstances such as a war between the European powers or the change in the monetary condition of the powers participating in building the railway (BOA. HR. SYS, 108/39/25-4-1903). On the fifth of March, 1903, the final concession, which was under negotiations for several years and was an outcome of a German-Ottoman understanding, was granted to Baghdad Railway. In principle, the concession represented a great victory to the German policy and its ambitions (BOA. HR. SYS, 108/38/23-4-1903). The line was linked to Baiji City to the north of Samara and it was opened in July, 1912 (Kashif Al-Ghitta, 1977).

¹ - William II 1888-1918, was in that period the German Caesar. He is the son of Fredric and Queen Victoria of Britain. He received a meticulous military training in he exhibited a strong character. After two years of becoming the German Caesar, he fired Bismarck and sought a new policy in which he affirmed the right of Germany to lead the world. In 1914, he announced war on two fronts against Britain, France and Russia. In 1918, he stepped down after Germany was defeated in the war and was exiled from Germany. (Palmer, 1992).

² - See appendix (1).

³ - See appendix (2).

Effect of the railway on the British navigation in Iraqi rivers

At the beginning, Britain did not oppose the building of the railway in Minor Asia as long as the project is situated in regions far away from its interests. Supporting this stance, a British politician stated that Britain should not oppose the German ambitions and that Britain in a previous time was dreaming of building a railway in Minor Asia (BOA. HR. SYS, 108/38/23-4-1903). Hence, in 1872, Britain appointed a board led by Stafford Northcote who stated that building this line is of great significance in protecting India, yet, the project was disregarded (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911). However, the British stance towards the railway was changed after it conceived the effect of this line on its economic and trading interests in the Mediterranean towards the Arab Gulf, beside its effect on the strategic and political interests in the Arab Gulf towards the British influence in India (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911).

Building the railway was not restricted to the main line going from Berlin to Baghdad. Rather, the German company was given other concessions to build sub-lines, which raised the British fears. For instance, the company was given the concession to build a branch from Ossman on the Ottoman borders to Alexandria in Egypt and another branch on the Syrian coast (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911). The most dangerous of these on the British interests is the branch extending from Sadiji to Khanaqeen on the Iranian borders to meet the expected line in the middle of Iran. This would mean that the British trading which used to go from Baghdad to Iran⁽¹⁾, would be at a high danger (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/25/13-1-1911).

The fears of Britain began to emerge after the railway from Konia to Baghdad was completed, which means that the German trading control would be guaranteed for 400 miles from Istanbul to Konia and for 900 miles from Konia to Baghdad (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-5-1911). There might be some cargoes ready for shipping from Baghdad to Istanbul (BOA. HR. SYS, 108/38/23-2-1903). Britain realized that the Germans' goal was not only commercial, rather, it was political. Hence, Germany experienced a great influence on the Topkapi Palace in an attempt to gain a political influence and commercial domination in the Ottoman regions (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-5-1911). As a result, this would put several obstacles in front of the British interests in Iraq and the Arab Gulf (Persian Gulf, 1920).

After the railway would reach Baghdad ⁽²⁾, Britain opposed its extension to Basra as this would affect the British navigation interests. Arguing on this point, Lord Curzon ⁽³⁾ stated that "navigation in Basra was in the hands of a British company for several years. I am afraid that this will be blocked in recent years". In another statement, he said "I believe that river navigation in Basra and Baghdad belong to us". ⁽⁴⁾ (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911).

Transportation by trains is given preference to transportation by ships because the former is faster. (BOA. HR. SYS, 109/22/11-2-1911). Hence, after Lynch ships used to travel from Baghdad and Basra within four or five days because the river way is zigzagging, water flow is always unstable, and because of sand mounts (Ekinci, 1999), the train can travel the same distance in one day in different climate conditions even when loaded with goods and passengers (Earle, 1924).

¹ - See appendix (3).

² - he was born on the 10th of January, 1859 in Kedleston Hull in Derbyshire in Britain. In 1882, he graduated from Oxford University. In 1883, he became the special secretary of Lord Salisbury. In 1886, he became a member in the common council and was interested in safeguarding the British colonies and strengthening its influence. In 1891, he was appointed the deputy minister of India, then he became the deputy minister for the British foreign office for the years 1895-1898. He became the deputy in India. (Al-Ahbab, 2011).

³ - in 1834, Britain sent a delegation to the Euphrates which was culminated in building a commercial chamber in Baghdad in 1842 by Hennyry Polis Lynch and his brother Thomas Gera Lynch. In 1861, this chamber was developed into an international company which began sending steamships between Baghdad and Basra and working in internal trading. (Nawar, 1968).

⁴ - Shut Al-Arab contains great sediments coming annually from Karun River from the Iranian mountains. These sediments formed a block that took the crescent from extending for (5-9, 22) Kms from Faw towards the Arab Gulf. (Al-Mударis, nd).

Moreover, transportation by trains is more comfortable, secure and systematic. (BOA. HR. SYS, 109/22/11-2-1911). In addition, it is cheap, which affects the British trading sector. (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911). Thus, transportation by trains would destroy river transportation (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/20/18-8-1911). Furthermore, the train capacity is higher than that of the steamships. A train can carry four times or more of what the ship can (Ssada Babel, 1911).

According to items 9 and 23 of the concession, Baghdad Railway Company was given the right to use commercial ships and wind boats in Tigris, the Euphrates and Shatt Al-Arab to transport construction materials and equipment required for building the railway. (Fraser, 1909). Moreover, the company was given the right to build ports in Baghdad and Basra (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/11/21-3-1911). This represented a threat to Lynch Company and made Baghdad Railway Company a partner in the great profits coming from transporting goods between Baghdad and Basra with high costs imposed without a supervision (Ibraheem, 1991). Therefore, Britain suggested that in case a British company would build the line from Baghdad to Basra, Britain would have free navigation in Tigris and the Euphrates (BOA. HR. SYS, 108/38/23-2-1903). Nevertheless, Britain refused to participate in the project under the pretext of lacking fair terms that give it the major part of domination in Baghdad-Basra section and absolute control on the end of the railway (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/20/1-5-1911).

Sir Edward Grey stated that the development of the British commerce does not depend on building Baghdad-Basra railway which probably suited the Ottoman desire for military and strategic reasons. It also did not guarantee a better and faster post service to Britain than that of Suez road, it only spares some time. Furthermore, Britain has river service that maintains faster and cheaper transportation for the British trading than the railway. (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/20/25-3-1911).

Britain insisted that the commercial end of the line should be Basra. On this basis, Fraser stated that "we always insist that the end of the line should be Basra, and transportation between Baghdad and Basra using the river will continue in the current situations. Moreover, steamships can carry big cargoes of goods and commodities without the railway affecting them, particularly, when the river paths will be improved and irrigation works will be completed. The only obstacle to change Basra surrounding to a port able to contain steamships coming from Suez Channel is the cape at the mouth of Shatt Al-Arab ⁽¹⁾. However, this can be treated by shove Lynch and cleaning processes as well as building main platforms so that the city becomes an important trading center". (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/20/1-5-1911).

On the 14th of August, 1912, an agreement was made between the German bank and Lynch Company to set forth transportation terms. However, the Ottoman government objected this agreement because it is against the terms of the concession right. Therefore, the German company Lynch suggested indulging the Ottoman company in the agreement and establishing a new Belgium company which undertakes negotiations and agreement with the Ottoman government to transport the construction materials. (BOA. HR. SYS, 111/23/14-8-1912). This company was called River Transportation Company in the East. Its capital which amounts to 1,500,000 million Francs comes Lynch Company and the German Bank (Lughat Al-Arab, 1912). The former Ottoman minister informed the Ottoman government about the talks between Baghdad Railway Company and Lynch to make an agreement to transport the equipment of the railway and stop the objection raised by Lynch and Britain against the project of Baghdad railway and the German company. He informed it, moreover, that the German Bank manager Gwiner was thinking that through this agreement, it is probable that the hostility of the British financial offices to the German project will end via indirectly providing a sum of money to Lynch, one of the main opposition bodies to this project. (BOA. HR. SYS, 111/23/14-8-1912). However, the 1912 agreement did not coincide with the British interests as it did not increase the British domination in the Iraqi rivers. (Ssada Babel, 1914). This agreement was not executed as it was canceled in 1913.

The British stance towards the German attempts to extend the railway from Basra to the Arab Gulf

After the line reaches Baghdad, Germany wanted to extend it to the Arab Gulf and build a port in Kuwait. However, Britain objected fearing that this would affect its commercial and strategic interests. Britain considers the Arab Gulf a crossing gate to India and when Germany builds a railway across the Arab Gulf, this would weaken the British status there. Britain had been in the Gulf years ago and it had interests and agreements and accords with the Sheiks there. Therefore, it will not allow Germany to penetrate the Arab Gulf. Hence, Lord Curzon argued that "I do not wish the railway to be extended from Baghdad to the Arab Gulf as this will lead to great damages to our trading and strategic interests there. I am not sure that our trade would benefit from building this line, on the contrary the line would do harm to our trade. In addition, I do not wish the line to go further than Baghdad. I am afraid that even if the line is built, trading would still be through steamboats. Our

¹Aslan or Arslan in Turkish means Lion in English.

political interests are not restricted in the Gulf only, or from the Gulf to Basra, or from Basra to Baghdad, they extend in the whole region until Baghdad.” (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911). Hence, the principle of the British policy is not allowing the growth of any rivalry political influence in the Gulf water without a recognition from Britain. (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-5-1911).

As for the effect of the railway on Britain commercial interests, a gloomy picture was drawn of the future awaiting the British and Indian trading, which amounts to 1000000 pounds. It uses the ships throughout the Gulf to be delivered to Baghdad by steamboats through Tigris then by convoys to Iran. The British and Indian trading to Baghdad amounted to 90% .(BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911).

Britain realized that the German goal in Kuwait is political, not commercial, and building a port there requires high costs. Hence, the question is why Germany wishes to go to Kuwait and build a line across the desert to be used for commercial purposes? The only probable reason is that it wishes to penetrate the Arab Gulf to threaten the British status there, notwithstanding the British suspicions concerning the German intent to build a port in Kuwait to serve the railway that extends from the Bosphorus to that port. (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/20/1-5-1911). A British politician mentioned that even if the port was built in Kuwait, commercially several ships would use the river to Basra and carry cargoes below Baghdad instead of using the railway. However, politically, Britain would find its status in the Gulf threatened and its colony in Kuwait weakened.(BOA. HR. SYS, 110/20, 18-8-1911).

Should the railway be extended to the Arab Gulf, Britain thought of indulging other European countries with Germany fearing the hegemony of the latter on the project, notwithstanding the fact that Germany had plans to develop great parts of Iraq. (BOA. HR. SYS, 95/32/23-3-1911).

After certain negotiations and discussions concerning extending the railway to the Gulf, the Ottoman government suggested in 1910 the establishment of a new company to build the end of the railway. The Ottoman would have a share of 40% in this company and each of Britain, Germany and France would have a share of 20% . A port would be built at the end of the railway and it would be under the control of the new company. Moreover, trading would be free and unconditional for all nations. Should the lines be extended to Kuwait, this should be done on agreement between Britain and the Ottoman government alone under certain terms. (BOA. HR. SYS, 11/25/29-7-1911). However, Britain refused this proposal and Freezer stated that “What is the benefit Britain can get from a company the biggest share of it is at the hands of the Ottomans and the Germans.” Therefore, Britain insisted that the end of the line should be Basra. In case the railway is extended to the Gulf, Britain should have absolute control on the its end. (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/20/1-5-1911).

The other threat of Baghdad railway on the British commerce comes through the promise of the Ottoman government to Baghdad-Berlin Railway Company to pay the expenses of the railway lines as a kilometric warranty via raising customs fees. However, the British government announced that it was unable to increase the customs fees as this increase would lead to facilitate building the railway which has a harmful effect on the British commercial interests long established in Iraq. (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/6/13-3-1911). For instance, Lynch wrote a memorandum to the British foreign minister Edward Grey in which he stated that the Ottoman government was able to get rid of administering debts in 1907. Therefore, increasing customs fees would guarantee a yearly sum of money of about 450,000 to 500,000 pounds. Moreover, the Topkapi Palace would do the best to apply these fees which were devoted to pay the deficiency in the balance of the Macedonian states and to find shares for the German capitalists in Baghdad-Berlin railway. He asked Edward Grey not to agree to pay these fees. (BOA. HR. SYS, 108/55/24-7-1907). Accordingly, the British government in these conditions would not agree to increase the Ottoman customs fees unless a satisfactory conciliation will be concluded concerning navigation and a solution for the end of the railway would be found so that the British interests in Iraq and the Arab Gulf would be guaranteed (BOA. HR. SYS, 111/25/29-7-1911).

The German Navigation Activity in Iraq and the British Stance

In 1896, Germany established Wonckhaus Company, after its founder Robert Wonckhaus, as a nucleus in the Arab Gulf (Al-Assadi, 2001). To keep pace with the increase in the German transportation processes in Iraq, it was obliged to depend on a new navigation line in addition to the other German lines. Moreover, it depended on a new navigation line for the French and British transportations through Bombay (Al-Jurani, 2002). For that purpose, in 1906, it built the Hamburg-America line and steamships started using this line to Basra in the same year. This had ended the monopolization of the British navigation lines of sea transportation (Al-Saadoon, 2006). Moreover, it had caused a competition between the two

parties which led to decreasing transportation fees. For instance, Germany began paying less for transporting goods to Basra than that it used to pay to the British companies (Al-Samarai, 1973). Furthermore, cargoes of the German ships to Basra port ranked the second after the British ships. The German commercial activity led to increasing transportation processes by Lynch Company between Basra and Baghdad (Salih, 1968). As a result of increasing the German commercial transportation processes to Iraq, Robert Wouckhaus Company was obliged to move its headquarters from Bushaher to Basra so that the Hamburg-America Line there stopped (Al-Jurani, 2002).

The Hamburg-America Line was supported by the German government which shouldered its funding through The Deutsche Orient Bank (Al-Assadi, 2001). And to show the size of the German-Iraqi commercial transportation, Basra German Commercial Agency informed the commercial companies in Baghdad in April, 1906 that the three steamships affiliated to The Hamburg-America Line were no longer able to transport more cargoes (Al-Jurani, 2002). Thus, Britain feared the German threat to its commercial and navigation interests in the south of Iraq, particularly, after the German attempted to establish navigation interests in the Iraqi rivers (Oinham, 2004). For instance, F-Moral, representative of the German Commercial Chambers, attempted to win two concessions from the Ottoman government to build a navigation line on Tigris. In addition, the German ambassador in Istanbul showed the interest of his government in building navigation interests on Tigris and the Euphrates (Hasan, 1975). Moreover, Nicholson, the British Minister for Foreign Affairs, described the German attempts to conquer the region in the Mesopotamia saying that "the German automatically controlled Baghdad railway and they were seeking a control over the river navigation as well. If they win the oil concession in the Mesopotamia and Iran, they would not fail gaining big political influence at the expense of Britain in regions of utmost significance for India (Hiller, 1996).

The British warships were observing the German activity in Shatt Al-Arab. They used to apply medical detention and inspection on ships entering the river under the pretext of protecting this river from pirating actions (Al-Assadi, 2001).

As a result of the expansion of the German influence in the regions under the British control, a British politician stated that "The danger threatening our trade is not the competition of the railway for river transportation. It is that we are expecting a German attack in the future. The German will be heading to Iraq. The railway will bring the German settlers and between Baghdad and Mosul, about 20 stations will be built. Each of these will represent a nucleus for a German settlement. Moreover, the German chose the locations that contain minerals such as oil, iron and sulfur. We expect that the German arrivals in the region will be tremendous within the coming few years. It is time now to gain new concessions from the Ottoman Government by adding a new steamship and coaches for each ship. We also have to urge the Ottomans to merge their steamships within Lynch Company. The suffering of the British trading should not continue further and the Ottomans do not have the money to put new ships in Tigris. Hence, they should accept the aid from somebody. This help cannot be better than that of Britain. Britain in Istanbul should awake". (BOA. HR. SYS, 110/20/16-8-1911).

Results

Germany used the railways as a means to penetrate the east and gain colonies. It directed its attention towards Iraq dreaming of its fortunes, particularly, the oil.

The Ottoman state represented by Sultan Abdul Hammed II welcomed building the railway for its political and economic significance. Economically, the railway would add an additional revenue for the Sultan's safe. Politically, the railway will facilitate the mobilization of the military troops to maintain security.

Germany experienced a great pressure on the Topkapi Palace because it was trying to gain commercial control and political influence. When the Ottoman state becomes weak, Germany will control its fortunes.

Building the railway leads to a great damage to the British commercial, political and strategic interests, which means removing Britain from the top position.

The British blocking of any project which threatens its trade and status represents a proof of the size of the influence it reached.

The Ottoman state's agreement to build foreign projects on its lands opened the way for the foreign penetration and, consequently, caused the collapse of the Ottoman state.

Appendices

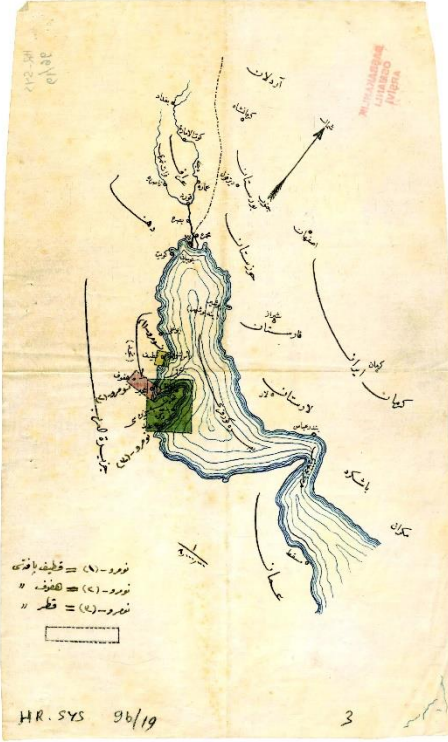
Appendix (1): Map showing the locations which Baghdad-Berlin Railway crosses (BOA.HRT, 1225/1)



Appendix (2): Map of Baghdad-Berlin Railway (BOA.HRT. 1614/2/ 2-4-1911.



Appendix (3): Map showing borders of Basra with the Arab Gulf and Persia. (BOA. HR. SYS, 96119).



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Combating Overweight and Obesity among School Children and Adolescents through Student Counselling in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

Overweight and obesity are health problems that can affect many children and adolescents around the world. The literature has identified that the prevalence of overweight and obesity is high in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Saudi Arabia) in children and adolescents attending schools in Saudi Arabia. Student counselling practices can be a cost effective way to help students to deal with overweight and obesity in Saudi schools. The aim of the study was to conduct an evidence-based review of the literature in order to suggest new approaches to applying student counselling services and programmes in order to directly combat overweight and obesity in schools in Saudi Arabia. The study used a non-empirical review of the literature on overweight and obesity and on student counselling in the United Kingdom and Saudi Arabia. The study argues that in theory student counsellors in schools in Saudi Arabia are ideally placed to help to directly address and reduce the existing high prevalence of overweight and obesity in youths and adolescents attending schools in Saudi Arabia. This could be done using a combination of dietary interventions and counselling methods. The research study concludes that student counselling in schools in Saudi Arabia could potentially be used to directly help to combat and reduce levels of overweight and obesity among school children and adolescents in the long term.

Keywords: Student counselling; overweight; obesity; children; psychotherapy; behavioural therapy; cognitive therapy; health; diet; schools; Saudi Arabia.

Introduction

The Global Burden of Disease (GBD) 2015 Study systematically estimated the prevalence of overweight and obesity among children (<20 years of age) and adults between 1980 and 2015 (Obesity Collaborators, 2017). It was estimated that in 2015 107.7 million children (prevalence of 5.0%, uncertainty level, 101.1 to 115.1) and 603.7 million adults (prevalence of 12.0%, uncertainty interval, 592.9 to 615.6) were obese worldwide (Obesity Collaborators, 2017). It was also noted that the prevalence of obesity among children and adults has doubled in 73 countries since 1980, it has shown a continuous increase in most other countries, and the rate of childhood obesity in many countries has been greater than the rate of increase in adult obesity (Obesity Collaborators, 2017).

Statistics released by the World Health Organization (WHO) (2010) showed the prevalence of obesity was 23% for males and 36% for females in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Saudi Arabia). These represent highly significant prevalences of obesity in Saudi Arabia. As will be seen, other studies have shown that there has also been an alarming rise in the prevalence of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia. Al-Enazy *et al.* (2014) note that obesity at any age will increase the risk of persistence of obesity at subsequent ages. Indeed, another survey noted that approximately one-third (26% male, 41% female) of obese Arabic-speaking pre-school children and half (42% male, 63% female) of obese school-age children were also obese at adulthood. In practice this would seem to indicate that unless overweight and obesity is tackled effectively at a young age, there is an increased likelihood that overweight and obese children and adolescents will continue this trend on into adulthood. This is highly problematic from a health perspective, as the WHO (2016) states that:

Childhood obesity is associated with a higher chance of obesity, premature death and disability in adulthood. But in addition to increased future risks, obese children experience breathing difficulties, increased risk of fractures, hypertension, early markers of cardiovascular disease, insulin resistance and psychological effects.

This article seeks to highlight the spiraling prevalence levels of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia. It will show how the complex interaction of social determinants that affect overweight and obesity levels in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia make tackling overweight and obesity highly difficult in practice. The article will also show how student counsellors in schools in Saudi Arabia could in theory be used to bring about a significant change in prevalence levels of overweight and obesity in Saudi schools. The first part of the article will provide an overview of school counseling practices, the second part will outline the prevalence of overweight and obesity around the world, the third part will provide an overview of overweight and obesity in Saudi Arabia, and the fourth part will show how overweight and obesity can be combated through student counseling in Saudi Arabia.

School Counselling Practices

The United Kingdom (UK) Department for Education (2015) states that although mental health issues are relatively common (e.g. up to 10% of 5 to 15 year old school pupils experience them), many children and young people do not always get the help that they need as quickly as they should. Consequently it is observed that issues such as depression, anxiety, low mood, conduct disorders, and eating disorders can significantly impact on the happiness and future life chances of such children and young people (Department for Education, 2015). The WHO (2014) defines mental health as a state of wellbeing in which every individual recognises his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her own community.

Good mental and emotional wellbeing is viewed as an integral part of the personal development of children and young people, so when this development is inhibited in some way counseling can be used to address this inhibition (Department for Education, 2015). Counseling is defined to mean "...a mental health intervention that children or young people can voluntarily enter into if they want to explore, understand and overcome issues in their lives which may be causing them difficulty, distress and/or confusion" (Department for Education, 2015, p.16). The British Association for Counselling & Psychotherapy (BACP) note that in Great Britain nearly 80,000 children and young people are seriously depressed, and around three children in every class have a diagnosable mental health condition (BACP, 2015). School-based counseling is defined as:

...a professional activity, delivered by qualified practitioners in schools. Counsellors offer troubled and/or distressed children and young people an opportunity to explore and understand their difficulties within a relationship of agreed confidentiality (BACP, 2015, p.1).

It has been noted that counseling and psychotherapy involve professionals focusing on encouraging people to talk about their problems and implementing change through these discussions (Rutten and Hulme, 2013). In practice it is also noted that there a range of theoretical models of counseling, with the most well known models being psychodynamic, person-centered and cognitive-behavioural approaches (Rutten and Hulme, 2013). School-based counseling is now one of the most widely recognised forms of psychological therapy for children and young people in the UK, and there are between 70,000-90,000 cases seen in UK secondary schools every year (BACP, 2015). It is noted that counseling in schools has proven to be a highly effective method of support for tens of thousands of troubled children and young people who are experiencing emotional health difficulties (BACP, 2015).

For example, counseling is beneficial because it can: (1) reduce the psychological distress that children and young people experience owing to them having to face a range of difficulties such as bullying and bereavement; (2) support young people who are having relationship problems with family and friends; (3) help young people who are having difficulty managing their emotions such as anger or depression (Department for Education, 2015). School pupils have also reported improvements in their ability to concentrate, study and learn after undergoing counseling, as well as school pupils reporting an increased motivation for school and schoolwork (Department for Education, 2015). In practice school-based counseling can help children and young people to better cope with bullying, family-related matters, emotional problems, anxiety, depression, self-harm, suicide, mental health issues, and emotional and behavioural difficulties (Phillips and Smith, 2011). This is important because emotional and behavioural difficulties may lead to several negative outcomes such as substance abuse, unemployment, school exclusion, criminal activity, social withdrawal, bullying, fighting, compulsive lying, truancy, vandalism, cruelty to people or animals, and destruction to property (WHO, 1992).

The counsellor's role covers a range of areas such as: (1) listening in a non-judgemental and patient way; (2) helping an individual to make choices and changes; (3) viewing problems from the individual's point of view; (4) helping individuals

view issues more clearly and from alternative viewpoints; and (5) helping to minimise confusion (BACP, 2004). Counselling skills may include being empathic, helping people to feel valued and understood, and listening to people in a non-judgmental way (Welsh Government, 2008). These counseling skills may be used by people who work with children and young people in roles such as teachers, school nurses, youth workers and social workers (Welsh Government, 2008).

Although there is strong support to be found in the literature for the benefits of school-based counseling, there are others who have objected to this type of counseling. For example, a research study undertaken by Montgomery (2003) found that a small minority of teachers felt that counseling was not appropriate within an educational environment as they believed that pupils would use it as an excuse to get out of lessons and as a way of exploiting the system. A study undertaken by Polat and Jenkins (2004) also noted that some teachers saw school-based counseling as a way of avoiding lessons, and therefore suggested that it should be offered out of school hours. Kerry (2001) argued that the counseling of students in schools might in theory lead to tensions within the schools. Kerry (2001) explained that counselors are meant to act in a non-judgmental way which might be taken to mean that they condone the actions of students. However, teachers require to instill authority within the classroom setting and this often includes the use of sanctions, and so teachers might perceive counseling staff as undermining their authority (Kerry, 2001). Consequently, when evaluating the use of school-based counseling it is important to note the context in which it will be undertaken in order to aim to ensure that counseling will be beneficial for the students and not negatively affect the school environment in any way.

Overweight and Obesity

The UK National Health Service (NHS) notes that the term 'obese' describes a person who is very overweight with a lot of body fat (NHS Choices, 2017). In the UK it is said that obesity is a common problem estimated to affect around one in every four adults and around one in every five children aged 10 to 11 (NHS Choices, 2017). Obesity is generally caused by the consumption of excess calories (e.g. fatty and sugary foods), and the excess energy is stored by the body as fat (NHS Choices, 2017). Overweight and obesity can be measured through the use of the 'body mass index' (BMI). This is a weight-for-height index which is typically used to classify overweight and obesity. The BMI is measured by dividing a person's weight in kilograms by their height in meters (kg/m²) (WHO, 2015). An individual who has a BMI that is 25 or greater than 25 is overweight (WHO, 2015). An individual who has a BMI that is 30 or greater than 30 is obese (WHO, 2015).

In 2014 more than 1.9 billion people aged 18 or over were overweight, with 600 million of these people being obese (WHO, 2015). The WHO found that worldwide obesity has more than doubled since 1980, that 39% of adults aged 18 years and over were overweight (2014) and 13% were obese (WHO, 2015). It was also found that 41 million children under the age 5 were overweight or obese (2014), and that most of the world's population live in countries where overweight and obesity kills more people than underweight (WHO, 2015). Alqarni (2016) states that the determinants of obesity include: (1) family history of obesity; (2) diet; (3) marital status; (4) diagnoses of diabetes; (5) physical activity; (6) education; (7) age; (8) hypertension; (9) high glucose level; (10) eating habits; (11) sleeping interruptions; and (12) genetic factors. Alqarni (2016) states that the consequences of obesity include: (1) cardiovascular diseases; (2) cancers; (3) hypertension; (4) hypercholesterolemia; and (5) Ischemic heart disease. Obesity may also lead to other serious risks such as type 2 diabetes, coronary heart disease, some types of cancer (e.g. breast cancer, bowel cancer), and stroke (NHS Choices, 2017). It can also lead to other conditions such as depression and low self-esteem (NHS Choices, 2017).

Boodhna (2013) observes that there is considerable evidence that links childhood overweight and obesity with a number of long-term and immediate physiological and psychological health risks. Boodhna (2013) notes that childhood and adolescent obesity can continue on into adulthood, with more severe and well-established health risks such as middle-age mortality and a range of chronic diseases in adult life. Research studies have identified high levels of adolescent dissatisfaction with body size and shape, and an increased prevalence among girls (Gustafson-Larson and Terry, 1992; Hill, Draper, and Stack, 1994; Braet and Wythooge, 2000). Other negative psychological effects linked with overweight and obesity include low self-esteem, low self-image and depression (Sjoberg, 2005; Comette, 2008).

Overweight and Obesity in Saudi Arabia

Overweight and obesity have been linked to more deaths around the world as compared to underweight (WHO, 2015). However a scoping review of the literature has identified that overweight and obesity in Saudi Arabia is reaching chronic levels, among children, adolescents, and adults. El-Hazmi and Warsy (1997) conducted a research study of 14,660 adult Saudi males and females in Saudi Arabia. The study found that 27.98% out of a sample of 1033 males present in the

Western Region were overweight, and 16.55% of these were obese (El-Hazmi and Warsy, 1997). Out of a sample of 1358 females, 24.15% of those were found to be overweight, and 21.8% of these were found to be obese (El-Hazmi and Warsy, 1997).

Al-Nuaim (1996) undertook a research study that demonstrated that out of 9,061 children (6-18 years) attending public schools in Saudi Arabia, the prevalence of overweight (11.7%) and obesity (15.8%) were very high. Al-Nuaim (1996) noted that the findings of a high prevalence of childhood obesity called for an early health education programme on the appropriate choice of diets for growth, health and longevity. The research study carried out by El-Mouzan *et al.* (2010) used Saudi reference data to show that out of 19,317 children and adolescents studied, the prevalence of overweight (21.3%), obesity (9.3%), and severe obesity (2.0%) were all significantly high. El-Mouzan *et al.* (2010) concluded that it was essential that some type of action be taken in order to try to prevent a rise in the significant number of overweight and obese children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia.

Al-Hazzaa (2012) undertook a longitudinal study (10 years) of 2,906 school children (14-19 years) in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia. The study found that young children and adolescents had less active lifestyles, with less physical activity levels and with increasingly sedentary lifestyles owing to sedentary activities such as watching television or video (Al-Hazzaa, 2012). Al-Hazzaa (2012) believed that it was absolutely vital that the Saudi Government should make obesity a national priority in order to promote more healthy and active lifestyles for children and adolescents in Saudi schools. Al-Hazzaa *et al.* (2014) carried out a school-based multicentre cross-sectional study from 2009 to 2010 in three major cities in Saudi Arabia: Al-Khobar, Jeddah, and Riyadh.

The study sampled 1,401 male secondary school students and 1,507 female secondary school students (aged 14 to 19 years) (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014). The study found the prevalence of overweight in males was 19.5% and in females was 20.8%, whilst the prevalence of obesity in males was 24.1% and in females was 14% (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014). Al-Hazzaa (2014) stated:

It is concluded [*sic*] that the proportions of overweight, obesity, and abdominal obesity, observed among Saudi adolescents were remarkably high. Such high prevalence of overweight and obesity is a major public-health concern (p.634).

A study carried out by Al Saleh (2013) sampled 1,000 children of Saudi nationality aged 2-14 years who visited the National Guard Comprehensive Specialized Clinic between December 2014 and May 2015. The study found that the prevalence of overweight in boys was 9.5% and in girls was 14.4%, and the prevalence of obesity in boys was 13.5% and in girls was 18% (Al Saleh, 2013). The study also found that the prevalences of overweight and obesity were the highest in the 10-14 year group (Al Saleh, 2013). A cross-sectional study carried out by Al-Dossawry (2010) sought to determine the prevalence and demographic characteristics of overweight and obesity in children in the Eastern province of Saudi Arabia.

The study sampled a total of 7,056 children (aged 2-18 years) from schools and the outpatient department of a hospital (Al-Dossawry, 2010). The study found that the overall prevalence of overweight was 19.0% and of obesity was 23.3% (Al-Dossawry, 2010). It was also found that more than 50% of children aged between 4 and 18 years had weight above the 85th percentile. A cross-sectional study conducted by Al-Enazy *et al.* (2017) focused on primary school students in AlAbnaa schools based in Tabuk, Saudi Arabia. A total of 331 primary school students aged 6-13 years were sampled (Al-Enazy *et al.*, 2017). It was found that the prevalence of overweight among males was 7.3% and among females was 12.4%, whilst the prevalence of obesity among males was 17.4% and among females was 20.9% (Al-Enazy *et al.*, 2017). Al-Enazy *et al.* (2017, p.17) stated "The results of the study provide alarming evidence-based data on the considerable prevalence of childhood overweight and obesity among primary school children in Tabuk, Saudi Arabia."

Al-Saleh (2013) notes that over the past three decades Saudi Arabia has undergone an enormous lifestyle-related transformation, and that this has largely contributed to the increased prevalence of obesity in Saudi children. Al-Saleh (2013) believes that children in Saudi Arabia have become less active, as fewer children walk to school, and many of them spend a lot more time on sedentary activities (e.g. watching television, using computers, playing video games). Al-Saleh also notes that adolescent boys can drive cars which give them easy access to unhealthy diets (e.g. fast food restaurants). Al-Enazy *et al.* (2017) notes that there is evidence that the prevalence of overweight and obesity in Saudi Arabia is growing dramatically, perhaps owing to a tax of urbanization and increased sedentary life style.

Al-Dossary *et al.* (2010) also believed that children in Saudi Arabia had become less active, that few or none walked to school, and more spent time in sedentary activities such as viewing television, or playing computer and video games. Al-

Hazzaa *et al.* (2014) also agreed with these conclusions. They noted that the high prevalence rates of overweight and obesity must reflect major changes in lifestyle-related factors such as lack of physical activity, increased sedentary behaviours, unhealthy eating habits, or a combination of any of these factors (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014). Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, (2014) explain that the hot climate and high air pollution in major cities discourages outdoor activities and increases the prevalence of inactivity. There seemed to be an over-reliance on cars rather than walking for short-distance travel (e.g. trips to and from schools) (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014). Also, whereas previously communities in major Saudi cities were designed to support pedestrian travel in common daily activities (e.g. shopping, travelling to schools and mosques), newly modernized cities with large street networks totally discourages walking (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014).

Combatting Overweight and Obesity through Student Counselling in Saudi Arabia

The WHO (2016) notes that:

Overweight and obesity, as well as their related noncommunicable diseases, are largely preventable. Supportive environments and communities are fundamental in shaping people's choices, by making the choice of healthier foods and regular physical activity the easiest choice (the choice that is the most accessible, available and affordable), and therefore preventing overweight and obesity.

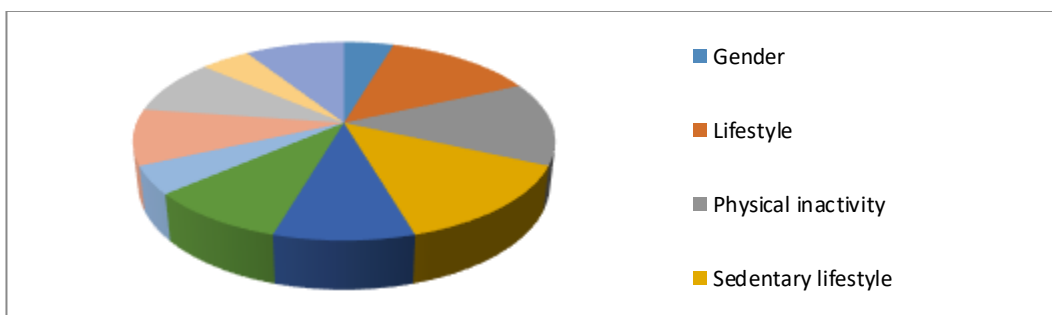
As has been noted previously, the high prevalence rates of overweight and obesity seen in Saudi adolescents reflect major changes in lifestyle related factors. Al-Hazzaa *et al.* (2014) argue that in order to combat childhood overweight and obesity fundamental changes in public policies, the food and built environments, and health systems are required, in addition to primary prevention through promotion of a healthy diet and active lifestyle. Al-Hazzaa *et al.* (2014) warn that if no drastic measures are taken to reduce the level of obesity among Saudi children and youths, it is likely that Saudi Arabia will experience a fair reduction in the absolute life-expectancy for the young generation. Alqarni (2016) states:

There is a dire need to raise the issue at the national level, and design efforts and strategies to combat obesity in the country, through involvement of all stakeholders, including policy makers, educators, healthcare providers, and individual citizens (p.5).

There would therefore seem to be a clear and pressing need to effectively address the alarmingly high levels of prevalence of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia. Al-Enazy (2017) observes that childhood is the critical period for the initiation of obesity and associated morbidity, and therefore this is precisely the time at which measures to prevent overweight and obesity will be most effective. Kann *et al.* (2006) state that school health programmes can significantly affect the lives of children and adolescents as they can improve their health-related knowledge, attitudes, and skills required to learn healthy behaviours. Dhaifallah *et al.* (2017) remark that children spend an essential part of their lives at school and it is plausible to acknowledge that schools can exert significant influence in achieving positive students' health and social outcomes.

They argue that the role of educational institutions in creating sustainable improvements in the health status of the Saudi Arabian community is crucial (Dhaifallah *et al.*, 2017). The school setting is potentially a highly apt environment in which to develop and set up an effective overweight and obesity prevention programme (OOP Programme) which would aim to tackle the moderating social determinants of obesity (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Social Determinants of Childrens' Overweight and Obesity



The WHO (2017a) states that the promotion of healthy diets and physical activity in school is essential to fight the childhood obesity epidemic. It states that:

Because children and adolescents spend a significant time of their young lives in school, the school environment is an ideal setting to acquire knowledge and skills about healthy choices and to increase physical activity levels (WHO, 2017a, p.1).

The WHO (2017c) generally recommends that individuals increase consumption of fruit and vegetables (as well as legumes, whole grains and nuts), they limit energy intake from total fats and shift fat consumption away from saturated fats to unsaturated fats, they limit the intake of sugars, and they become physically active, i.e. at least 60 minutes of regular, moderate- to vigorous-intensity activity each day that is developmentally appropriate. In addition to this, it is observed that a multisectoral approach is essential for sustained progress, as it can mobilize the combined energy, resources and expertise of all stakeholders involved (WHO, 2017c).

Pelletier (2015) carried out a review of the literature relating to the school nurse teacher's role in preventing childhood obesity at school. It was found that the review of the literature demonstrated that school nurses could have a major impact in preventing obesity (Pelletier, 2015). Effective interventions implemented by school nurse teachers included: (1) Hohman, Price, Sonnevaille, Rifas-SHiman, Gortmaker, Gillman and Tavaras, 2012; (2) Johnston, Moreno, El-Mubasher, Gallagher, Tyler, and Woehler, 2013; (3) Morrison-Sandberg, Kubik, and Johnson, 2011; (4) NASN, 2014; (5) Steele, Wu, Cushing, and Jensen, 2013; and (6) Soderlund, Malmsten, Bentsen and Nilsen, 2010 (Pelletier, 2015).

AlBashtaway *et al.* (2014) argue that school nurses are particularly well placed to take action to promote healthy behaviours within the school, and to help students in schools gain appropriate access to services that can help them maintain or improve their health. School nurses can act as health assessors (i.e. obtaining students' health history and performing physical assessments) and health educators (i.e. educating students by promoting a healthy lifestyle and modifying unhealthy behaviours) (AlBashtaway *et al.*, 2014). Indeed, it is noted that school nurses have an ideal opportunity to enhance health-promoting activities in order to reduce the risks of benign overweight or obese (AlBashtaway *et al.*, 2014).

In practice, the United States (US) National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE) states that schools can help students adopt and maintain healthy eating and physical behaviours in eight ways (Table 1) (Wechsler *et al.*, 2004).

Table 1: 10 Health Strategies for Schools (Wechsler *et al.*, 2004)

1	Address physical activity and nutrition through a Co-ordinated School Health Programme (CSHP) approach.
2	Designate a school health co-ordinator and maintain an active school health council.
3	Assess the schools health policies and programmes and develop a plan for improvement.
4	Strengthen the school's nutrition and physical activity policies.
5	Implement a high-quality health promotion programme for school staff.
6	Implement a high-quality course of study in health education.
7	Implement a high-quality course of study in physical education.
8	Increase opportunities for students to engage in physical activity.
9	Implement a quality school meals programme.
10	Ensure that students have appealing, healthy choices in foods and beverages offered outside of the school meals programme.

Al Saleh (2013) has argued that the establishment of pre-school, school, and adolescent health programmes, with an emphasis on increasing the number of hours of physical education and the consumption of healthy food, as well as incorporating health messages into the school curricula, will help to reduce obesity. The literature has identified that school nurses can help to implement healthy dietary intervention programmes in schools. However, the implementation of an effective and successful OOP Programme will require a great deal of time and effort from a range of stakeholders. This is especially the case in Saudi schools where there exist a broad range of social determinants of childrens' overweight and obesity which need to be specifically addressed.

Consequently, it is argued that the school's student counselor is in the ideal position to be able to implement and oversee the OOP Programme in schools in Saudi Arabia. The student counselor would act as the coordinator to coordinate with relevant stakeholders such as teachers, parents, physical education teachers, and school nurses. The student counselor is also ideally placed because they are able to provide ongoing and rounded support to students in schools. Al-Hazzaa *et al.* (2014, p.642) note that "Obesity is a complex disease with genetic and life-style factors, both playing important roles in determining a child's weight and body composition." If student counselors are able to speak and counsel students on a

regular basis they will not only be able to provide regular positive support regarding adopting a healthy lifestyle and healthy eating habits, but they will be able to build up a more detailed and comprehensive picture of the social determinants that may be affecting a particular child.

The use of student counselors in schools to combat overweight and obesity among school children and adolescents in Saudi schools is therefore highly recommended, as this would form part of the overall guidance and counseling programmes for school children and adolescents in schools in Saudi Arabia. The complex nature and interaction of social determinants of overweight and obesity demonstrate the need for a more holistic and comprehensive assessment of the health of children and adolescents in Saudi schools. Consequently, it is noted that within the specific context of Saudi schools, the implementation of an OOP Programme by school nurses alone might prove to be highly challenging. School nurses may understand the medical and health perspectives relating to overweight and obesity.

However, the broad range of social determinants of overweight and obesity in Saudi schools calls for a broader and more comprehensive understanding of social and behavioral factors affecting the prevalence of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi schools. Consequently it is recommended that student counselors who have regular and ongoing contact with students in Saudi schools, would be ideally placed to lead a multi-stakeholder OOP Programme in Saudi schools. Overweight and obesity can often be traced back to a number of behavioural, social, and emotional factors such as depression, comfort eating, bullying, and loneliness. Therefore student counselors are in an ideal position to be able to monitor students and provide regular and ongoing support regarding the implementation of health and healthy eating programmes.

Conclusion

The spiraling prevalence levels of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia is highly concerning. Moreover, the literature has identified a complex range of social determinants that affect prevalence levels of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents. These include factors such as increasingly sedentary lifestyles, poor dietary habits, over-abundance of fast foods, and poor quality physical activities. The complex interaction between these factors means that in practice children and adolescents in Saudi schools may find it difficult to effectively tackle overweight and obesity. Without concerted efforts at a national level it has been noted that Saudi Arabia will experience a fair reduction in the absolute life-expectancy for the young generation (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014).

The literature has identified that dietary and health interventions undertaken by school nurses have been successful in the past. Consequently, building on this literature this article has proposed that because of the broad range of health strategies that schools need to put in place in order to tackle overweight and obesity, student counselors are ideally placed to run and oversee special cost-effective programmes that are designed to effectively combat overweight and obesity in Saudi schools. Student counselors can work with other relevant stakeholders to oversee these programmes and to regularly communicate and counsel students on dietary and health issues, as well as a broad range of mental, psychological, and emotional issues within the student counseling framework. This is a strategy that would be likely to have a higher probability of successfully combating overweight and obesity among school children and adolescents in schools in Saudi Arabia.

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Literary Creation: Insights from Sanskrit Literary Critics

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Abstract

All aspects of literary creation, from creation to expression, have been recorded with perceptive insights and in minute detail by the renowned Sanskrit literary critics. The main topics dealt with by these critics are: the definition and classification of literary creation, viz., poetry, prose, drama etc; the figures of speech (*alamkaras*), the sentiments (*rasas*), literary merits and defects (*gunas* and *doshas*), style (*ritis*), and purpose (*prayojana*). They discuss important ingredients of literary creation such as creative talent (*pratibha*), erudition (*vyutpatti*) and practice (*abhyasa*), the problem of coincidence (*samvada*), inexhaustible resources, etc. A great literary creation is one that has great imageries, natural descriptions, exquisite miniatures, precious maxims and keen observations of men and matter, besides revealing deep understanding of human character. It exhibits precise phrasing, proportion and restraint, delicacy, sensitiveness, and above all, a profound suggestiveness. Sanskrit literary critics' views on the relative importance of word and sense in literary creation, their concept of poetry which has spontaneous expression of a deeply felt emotion as its essence, their appeal to make new literary creation, their views on what is essential for literary creation—all these are very valuable contributions towards literary creation. The main purpose of this paper is to help budding literary creators in any language irrespective of time and place by providing new insights.

Keywords: creative talent, suggestion, equipments of literary creation, aesthetics, Sanskrit poets

Introduction

Long literary heritage in Sanskrit language has resulted in creating a standard literary taste and due to this a very large number of works on literary criticism came to be composed in that Language. The entire field of Sanskrit literary criticism may be regarded as one continued attempt to understand and appreciate literary creation. All aspects of literary creation, from creation to expression, have been recorded with perceptive insights and in minute detail by the great Sanskrit literary critics.

The prime concern of Sanskrit literary criticism is a search for the "soul" of poetry. It recognizes the uniqueness of aesthetic experience and made it the primary purpose of literary creation. The main topic dealt with by the Sanskrit literary critics are the definition and classification of literary creation, viz., poetry, prose, drama etc; the figures of speech (*alamkaras*), the sentiments (*rasas*), literary merits (*gunas*) and defects (*doshas*), style (*ritis*), and purpose (*prayojana*).

There are different schools of thought in the field of literary criticism, each school approaching the subject from a different point of view. The main point of enquiry is what constitutes the essence of literary creation and how to achieve it? Anandavardhana (9th C.A.D), a renowned Sanskrit literary critic established suggestion (*dhvani*) as the soul of poetry. He came out with a new scheme, where all the different elements of literary creation are systematically and harmoniously assigned their own places. One of the main objectives of this paper is to understand and appreciate the literary creation as discussed by Sanskrit literary critics. They have shown deep interest in analysing the issue of literary creation and answered various questions related to creative talent, equipments that are essential, inexhaustible resources for literary creation, the problem of coincidence etc. This paper also focuses on the assessment of a poet made by a renowned Sanskrit literary critic that is highly beneficial to the budding literary creators in any language irrespective of time and place.

Creative Talent

According to Sanskrit literary critics, creative talent called *pratibha* is the foundation of literary creation. It is like a seed without which nothing can grow and one cannot create good poetry, prose, and drama without this basic talent. *Pratibha* literally means a flash across the mind—a revelation characterized by 'immediacy and freshness'. *Pratibha* is that faculty of the mind which is capable of original creation.¹ *Pratibha* helps a person to have visions, which are ever new, steeped in beauty, unforeseen events, incidents, concepts and ideas. It provides him/her with wonderful insights to correlate all complex things, arrange and rearrange. Literary creators do not merely see dreams and do not merely entertain ever-refreshing ideas; they translate them into reality. They experience intense feelings at first and then they recount their impressions when their mind is tranquil. Thus there are two aspects of literary creation process viz. having emotional moods and ideas at first (talent) and then communicating them through suitable words (expression). A conception, however original it might be, it is not appreciated until it is expressed in appropriate words or converted into literary creation. Philosophers hold that one possessed an intuition only to the extent one is able to express it, at least to oneself. A conception taking its rise in imagination of a poet will not have attained perfection at the very first flash.²

At best it will be like a precious stone dug out of the mine, with its native appearance hardly to be distinguished from that of a piece of stone. It needs polish before it can shine with full lustre; this it undergoes in the process of literary creation. That is to say, it is in being expressed or created that a creative talent defines itself.

Equipments

For literary creation one is expected to acquire all-round knowledge. Erudition (*vyutpatti*) is an aid to creative talent (*pratibha*) because erudition lends power of discretion. Erudition in the real sense is not the acquisition of wide knowledge; it indicates an in-depth study that leads to power of discretion, the ability to distinguish the suitable from the not so suitable material.³ Whether a person endowed with creative talent but devoid of erudition or training can produce good poetry is a topic that is discussed to a great length by many Sanskrit literary critics. People without formal education have been able to create good poetry. This is best explained through the statement of Kalidasa, the famous Sanskrit poet, who says that 'Creepers in the wilderness can surpass creepers in the garden'.⁴ There are instances of scholars well-versed in different branches of learning unable to compose a single line. Sanskrit critics mention two types of creative talent:

(1) inborn talent (*sahaja pratibha*),

(2) acquired talent (*aharya pratibha*).

Inborn talent operates due to impressions of the past births.⁵ Acquired talent requires hard work and rigorous training. Proficiency and practice are acquired through an effort; therefore, so far as, these are concerned a creative person is made. One cannot become creative until and unless one has got some intrinsic creative talent. At the same time this faculty alone is not enough for producing literary creations worth the name. Rajasekhara, a celebrated literary critic refers to eight equipments as necessary conditions for literary creation.⁶ They are:

Peace of mind

Intuition

Practice

Devotion

Participation in the assembly of the learned

All inclusive knowledge

Strong memory

Courage

According to Abhinavagupta the seven factors, essential equipments of the creation of good poetry are⁷:

Aesthetic susceptibility

Power of visualization

Intellectual background and close observation of facts of nature

Contemplative habit

Capacity to identify

Freedom from purposive attitude

Freedom from personal joys and sorrows.

Concentration, which means oneness of mind or single mindedness in which all other thoughts are withdrawn, is given due importance in literary creation as it facilitates the process. It is a method of withdrawing the mind from going to external objects. When the mind is fully concentrated, it can perceive new objects and new ideas can occur in it. Some Sanskrit critics advocate selection of proper time and place. Proper place according to them is the place free from human beings.⁸ Solitude or loneliness helps one to concentrate on the creative idea or its expression. Some writers suggest the early morning or fourth quarter of the night as congenial for any intellectual/creative activity. As it is fresh after night's rest, concentration becomes easier. There is no doubt about the fact that if the brain is to function at its best solitude is necessary. Anthony Storr says,

Learning, thinking, innovation and maintaining contact with one's inner world are all facilitated by solitude.⁹

It is to be noted that ancient Sanskrit critics while attaching the greatest importance to *pratibha* as the direct cause of literary creation did not lose sight of other factors that go to assist in literary creation. This corroborates an observation made by JC Shairp:

While Imagination, working in these and other ways, is the poet's peculiar endowment, it is clear that for its beneficent operation there must be present an ample range, a large store of material, on which to work. This it cannot create for itself. From other regions it must be gathered from a wealth of mind in the poet himself, from large experience of life and intimate knowledge of nature, from the exercise of his heart, his judgment, his reflection, indeed of his whole being, on all he has seen and felt. In fact, a great poet must be a man made wise by large experience, much feeling and deep reflection, when many conditions are present, then and then only can his imagination work widely; benignly, and for all time.¹⁰

In favour of above citation, we may consider the example Banabhatta (7th C. A.D.) the celebrated author of Kadambari and Harshacharita, two great prose works of Sanskrit literature. Bana has given a new literary dimension to Sanskrit prose. Bana was born in an affluent family and had also received an all-round education in sacred and secular subjects. Bana's real greatness lies in the delineation of various characters invented by him, the emotions felt by them and their reaction to the circumstances in which they find themselves. The reader is completely mesmerized by the picture presented to him and he feels that he himself had been experiencing all that. How Bana could give such realistic pictures of his characters? The answer probably lies in the fact that Bana on completion of the routine studies, went on a long tour to different regions, where he met different scholars and had a first-hand experience of the customs and manners of the people. He travelled with a big company of people that included forty-four members, each one with a special attainment in the arts and crafts of the time. Some of them were poets, a few were philosophers and quite a few were artists. His team included magicians and musicians, gamblers and dice-players, actors and scribes, Buddhist monks and nuns, jewelers and physicians, ascetics of different denominations, and story tellers, potters, shampooers, personal attendants, gold smith, painter, sculptor, drummer, singers, flute-players, female dancer, mineralogist, and snake charmer. Thus Bana had managed to get around him persons proficient in various arts, and representatives of various strata of society. In short, his travels contributed as much as his learning to shape his innate creative talent.

The rich qualities of Bana's head and heart are evident in almost every page of his literary creations. His perfect literary style must have been the result of his wide learning, especially in the literary art. He shows an intimate knowledge of the ancient Indian historical and mythological tradition embodied in epics and old narratives.

His mastery of literary theory is complete, extending to the most difficult figures of speech like paradox, alliteration, hyperbole and poetic fancy. He was also well read in all the schools of Indian philosophy and in all the miscellaneous arts and sciences of the time. Grammar, prosody, erotic, Buddhism and Jainism-all this formed part of his equipment.¹¹

Inexhaustible Resources and the Problem of Coincidence

All sorts of ideas and expressions are capable of being constituents of poetry. Namisadhu, commentator on Rudratas's Kavyalamkara says,

There is no such word nor any meaning, no proverbial saying, no art that cannot become a part of poetry. Indeed poet's burden is great.¹²

This gives tremendous hopes to those who are involved in literary creation. Anandavardhana the author of *Dhvanyaloka* says, There is nothing on earth which cannot serve as grist to the mill of a person gifted with genius and everything can be transmuted into a thing of beauty.¹³

He says further:

Though primordial Nature has been responsible for the creation of numerous worlds containing varied objects over a cycle of several centuries, it is not possible to say even now that her ability for the creation of new objects has diminished even by an iota.¹⁴

Therefore, there is no scarcity of resources for new literary creation. It all depends on possessing and nurturing creative talent. The very same thing that may look dull and devoid of beauty becomes full of energy and charming due to creative touch. Anandavardhana has a beautiful simile to explain this creative process. He says, it is just like the "spring season transforming an ordinary creeper into beautiful object"¹⁵

There are bound to be plenty of coincidences amongst great minds. But all of them should not be regarded by the wise as being identical. Further, Anandavardhana points out how they are not identical. Coincidence in creative persons is just another name for the similarity of one with another. It is of three kinds:

- (1) like that of a reflected image of persons,
- (2) like that of a painted picture of persons,
- (3) like that of living persons resembling each other.

Some creative works are like reflections of other works. Some others are like painted pictures of other works; still others are just similar to other works. An intelligent man should avoid the first kind of coincidence, viz., that like a reflected image, because it has no separate life of its own or, in other words, not even a real body of its own.

The second kind of coincidence, viz. that like a painted portrait also deserves to be avoided, since its soul is nothing but a nonentity though it has a body of its own. But the third kind of coincidence need not be rejected by the creative person at all, since it possesses a lovely body of its own which is real (as well as a distinct soul). It is not at all possible to affirm that two living persons who bear a close resemblance of features are identical with each other.¹⁶ Thus Sanskrit critics open up fresh and beautiful vistas for literary creation by immensely widening the scope of resources.

Anandavardhana says that there would have been only two or three poets in the world; no good poetry could possibly be produced without in some manner or other using some phrases, some expressions and some beautiful ideas from the works of previous authors. In fact, there is nothing new under the sun. Creative talent enables one to express a single idea in a thousand agreeable ways. Creative persons need not be under the impression that only new ideas should be thought after and that there is no virtue in using what others have already tried. Though thousands and thousands of poets write poetry, the scope of poetic art would in no way be curtailed by that, and the resources of creative persons like the resources of Nature can never be exhausted. Anandavardhana says,

The Goddess of Speech, Sarasvati, herself will provide the desired ideas for a good poet whose mind is averse to borrowing the belongings of another.¹⁷

Literary Critic's Assessment of a Poet

As mentioned earlier, Anandavardhana is the foremost among Sanskrit literary critics. His theory on literary creation and standards of literary criticism set forth in his *Dhvanyaloka* became a model for almost all literary critics in India. He emphasized the technique of suggestion and the importance of emotional appeal in poetry.¹⁸ He has laid down the principles to be observed by the poets in order to ensure emotional appeal and evolved the principles of literary criticism enabling a

critical reader to appreciate the artistic merits of poetry in general and suggestive poetry in particular.¹⁹ He assessed Kalidasa, the master poet in Sanskrit, in the course of his exposition of the theory of suggestion in literary creations. This assessment reflects the mature judgment of a true critic and throws new light on Kalidasa's literary creations. This assessment is certainly of considerable significance for a correct and full appreciation of literary creations.

Anadavardhana has made a comparative study of Kalidasa's works with their original sources and has come to the conclusion that the poet effected necessary modifications in the original stories and wove into them incidents and situations of his own invention with a view to produce sentimental charm. A crude story selected by the poet from a well-known source may have the potential to be the basis of a literary composition brimming with emotional beauty, but it may not be suitable for ready adoption without any modifications. In such cases the poet should prune the story with a view to leaving out what is not congenial for the delineation of the sentiment. Further, he should expand the story by suitable incidents which are the creation of his own poetic imagination. Anadavardhana mentions Kalidasa's works as model in this respect.²⁰ As an example we may cite the transformation of original Sakuntala story found in the Mahabharata into a world famous drama viz, *Abhijnanasakuntala* by Kalidasa.

As one reads the original story, one hardly thinks it is capable of supplying the greatest of Sanskrit dramatists with the necessary plot for the most renowned of his works. Yet the fact is there, that into this dry unromantic skeleton Kalidasa has breathed the life of romanticism and animation.²¹

Among such modifications, attention may be drawn to a few that are most significant. The simple and outspoken forest-bred maiden quite typical of the epic age, does not appeal to the poet as a suitable heroine, for delineating love in all its elegance, and he artistically transforms her into a dignified and romantic damsel susceptible to the influence of love and capable of sweet reactions to its impact. Judging correctly that the hermitage will not afford the proper atmosphere for the love intrigues, he has shifted the scene to the grove which with its natural beauty affords effective excitements of love. By introducing two new characters Kalidasa creates an atmosphere of sincere friendship and sweet sympathy in which love grows freely and steadily. Goethe, the master poet of Europe, has summed up his criticism of *Sakuntala* in the following lines:

Would'st thou the young year's blossoms
and the fruits of its decline,
And all by which the soul is charmed,
Enraptured, feasted, fed,
Would'st thou the Earth and Heaven itself
in one sole name combine?
I name thee, O Sakuntala! and all at
once is said.²²

This is a very significant tribute paid by Goethe. He says expressly that *Sakuntala* contains the history of a development - the development of flower into fruit, of earth into heaven, of matter into spirit. In fact there are two unions in *Sakuntala*; and the motif of the play is the progress from the earlier union of the first Act, with its earthly unstable beauty and romance, to the higher union in the heavenly hermitage of eternal bliss described in the last Act. This drama was not meant for dealing with a particular passion, not for developing a particular character, but for translating the whole subject from one world to another - to elevate love from the sphere of physical beauty to the eternal heaven of moral beauty.²³

Kalidasa has introduced new devices to achieve novelty in his descriptions. Sanskrit poets describe natural phenomena like mountains, rivers and forests not only in their material form, but also crediting them with an appropriate sentient personality and attributing to them the behavior of dignified human beings.

The beautiful places, the rivers, lakes, plants, hills, valleys, forests etc, captivated Kalidasa's mind, they have become vivid in his poems and dramas as a result of very skilful delineation by him. To Kalidasa Nature appears to be alive. She is

conscious. Nature is very sympathetic towards man. She respects the sentiments of man and moves with the perfect knowledge of the moods and fancies of the latter. This is evident in certain sketches, which the poet has presented.

Even a cursory look at the imagery in Kalidasa's works would prove that images appear themselves to him spontaneously as he is engaged in literary creation. In spite of a rush of images in close succession one after the other his sense of poetic proportion usually curbs any possible enthusiasm to overburden his poetry with imagery. But there are a few instances which indicate that he has succumbed to the temptation of overdoing the imagery in his compositions. Anadavardhana appears to exempt Kalidasa from this defect as he says even though Kalidasa has occasionally overdone figures of speech in his poetry, he takes ample care to see that they occupy only a subordinate position and never spoil or eclipse the emotional beauty of his poetry.²⁴

In lyrics, epics, dramas and other similar literary creations various sentiments are bound to be described; but a poet intent on enhancing the emotional appeal of his work should adopt one of them as the principal sentiment, assigning to others only a subordinate position.²⁵ It requires great skill and training on the part of the poets to harmonise different sentiments in their works, giving predominance to one of them and keeping others as subsidiaries. The description of conflicting sentiments and moods without prejudice to the principal one, offers a challenge to the genius of a poet. Kalidasa, in the estimate of Anadavardhana takes up this challenge and comes out successful in all glory. Another aspect of Kalidasa's literary creations appreciated by Anadavardhana is worth noting here. According to him the descriptions of Kalidasa have a freshness and charm of their own due to the predominating element of suggestion. While ordinary poets express their ideas in a crude and blunt manner and use words in their conventional meaning, Kalidasa successfully employs the technique of suggestion in his composition. The greatness of a poet depends on the suggestive character of his works. To achieve greatness, a poet should become conscious of the importance of suggestion and master the necessary technique and successfully press it into service in his literary creations. A poet desiring recognition as a great poet should cultivate mastery over the sense and the word that possess the power of suggestion.²⁶

It is only by the effective employment of suggested sense and suggestive expressions that a poet attains the status of a great poet; on the contrary, if he confines himself, in the conventional way, to the expressed sense and to words conveying the ordinary meaning, he is bound to fail in realizing his ambition.²⁷ A great poet with the spirit of suggestion should harmonise the ideas and figures with suggestion of sentiment in a spontaneous manner by a single effort of his mind without any distraction.²⁸

Kalidasa brought refinement and elegance to Sanskrit poetry. His style is chaste and pure. The laxity noted in the language of the earlier narratives (*Puranas*) is conspicuously absent in his compositions. The extravagant and scholastic diction of the later Sanskrit authors that appears to be artificial is also absent in Kalidasa. He had a unique skill in presenting his matters in a very precise and effective manner. Brevity, in fact, is the hallmark of his poetry. While other poets in delineating emotions compose a large number of verses and create a pathetic effect by bringing the sentiment to the brink of boredom, Kalidasa by his artistic insight produces a more attractive and delightful picture by reproducing the content within a limited extent. He has avoided elaboration in all the spheres, which is likely to mar the spirit of narration or bring monotony to it. He has displayed an unprecedented wisdom in maintaining restraint in all kinds of sketches, which is definitely a product of his deep artistic feeling and keen observation of beauty. This perfect harmony between sound and sense of expression and idea has characterized his writing.²⁹ Again he has no equal in imagery and simile and in natural descriptions. His miniatures are exquisite and precious maxims and observations are strewn over his writings and he reveals his deep understanding of human character in his works. He is unparalleled in his choice of precise phrasing, proportion and restraint, delicacy, sensitiveness, and above all, a profound suggestiveness, qualities that should pertain to all great literary creation, whatever its place or period of origin.³⁰

Kalidasa is famous for similes as the saying goes *upama kalidasasya*. Similes, metaphors and imagery are not mere embellishments; they are the doors through which the poet's vision reaches out on all sides, and reveals things in an undreamt of relatedness. They are not external additions but are of the very texture and making of the poet's expression. Kalidasa is exceptionally rich in similes. The main features of Kalidasa's similes are variety, grace, aptness and suggestiveness.

They are drawn from diverse fields, from flora and fauna, from the other aspects of nature, from human behavior, from old literature, myth and tradition, from the different arts, and from intellectual concepts and abstractions.

In the sphere of literature a word cannot exist without a significant sense and no sense can be imagined except through words. This togetherness of word and sense constitutes the texture of literary creation. But this also means that words are important in literature only in so far as they convey a sense, namely the intent of the poet, the emotional experience he intends to communicate. The poets often forget, particularly in the composition of longer poems and in narrative or descriptive passages, the relative importance of word and sense, and are tempted to play with words only.³¹ It is true that the play with words has an ornamental effect, figures of word like alliteration, rhyme, and the picturesque arrangement of letters which is particular feature in Sanskrit poetry, owe their existence to word-play. It has a charm of its own; but it is not true or high poetry by common consent. As a matter of fact, renowned literary critics had pointed out that poetry which has charm only of words and patterned arrangement of words, and of the manufactured ornaments of rhetorical figures, is of a very low order.³² Kalidasa was aware of this important concept related to the proper function of word and sense, and of the nature of best poetry and it is a very important insight in creating good poetry.³³

In conclusion, it may be said that the Sanskrit literary critics' views on the relative importance of word and sense in literary creation, their concept of poetry which has spontaneous expression of a deeply felt emotion as its essence, their appeal to make something new, their views that natural talent, profound and genuine scholarship and the continued practice are the essential factors for literary creation—all these are very valuable contributions towards literary creations and it is of great significance to note that ns of success in literary creation.

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Political Opposition in Turkey: An Analysis of the Oppositionist Styles of Necip Fazil Kisakurek and Nazim Hikmet Ran

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Abstract

Opposition culture in a society gives important clues about the socio-political structure of the country. The more a country welcomes differences in its social, political and cultural life; the more it comes close to a democratic regime. Opposition in Turkey, in its long history, has always been problematic because of the domination of statism not only in politics but also in other fields, such as social and cultural areas. In general perception of Turkey, separating from the central opinion has always been equal to chaos, which prevents the development of opposition cult in socio-political life. Supporting the refusal of opposition through some religious factors, Turkish political culture, starting with the Ottoman period, has settled such a limited understanding that it doesn't allow an ideal form of opposition to grow. However it is known that political opposition, if practiced well, can help a political structure to renew itself, to continue development, to have a dynamic management and to reflect the preferences of people as many as possible. All these important points bring the necessity to analyse the social and political opposition culture in Turkey deeply. Therefore this study first tries to take attention to the understanding of importance of opposition culture in the eyes of politics and society. By analysing striking actors in Turkish literature Necip Fazil Kisakurek and Nazim Hikmet, the study aims to underline how the perception of opposition gave harm to political and social development of the country. By the way, this analysis reveals the need for a better understanding and practice of opposition culture for further developments in Turkey. The study starts with a general theoretical framework of opposition; in which the definition and scope of political opposition, different types and importance of opposition culture are explained. In the second part, Turkish political culture and the way it perceives the idea of opposition is revealed from a historical perspective. At the last part Kisakurek and Hikmet, who were the men of letters touching Turkish politics by their poems and proses, are analysed. Seeing similar processes of the two, who had in real completely different ideological backgrounds, the holistic structure of state mechanism against all kinds of differences is to be illustrated.

Keywords: Turkish politics, Turkish literature, opposition culture.

Introduction

Opposition in general terms is a broad concept. It can easily be transferred to social and political fields. Opposition culture cannot be considered independent of social and political structure of a country. The meaning of opposition in Turkish social and political life has been complex. In its historical background, Turkish politics and society haven't been able to welcome differences. In order to analyse the perception of political opposition culture, this study touches two important literature figures that had been effective in Turkish politics for a long time.

The two men of letters, Necip Fazil Kisakurek and Nazim Hikmet Ran are chosen for the study, since both have been important examples of the opposition culture by social and political means. The problematic position of opposition culture in Turkey can be examined by various events or actors. The critical reason behind these actors is to show how Turkish settled perception has given harm to the notion of 'difference'; regardless of different ideologies of Kisakurek and Hikmet.

Starting with the conceptual framework on the concept of political opposition, the study will shortly look at Turkish political culture in the second part and lastly it will examine the poems and writings of Kisakurek and Hikmet. Through analysing their literature and showing their life experiences, it will be clear to see how a limited understanding of opposition has hindered Turkish political and social life. As the method of the study, literature review is targeted for the first two parts; and in the third part Kisakurek and Hikmet's literature works will be evaluated according to a content analysis procedure.

Opposition as a Political Concept

Social and political issues are not easy to define. This becomes more apparent in political theory; creates a relative nature in the determination of concepts. Political opposition is one of those concepts, complex in terms of the perception of different fields. Mostly, the term doesn't evoke a positive meaning; it is highly related with exclusion from the generally accepted perception. This may even indicate the difficulty of describing terms in a social and political environment.

As a part of political culture, political opposition is one of the most important topics in social and political sciences. Opposition, in the general framework, means opposing an opinion, attitude and behaviour, being different and disapprobation that view (Turgut, 1984: 3). The presence of two is enough for any opposition. The opposition can be seen at every level in social life. The opposition includes not only the level of conflict of ideas, but also the conflict movements that can occur at the level of action.

When the meaning of the general opposition is judged politically, it turns into a political opposition. In this case, the opposition takes on a political character that targets the existing social and economic construction, the political regime and its concrete objects. It is to counter or block the actions and policies of the government that represent different ideas and interests. To define political opposition in broad terms, it is a procedural act/phenomenon which can occur in a certain social form at any time, by opposing the current political regime and the socio-economic system, or opposing only one of them, or only those holding the political power and/or their activities; providing them with or without an alternative program or proposal, criticizing it by applying to various ways not within the legal limits or by legal means and struggling to create effects and consequences for the desired purpose (Turgut, 1984: 4-8).

In the identification of political opposition, government and government activity is considered as the main theme. Mostly, studies on political opposition include those movements within the parliament and related with power or actions of power in order to dismiss. A political opposition doesn't always mean an opposition among political parties in the parliament, but it can include non-parliamentary actions as well (Turgut, 1984: 135). Therefore, oppositionist can be described as any group of political individuals with the intention and desire to take the place of the executive group in any position. Therefore, political opposition can also be made either by organized or unorganized groups and individuals.

The reasons and the sources of political opposition, as mentioned above, can change. Among these various reasons are the following; to oppose the political regime and socio-economic order, to question all aspects of social construction, to resist only the socio-economic structure or existing regime, to object the pressure of the supporters if they appear to be oppressive, to reject the legitimacy of the person controlling the state or holding the political regime, trying to achieve the desired result by printing features that interest interests without targeting a structural change and rather than a clear and tangible target, just to make some positive returns (Turgut, 1984: 7).

The types of political opposition

The complex nature of political opposition makes it clear that, concepts as culture and opposition cannot be identified through a fixed framework. Therefore, it is easy to capture the unique formation that political opposition has. The context of opposition in every social and political structure includes a great variety of meaning. It is not possible to think of a single political opposition; rather there are different fractions or types of such opposition. The political opposition can be grouped by more than one categorization, which is; the constitutional/non-constitutional opposition, structural/non-structural opposition and parliamentary/non-parliamentary opposition (Turgut, 1984: 10-18).

For the first categorization (constitutional – non-constitutional opposition), the emergence and the organization of the opposition group may be contrary to the constitution. What determines the opposition is the way it is made; whether the opposition is carried out in accordance with the rules of the system or contrary to the rules. The constitutional opposition can also be defined as in-system, real and loyal opposition; on the other side the non-constitutional opposition can be called as off-system opposition. Because each state can have different practices in terms of constitutionality, the determinant in this categorization can change from one to another (Turgut, 1984: 10-11).

The determination of the structurality is the main motivation for the second categorization (structural – non-structural opposition). When the opposition aims to request for amendment of political structure/regime or request for change in socio-economic structure/scheme, there occurs a structural opposition, which is also called as the ideological or principal

opposition. On the other hand, if the opposition aims to request only for amendment of original politics of the power or government, the opposition is a non-structural one, which is traditional and pragmatic (Turgut, 1984: 12-14).

For the last categorization (parliamentary – non-parliamentary opposition), the opposition is based on those people who make the opposition, rather than the place where the opposition is made. What determines the difference between the two is whether the opposers are in the parliament or not. Mostly this category shapes the general understanding on the political opposition. The political opposition is mainly perceived as to take place only in the parliament. As political opposition includes any action by restricting the power by observing its decisions, behaviours and policies or by offering an alternative programme; these can also be practised by actors outside of the parliament. The degree of opposition in which it causes a change in the power of the government is the significant point rather than the actors who make it (Turgut, 1984: 15-18).

Political opposition as the guarantee of democracy

The simplest definition of democracy by Lincoln's expressions; "government by people and for people" shows a critical relationship between democracy and the culture of political opposition (Lijphart, 2012: 1). In the modern understanding of democracy, since it is the rule of public generally by the majority of the public, the importance of considering the interests of almost all people becomes more apparent. Therefore, the existence and the right exercise of opposition are directly related with the level of development of democracy in a society.

The opposition is vital for the existence of democracy. The relation between the formation of political opposition and political culture in a country becomes relevant with the development of democracy (Turgut, 1984: 92-95). Therewithal, democracy is necessary for the existence of legal and open opposition. The principles of democracy are also the conditions of the existence of opposition. At this point, it is easy to mention that both the political opposition and democracy are the guarantors of each other.

The influence of the political opposition is very important in getting democracy out of its absolute and narrow conception as in the early ages and gaining a contemporary and modern character (Turgut, 1984: 41). The point is that, opposition is one of the main motives of today's modern democratic practices. The existence of a strict, legal and alternative government that keeps the government's work under control is an important determinant of today's modern democracy; and it is provided by the activities of opposition groups. Therefore, it is certain that if political freedoms and legitimate opposition get out of hand, democracy soon ceases.

For the existence of political opposition constitutionally, democracy as apparent from the explanations above is the main necessity. Moreover, political opposition may need some socio-political support to occur. Some of them are the equality in the use of mass media, free and fair elections. High belief and respect for democratic values in the society is another important factor, because what the power understands from the opposition is a critical determiner in the settlement of the opposition perception in a society. The opposition needs to be regarded as legitimate as power (Turgut, 1984: 37-40). So, the understanding of opposition by power also conducts the understanding of the public and affects their attitude. Vice versa the opposition is responsible for shaping the way power and public perceives itself. The opposition groups need to define themselves clearly and observe the power carefully in order to create an ideal form of opposition in the eyes of public. Moreover an opposition, which is out of system aiming to destruct it, cannot be welcomed by power. Therefore, in order to take part in the system, an opposition needs to be systematic, constitutional.

By presenting the perception of opposition as a part of democracy, political opposition undertakes some tasks and duties. Supervision, control and directing power are the duties of the opposition for the government. Moreover its responsibility to the public is to represent the opposition in the parliament and to introduce an alternative managerial staff (Turgut, 1984: 43-45). By the way, the opposition party gives the public the impression that it is ready to handle power; to direct the country at any time and/or in case of the ruling party loses elections or resigns for any reason.

The characteristics of the political opposition become clear so far, which means the opposition is an organized, continuous, alternative, representative, participatory, competitive action (Turgut, 1984: 58-66). The organization of the opposition determines its intensity; when the opposition is concentrated in one hand, the intensity of opposition is high comparing to the division of opposition. The continuity of opposition means a durable position pursued by opposition parties in parliament and non-parliamentary actors outside. The fact that it is an alternative to power substantially identifies the role of opposition against the ruling power. This feature directly causes the competitive nature of opposition in the system. Especially in times of elections, competition is very intensive. The opposition as a participatory and representative agent is valid for any group

in the parliament. At this point, main areas in which the parliamentary opposition can intensify its activities are public opinion, elections, parliament, coalition processes, bureaucracy and interest groups.

Non-parliamentary political opposition

Studies on political opposition often deal with the nature of parliamentary opposition when analysing the types of political opposition and the procedures carried out. Non-parliamentary opposition as well as parliamentary political opposition has a wide range. Because it is not possible to limit the non-parliamentary opposition, its expansion is greater and its actors can vary. Youth and student groups, press, social media, intelligentsia, women, minorities, universities, workers, various occupational groups, unions and associations are some of these actors. Non-parliamentary opposition has many forms as; strikes (including not only worker strikes, but also actions referenced in other areas), disobedience with orders, decisions of managers and laws, invasion of institutions such as factories, universities, ministries, parliamentary (all of which include use of force) at various levels, non-participation in elections consciously; meetings, marches, organizing forums, seminars, open sessions, preparing papers and distributing brochures (examples of peaceful ways of political opposition) (Turgut, 1984: 138-139).

The cases in which social opposition is subjected to protest actions and some other peaceful means of seeking to achieve current and concrete objectives can be defined as non-parliamentary opposition. Non-parliamentary opposition has no goal and no institutional task as to seize power through electoral struggle. For this reason, the focus of the government is largely on system criticism rather than the ruling. Among the reasons of the emergence of non-parliamentary opposition include (Turgut, 1984: 140-145); inadequacy of traditional channels of participation in democracies and in particular of classical representation, the spread of politics into new and different areas outside parliament and the re-politicization, another way of questioning political power about what they did and what they did not, the incapability of existing political structures on responding to new demands in the social structure and revealing any kind of corruption at the management level and to put the public opinion.

It would be wrong to see parliamentary opposition as the sole representative and source of the political opposition. Non-parliamentary opposition can also be a major influence on power. Moreover, its task can be more difficult in the whole political culture. The main difference and the prominence of non-parliamentary opposition is that it emerges spontaneously, unlike parliamentary opposition (Turgut, 1984: 146-147). The non-parliamentary opposition also contributes to the functioning of pluralist democracy by enlightening the demands and problems that arise in social structures. In various ways of appearance, it is a critical source of the democracy culture. Necip Fazil and Nazim Hikmet can be given as the examples of this category with regard to the topic. Since these actors had never been the members of parliament and both of them were regarded as important representatives of the right and left opposition in Turkish socio-political life; they are to be evaluated in the non-parliamentary political opposition through their writings and worlds of thought. Before analysing their oppositionist tones and impact to Turkish policy, it will be appropriate to give a brief overview of the opposition in Turkish political culture. The understanding of the process on how Turkish policy presents an approach towards opposition culture is believed to contribute to the understanding of the actors mentioned.

Opposition in Turkish Political Culture

As a matter of political culture, the political opposition is directly related with what a society perceives from this concept and how it applies opposition. In order to understand the meaning of political opposition in Turkey, it is necessary to take a look at the settled culture in Turkish political experience, which has roots from the Ottoman Empire. Political culture that is shaped by the meaning attributed by Turkish society for the politics cannot be distinguished from Turkish social and historical memory. Hereof the existence of opposition, the practice of it, and its comprehension by the public are also related to this cultural memory.

Political culture in Turkey is collectivist as a whole. In a general framework, it can be said to have a statist reflex. The name of this "whole" may be; the state, the *ummah*, the nation, the public, the national will (Ogun, 2004: 36). Instead of its name or label, the functioning of political culture and its reflection to other areas becomes determinant. The political culture, guided by the state myth and bureaucratic administration tradition, takes its source from essentialist philosophy. All state mechanism is based on the single factuality or reality monopolism principle (Caylak, 2007: 142). On the basis of such monopolism, there is a power issue dominating the politics and culture. Such a political culture is maintained not only by state but also by the public. Even at the community level, there is no libertarian understanding of political culture.

The roots of the holistic political culture in Turkey date back to Ottoman period. The concept of *ordo seculorum* (*nizam-ı alem*) shaped Ottoman political culture (Caylak, 2007: 143). The content of *ordo seculorum* in Ottoman period is that, great significance is attributed to the state as a means of congregation. The interests of state are above everything. The system in Ottoman Empire was based on every nation's establishment of its own order. As a great power, the sultan or khalifa was obliged to adapt the order in universe to the social and political life. The opposition was concentrated on an enemy perception that declares any movement resisting the state as an enemy (Caylak, 2007: 143-144). Through such a practise, the Ottomans aimed to establish order among all nations of the empire; and this culture was brought to new secular Turkish state. As a guarantee of the general harmony of society, the state doesn't change its tendency towards a deviation from the whole, whether the rule is Islamic or secular. So did the new Turkish Republic. After the dissolution of Ottoman Empire, the new state mechanism continued the same holistic reflex with different actors under a different ideology, all of which deeply affected the opposition culture in Turkey.

Political opposition cult has a significant role as to provide a process of dynamic and vivid social production. An ideal political opposition can lead to dissemination of the opposition's understanding from a purely political assumption to a wider area as social life (Ogun, 2004: 301). However, the opposition in Turkey does not have a positive sense, not only politically but also socially. Opposition, associated with "fifth way" or a kind of heresy, has a widespread understanding that its existence will harm society and politics (Mardin, 2017: 180-183). The statist understanding in social and political life of Turkey has spread over many areas. Opposition culture is of the most critical ones with misleading sense that it has. Since the socio-political perception is limited by a holistic view in the country, even a slight difference is not tolerated; rather regarded as discriminator. This causes a distorted and sided power-opposition relationship. The opposition culture is guided by intolerance to the smallest departure that separates itself from the whole. Therefore, any opposing view is accused of as unrest, incitement, and disrupter (Mardin, 2017: 189).

The holistic view in Turkish social and political life is supported even by some religious motifs. Religion is used as an instrument in the formation of such attitude. The fact that Turkish political culture is knit with Islam affected the perception of opposition. The verses of the Koran, which describe the way of salvation in the Islamic community, are adapted to opposition in social and political means. By the way, any separation from the grand picture becomes a kind of sin. Moreover, as a consequence of the perfection of the state and the head of state, the opposition is almost united with the idea that they are against God (Caylak, 2007: 144-145). Such a relation between religion and opposition has made the opposition even more problematic.

The formation of a non-exclusive opposition cult is possible only if the opposition gains legitimacy in the cultural codes of the society. What the political culture in Turkey has made is to create a network of pressure and controlling over the opposition, therefore it didn't allow an inclusive understanding of opposition (Mardin, 2017: 175-176). The opposition could only be related with a kind of resistance to the rulers, to the limits of the power. It had no choice but to define itself through a resistance theology. Such a resistance has risks for the democracy in the country, because a healthy opposition is necessary for society and politics to evolve in the direction of democracy.

Supporting the central idea, which is the only truth for the state and society, have become the characteristics of the opposition in Turkey. Since the ruler-managed, centre-periphery or power-opposition relations are all shaped by the social and political stratification, the opposition cult has never developed (Mardin, 1992: 22). Even the political parties are established according to this stratification in Turkey. This was achieved neither in 1946, the date of the transition to democratic life in Turkey nor after 1980s, in which diversity and pluralism were provided by means of identity.

The power-opposition relationship was shaped in two directions in Turkish Republican period. The first one was based on opposition movements defending the market against government intervention and the other was opposition movements that defend traditions and religious beliefs against the state (Caylak, 2017: 148). With a brief look at the opposition experience in Turkish republican history, it is possible to capture the general perception of opposition culture. At the beginning of Republican period, Progressive Republican Party was the first opposition party against Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, the founder of the new state. The main argument of the party was based on the idea that gathering of all the forces in the parliament would lead to authoritarianism. Moreover, in 1930s Free Republican Party became the second opposition initiative, which could only exist as a guided party. When it started to leave from the desired guided party form, the party was forced to dissolve itself (Mardin, 2017: 178-179). All these were enough to see that opposition in Turkey couldn't be absorbed.

After transition to democratic life in 1946, all the oppositions against CHP (Republican People's Party) were united and represented in the DP. It means through DP, an opposition bloc was formed. Therefore, DP was a broad but non-homogenous opposition (Caylak, 2007: 152). In real, DP was not an opposition party. Defining DP as an opposing party is equal to accept its success as an opposition in Turkey's political culture. DP's case cannot be considered as a success of opposition because the opposition in Turkey has never had legitimacy in the eyes of the elite and masses. On the contrary, what brought the party its success was more than an oppositionist attitude. According to Mardin, "It would be wrong to define the DP as an opposition in terms of large masses in Turkey." (Mardin, 2017: 188). According to this view, DP and such parties have been the ideal examples of the dreams of rural areas against the representatives of the bureaucracy and the great tradition, for centuries.

The process that affects today's opposition culture, as seen, has a long history. In this respect, it is apparent that the level of tolerance for differences in Turkey is very low, whatever the dominant ideology is. Such problematic air causes a two-sided understanding as power vs. opposition. Making both sides confronting against each other, it is clear that there is no constructive political opposition mechanism in Turkey, but rather a dividing cult, settled in the veins of community. For the placement of opposition culture at the socio-political level, the synchronicity of social variables with institutional change is a 'must' (Mardin, 2017: 190).

Having a brief idea on the political culture of Turkey can make it easier to understand the two actors of this study. Necip Fazil Kisakurek and Nazim Hikmet are two important figures of their period as to illustrate the opposition cult in Turkey. Political repression in the country during the Republican period pushed thinkers into the fields of literature and culture. From this point of view, Necip Fazil as the representative of conservative segments and Nazim Hikmet as representative of the communist groups in the society were critical examples of intellectual opposition. As mentioned above, for the traditional political culture of Turkey, the side of opposition was in no importance; rather it was essential to remove any difference. At this point, Kisakurek and Hikmet, despite their totally different ideologies, were regarded as opposite to the state mechanism and therefore exposed to pressures. Thanks to their efforts, the two constitute an important example of this cult. By choosing actors from different areas, this study tries to show the weakness of the opposition culture in Turkey. In the light of these, how these two names developed their oppositionist theories as representative of critical segments in the country; and how they contributed to the opposition culture through their language and unique styles is aimed to be the focus point of the following titles.

Necip Fazil Kisakurek and His Opponent Language

Necip Fazil Kisakurek is one of the most important thinkers of Turkish-Islamic civilization, besides being a poet, play writer and novelist. Born in 1904, Kisakurek had the opportunity to improve himself thanks to the education he received both in the country and abroad (Okay, 2005: 9). Creating many works in different literary genres, Kisakurek had later touched to social, religious and political issues of his society. His bringing Islamist thinking into the forefront and his criticising the regime because of the anti-Islamist acts caused Kisakurek to be regarded as a great threat for the newly established state. Kisakurek was accused of being a long-time opponent under the structured authoritarian state, so he had a difficult life (Karatekeli, 2014: 4-20).

Turkish Republic, with the aim of spreading a new, modern understanding of nation, state and government, made nearly everything to suppress differences that are against its holistic position. In this respect, cultural publishing became important as a means of political critical discourse. One of the most important representatives of this movement was Kisakurek with his numerous works, in which he blamed the regime for erasing the history of society and trying to fill their minds with full of modern concepts, unfamiliar to the society. In his period, Necip Fazil Kisakurek became an important actor of intellectual opposition, with a conservative perspective.

As a political activist, Necip Fazil's real suffering began in 1943 when he started to publish *Great East (Büyük Doğu)*¹, in which Kisakurek gave his intellectual struggle against the political elites openly. He was accused of making opposition during the single-party period due to his writings in the journal. The journal was closed many times and Kisakurek was

¹ DP is a political party established on 7 January 1946, which remained in the minority in the elections held in the year it was founded and ended the 27-year single-party government in the elections held four years later (14 May 1950). It was an important political movement that formed the opposition bloc against the single-party government of CHP. Its ideological background was based on the unity of all oppositions in the country.

sentenced to prison several times; totally 3 years 8 months in jail. Moreover, his conflict didn't come to an end with Democratic Party's power. Even though the party gained the support of those, opposing to CHP's one-party government; DP couldn't meet with Kisakurek at the same ground. He constantly criticized the DP government in order to lead it in a moral way. The whole intention in his criticism was to save the DP from those cadres who couldn't get rid of the CHP mentality and to prevent the DP from being similar to them, when the CHP hatred in the country gained victory. However the DP government caused most of his sufferings by sending him to jail (Duran, 2005: 75-78).

The intellectual opposition through journal publishing united in *Büyük Doğu* which was a new initiative for the conservative communities. Kisakurek's critical plays addressing the repressive ruling; his books and poems trying to depict Turkey's condition; all attracted the interest of pious, conservative segments of Turkish society. Conservatism, which is exposed to the label 'other' in the early periods of the Republic, created a basis for the questioning of prototype regime (Emre, 2005: 48-49). As the advocate of this idea Kisakurek was, in the eyes of government, an opponent who discriminated himself from the centre.

"In the case of freedom, all humans unite / And freedom is captured by the Sultan of truth" (*Öfke ve Hiciv*, 237). If his language is started to be evaluated through some of his verses, what actually Kisakurek conflicts against becomes apparent. Rather than the existence of a unity among the public, he tries to make us question the formation of unity. Rather than the existence of freedom, he takes the attention to freedom captured by so-called truth monopolism. Choosing Kisakurek, as a critical actor in the understanding of opposition culture in Turkey, is significant to reveal the main goal of the study within the quoted lines.

He calls the situation, into which the Turkish Islamic communities were forced to drag by Kemalist regime² during the republican period, a *felix culpa*, meaning a happy fault (Kisakurek, 1969: 7; Kisakurek, 2014: 377-378). What the new state worked for was to create a kind of society, filled with Western morals, values and attitudes, according to Kisakurek. However he believed that no element adopted from the West could reflect the spirit of Turkish society. Therefore, any kind of reform movement that is contrary to the political, cultural, social and even economic structure of the Turkish-Islamic civilization is a kind of *Felix Culpa*. He didn't hesitate to mention that "the notion of political and social engineering of the new state made it easier for the West to transform the Turkish nation into a colony without even necessity of any military power" (Kisakurek, 1990: 206).

The language, the dominant tone of Kisakurek could be very harsh when criticising the government, which is the main reason behind his attribution as an opponent. His opposition operates to worldliness by spiritual means. "After so much historical sufferings and adventures, aimlessness has completely flopped down on us in the last period; it has affected our failures that are political, administrative, economic, economic and moral; and gave birth to today's scene" (Kisakurek, 2013: 34). Constructing his oppositionist ideas on to moral base, Kisakurek made us evaluate the process from a different perspective. In another phrase from Kisakurek, it is possible to see his tone; "Political, administrative, intellectual, scientific, commercial and legal ethics, together with morality, are at the last stage of the collapse..." (Kisakurek, 2013: 12). He compared the moral status of Turkish community in the process following the establishment of the modern state, with Roman and Byzantium societies, all of and he found them even better than Turks.

As understood from Kisakurek's expressions, the modernization project that started with the Tanzimat period³ turned into a colonization process with the Republic by spiritual means. Also in material terms (cultural imperialism), it was almost a semi-colonization process for Kisakurek (Kisakurek, 1952). In order to make a change possible in the government's practices which aimed to create a new Turkish nation from scratch, he formed an intellectual criticism. By harshly revealing what the ruling elites caused, he tried to develop a sense of opposition. "Knowledge, where can it stay when the cognition

¹ Kemalists are the ideological supporters of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, the founder of Turkish state. Kemalist regime is the ruling of CHP, started with Atatürk and continued by İnönü after Atatürk's death. The political framework of this ruling is based on Kemal Atatürk's ideals and principles.

² The Tanzimat, literally meaning reorganization of the Ottoman Empire, was a period of reformation between 1839 and 1876 under the reigns of the sultans Abdülmecid I and Abdülaziz. The reforms, heavily influenced by European ideas, were intended to effectuate a fundamental change of the empire from the old system based on theocratic principles to that of a modern state.

³ İsmet İnönü, who was elected as the second President of Turkey by Turkish assembly after the death of Atatürk in 1938 also became the Chairman of the CHP. He received the title of "National Chief" in the same year. It was a kind of declaration of CHP that İnönü became the sole determinant of the country's politics from then on.

is broken? ... You cannot find any place of the country's knowledge of history, philosophy, politics, law, economics or anything else on account of country" (Kisakurek, 2013: 13). For Kisakurek, such values are the main components of a society; the deprivation of society from these major morals can easily turn it into a vain.

Most of Kisakurek's opposition stems from moral, cultural, intellectual and religious concerns. Since he believed that all these factors were the determinants of political practices, formation of culture was of great importance. For this reason, most of his criticisms in his works were built on this notion. Basically, how the state mechanism restricted his thoughts create the main argument of this study. Since he started to reveal his ideological identity, Kisakurek was considered as a "man to be threw off" by the regime elites. The bitter days in which Necip Fazil was forced to live because of his thoughts can constitute the summary of the opposition culture in Turkey in the Republican period. Kisakurek, who did never hesitate to express his dissenting opinions against the government, was in the focus of Kemalist rule.

The process, in which Kisakurek struggled a lot, is an important sign of the holistic Turkish political system. Whatever its ideology is, the state structure has always been against different voices. Kisakurek's criticism of CHP and DP differs in theory but it can be perceived as the same in practise. His criticism of the CHP government was to oppose the change of society under the republican elites, who tried to create a new nation. Kisakurek aimed a structural basis. On the other side, his criticism of DP was based on the purpose of the restoration of lost values. His efforts were to have a better ruling system under DP, but he was misunderstood and this again caused a troubled life for Kisakurek. In this study, rather than blaming DP or CHP, it is aimed to understand the situation by looking at the settled perception of opposition in the codes of Turkish social and political life.

The Oppositionist Tone in Nazim Hikmet

Nazim Hikmet Ran born in 1902 is a Turkish poet, play writer, novelist and memoirist who is called a romantic communist or romantic revolutionist. He had made great contributions not only to Turkish literature but also to the social and political life in Turkey. Starting poetry at a very early age, Hikmet touched many subjects throughout his life with his poems; and formed a critical example of opposition against the statist political culture in Turkey. Hikmet's influence in various areas continues even today although it has been many years since his death.

Nazim Hikmet has been a significant actor in the analysis of Turkish social and political processes. His way of opposition was through his art like Kisakurek. He saw the art for society and even politics, but never for art's sake (Gok, 2009: 363-365). During his struggle, Hikmet never hesitated to express his oppositionist ideas through his poems. "I am a poet / I wrote poems for a year of rain / But / In order to start / My actual masterpiece / I am waiting to be the hafiz of Capital" (*Şair*, 1923). Quoted verses written at the very beginning of Hikmet's career reveal his initial oppositionist tone.

Nazim Hikmet, who wrote articles and poems in many subjects from everyday events to national problems, also started a war against the literary insights of the sovereign classes and the imperialists. Since he thought that real art should be for the people, through his works he pointed out the struggle in order to give a better world to the oppressed and the exploited; repeated many times that the guide of liberation was in Marxism. As a milestone in the shaping of his life, Hikmet went to Russia in order to see socialist regime with his own eyes. His interest on socialist ideas, the theme of rights of workers and so on appeared firstly when he was appointed in Anatolia as a teacher. After returning to the country, he became a member of TKP (Communist Party of Turkey). "I am a member of the Communist Party of Turkey since 1923; this is the only thing I glory. In the history of the world, it will be difficult to show a single author who is totally neutral and passive in the face of the problems of the age. It can be assumed that he/she is unrepentant and it can be said, but he/she can never be objectively unbiased." As seen in his words, Hikmet never chose to confront the central ideology and abstained from expressing his ideas clearly, even though he very well knew that they were all against the settled perception of the ruling elites (Rizayev, 2009).

When CHP's single-party government was under the influence of rising fascism in Europe, a repressive state policy was established. The state was promoted to a position "above the class" and a fascinating direction was introduced aiming at the unity of the party and the state under the leadership of the "national chief"¹. In a period in which the prohibitions and

¹ Barrasso (2013, September 11). Make the case for Europe. Daily News of 2013.09.11 European Commission - 11/09/2013. Retrieved from <http://europa.eu/rapid/midday-express-11-09-2013.htm>

pressures increased greatly, since it was already forbidden to propagandize communist ideas through the media in the 1925s, Nazim Hikmet was interrogated, arrested and subjected to various pressures.

"Deceased / Killed by fighting / Buried in the sun / We have no time to keep their math! / There is a flock / Flock to the sun! / We will capture the sun / Close, the capture of sun" (*Güneşi İçenlerin Türküsü*, 1924). These verses are important as the sign of Hikmet's opposing views against Kemalist rule that he claimed to have killed his comrades. The Law on the maintenance of order (*Takrir-i Sükun*), issued in 1925, hindered the development of ideas in the country; and stopped the intellectuals who would guide those left in silence. However, with the abolition of this law in 1928, new ideas became available to be written and discussed; and the process was initiated by Hikmet's poetry (Çandır, 2011: 167).

Starting to contradict with the party management, Hikmet and his oppositionist friends were dismissed from TKP, which caused Hikmet not to recognise the party and not to continue his communist struggle through it. The fact that he was thrown out of his post didn't hinder Hikmet to express himself through politics-oriented poems and plays. "Living is no joking matter ... / You will take life seriously / Such an extent that / For example your arms tied from the back and your back at the wall ... / You'll die for people / For people whose face you did never see / Even when nobody forces you to do so / Knowing that the best and the most real thing / Is to live" (*Yaşamaya Dair*, 1947).

As an oppositionist against the regime of Turkey and its ruling elites, Nazim Hikmet had a life full of punishments. He continued his propaganda against the growing state mechanism in the country through making his art during the times he was in prison. "My darling, they are enemies of hope ... / The enemy of developing life / Because they take death mark ... / And of course my darling / Freedom in my beautiful country / Will walk freely / Will walk with the most glorious dress, the boiler suit" (*Düşman*, 1945). He took advantage of the amnesty law and found freedom after 13 years and 5 months.

The notion of opposition in Turkish political culture didn't make any discrimination among ideologies, as mentioned before. Thus, what Hikmet argued was that the same statist structure was continued even after Democratic Party government. When DP won the power on 14 May 1950, it was a kind of hope not only for Hikmet but for all kinds of differences, who tried to survive against the regime. The only thing that changed was the main ideology of the state mechanism, as happened in the transition from the Ottoman Empire to the republican Turkey. Nazim, who reacted to Turkey's becoming a partner in American imperialism, this time criticised DP government through his poems and writings. When Turkish government decided to send troops to the Korean War in order to be a part of NATO against the USSR, Hikmet wrote the following verses; "Life is a bit expensive in our country / For example, you can get two hundred and fifty grams of meat / Mutton / For 23 cents in Ankara / Or two kilos of dry onion / Or a little more than a lice of lentils / Or fifty centimetres shrouded cloth / Or a man / For a period of one month / Who is about his twenties" (*23 Sentlik Asker'e Dair*, 1953).

Despite being removed from citizenship, Nazim Hikmet continued revealing his ideas via his art. As an answer to a newspaper article, which called him a traitor, Hikmet wrote a poem, which was kind of a measuring patriotism; "Yes, I am a traitor, you are a patriot, you are a patriot / I am a traitor, I am treasonous, I am treasonous / If your homeland is your farms / If homeland is your cases, your cheque books ... / If it is not to escape from stinking darkness / Yes, I am a traitor / Write with bold font sizes that / Nazim Hikmet is still continuing his homeland treason" (*Vatan Haini*, 1962).

The quotations from Hikmet are just a few of the works that show his oppositionist attitude. In most of his works he uncovered critical points, most of which caused his troubled life. In fact, Nazim Hikmet's reaction neither targeted the Kemalist rule nor the DP power. His oppositionist attitude was against the process, which adopted a holistic reflex restricting freedoms, regardless of the ideological status of the state. Since he never settled with the state's central perception, he, as a representative of socialist and communist groups, was considered an opponent. Because of these reasons, he wasn't welcomed in Turkish social and political memory for a long time. Due to the placement of opposition culture as a dangerous act in the depths of socio-political codes of Turkey, Hikmet can be handled as a figure, whose value was only appreciated in the eyes of the public after a long time.

Conclusion

Turkish political culture, with a collectivist structure, has been determinative in the formation of opposition. Due to this holistic understanding, neither political nor the social organs can easily accept the opposition; and opposition culture in Turkey cannot develop. The process started with the Ottoman Empire and is continued with the new republic up to today. Both in politics and society, anything different is considered to be dangerous. The opposition culture is never evaluated as to contribute to pluralism, but rather it is otherized.

Within this context, it seems significant to analyse the concept of opposition in Turkey by depicting past grief experiences in order just to avoid similar situations in the following period. Therefore this study, after having an idea on how Turkish opposition culture has come to its position, examines the experiences of two thinkers, Kısakürek and Hikmet. The two names contributed a lot to the opposition outside the parliament and they were suppressed by the ruling elites for several times. What is interesting is that the schoolmates Kısakürek and Hikmet, even though had completely different political views, were exposed to the same oppressions. The processes they had were similar; life in jails, crime of thought and prohibition of publications. The examples of their hard times can be increased, but the point to focus is the attitude of state mechanism against any difference, regardless of its shape whether conservative or socialist. Because of the opposition culture, which cannot find itself a proper place in Turkish social and political memory, the values of the two great men of letters have been understood too late in this country. Thus the importance of opposition becomes clear; allowing all differences and variants to occur freely will only contribute to the development of this country socially, politically, culturally and even economically.

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Country Branding: The Personality of Vietnam as a Brand

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Abstract

Country as a brand reflects the marketing orientation to manage a country image to achieve the desired country position. Country personality is an important marketing strategy for this purpose. The present study attempts to examine the country personality of Vietnam, a major emerging Asian country. This exploratory study adopts Aaker's (1997) brand personality framework to uncover the country personality of Vietnam. Data were collected with Thai undergraduate students. Results from a factor analysis reveal 9 dimensions of Vietnam's country personality including competence, excitement, ruggedness, sophistication, new generation, down-to-earth, elegance, originality, and spiritedness. A number of theoretical and practical implications regarding country branding and country personality can be drawn from the study results.

Keywords: brand, country branding, country personality, Vietnam

Introduction

From a marketing perspective, country branding reflects the idea that a country can be viewed as a brand. As a result, different countries may possess different qualities or characteristics as do different branded products (Anholt 2003). For instance, assertiveness and ruggedness may reflect the characteristics of the US, whereas the humble traits could be associated with Japan (Sirisoontorn & Polyorat 2013).

While country branding has attracted considerable attentions from both marketing managers and reserchers in Europe, North American and Australia (Pitt et al 2007), there has been relatively few studies conducted in the Asian context although this region plays an increasingly important role in the emerging economy. The current study thus aims to contribute to the knowledge in this topic by exmaming Vietnam, an important Southeast Asian country.

At present, Vietnam is one of the fascinating destinations, from not only tourists but also investors, probably for three crucial factors. First, the tourism industry in Vietnam has been rapidly growing. There are 972,800 international tourists in Vietnam in May 2017, representing a surge of 26.8 percent from the same month a year earlier (Trading Economics 2017). Second, Vietnam is an attractive country for foreign investors. Vietnam has attracted more foreign direct investments (FDI). In 2016, FDI inflows have steadily and significantly increased to 24.4 billion US dollars or 9 percent growth compared with that of 2015 (Dezan Shira & Associates 2017). Finally, there has also been a considerable growth in Vietnam's export. In 2016, Vietnam's export reached 176.6 billion US Dollars (talkvietnam 2017). Its main export products include telephone and spare parts, textile, and computers. Based on these several important reasons, Vietnam therefore warrants more studies regarding its country branding.

One important concept in brand building is brand personality. Human personality traits such as sincere, friendly, or charming can be used to describe a brand and are thus called brand personality. Brand personality may send a message that a given brand is special by communicating different personality traits to make customers perceive and interpret the special brand characteristics)Plummer, 2000(. Brand personality that provides abstract meaning which corresponds with the identity of customers are likely to be viewed as more favorable)Kim et al., 2005(. While there are several studies on brand personality for traditional branded products, relatively few studies have attempted to apply the brand personality concept to countries (Amatyakul and Polyorat 2016). This is surprising given that several countries have actively tried to

promote their countries for tourism, export, investment, or other business purposes. Therefore, the present study attempts to demonstrate that a country has personality as do traditional branded products. It is expected that the results from this study may provide insightful guidelines in the development of country marketing campaign and also suggest avenues for more systematic applications of the brand personality concept to non-traditional branded entities.

Theoretical Framework

Country Branding

A country may change or manage its image in order to systematically enhance, modify, or improve its reputation (Fan, 2009), resulting in a more favorable or better evaluation of that country. This practice of the so-called country branding is therefore a national strategy to survive or stand out in the present days where competitions among countries become more heightened (Kaneva, 2011).

Research in country branding may cover such different areas as public diplomacy, country-of-origin, destination or place branding, and identity of the nation (Fan, 2009). From the marketing viewpoint, whereas destination branding and country-of-origin concentrate on enhancing economic competitive advantages of a given country especially in terms of tourism and import-export, country branding focuses, however, on the country's overall image and positioning in the international eyes. Therefore, country branding also covers cultural, political, and technological dimensions of a country (Kaneva, 2011).

Country branding requires more complex marketing strategies than those of traditional branded products because a country may possess relatively more uncontrollable, interconnected, intangible, and emotional characteristics (Mugobo and Ukpere, 2011). Six primary elements including culture, people, tourism, exports, governance policy, investment, and recruitment (Anholt, 2003) may be pertinent and thus used by a country to communicate its country characters to the audience. In addition, consumer perceptions of a given country may also be based on such various factors as use of product originated from the country, personal familiarity with the country, understanding about the country, stereotypes of the country, and media coverage of the country. As a result, country branding must match the country's image with the reality of these relevant factors and communicate them to the audiences in order to gain more favorable reputation (Fan, 2009).

Brand Personality

Brand personality is defined as a set of human characteristics that relates to brands (Aaker 1997) and provides symbolic meaning of brands (Sung and Tinkham (2005). For example, Absolut Vodka is a 25-year old person with a cool and modern personality (Balakrishnan et al 2009). Because brand personality is relatively more difficult to imitate than tangible product attributes, brand personality can thus be used to achieve a more sustainable advantage (Ang and Lim 2006).

Past brand personality research has covered the relationships between brand personality and several other marketing variables including brand loyalty (Farhat and Khan, 2011, Lin, 2010), human and consumer personality (Lee, 2009, Balaji and Raghavan, 2011, Ekhlassi et al., 2012), consumer attachment to brand (Goldsmith and Goldsmith, 2012), image of product user (Parker, 2009), and acknowledgement of product quality (Ramaseshan and Tsao, 2007).

Based on a series of surveys, Aaker (1997) uncovers five dimensions of brand personality: sincerity (down-to-earth, honest, wholesome and cheerful), excitement (daring, spirited, imaginative and up-to-date), competence (reliable, intelligent and successful), sophistication (upper class and charming) and finally ruggedness (outdoorsy and tough). The robustness of these five dimensions are reported across different genders, age groups, brands, and product categories. Despite some criticisms, several of the brand personality studies conducted after 1997 are based, at least in part, on Aaker's (1997) framework (Azoulay and Kapferer 2003).

Method

Country personality of Vietnam was measured with Aaker's (1997) 42-item brand personality scale. The original scale in English was translated to Thai using a back-translation procedure (Brislin 1980). The research participants were instructed to think of Vietnam as if it were a person and to rate on a five-point (1 = not at all descriptive, 5 = extremely descriptive) the extent to which each of the 42 brand personality traits described the country.

Three hundred and sixty-eight students from a major northeastern Thai university participated in this study via judgmental sampling. They filled out the survey during regular class hours as part of the course requirement. The age of the

participants varied from 18 to 37 years with the mean value of 20 years. Female participants accounted for 62.5% of the sample. Subjects were first informed of the study description, then asked to complete the Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale and provide demographic data including age and gender.

Results

The 42 items from Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale were submitted to principal component factor analysis with a varimax rotation. Items which had low factor loadings (<.50) were removed. As a result, 36 items remained for further analysis. The means, standard deviations, factor loadings, eigenvalues, and percentage of variance explained are displayed in Table 1.

Based on the meanings and the relationships among these personality traits as well as descriptions of personality dimensions identified in the literature, the analysis reveals 9 factors or dimensions of country personality of Vietnam. Dimension 1 represents the country personality of competence dimension (7 items: hard-working, secure, intelligent, technical, corporate, successful, and leader). Dimension 2 represents the excitement dimension (7 items: exciting, daring, sentimental, friendly, trendy, honest, and sincere). Dimension 3 reflects the ruggedness dimension (5 items: outdoorsy, masculine, western, tough, and rugged). Dimension 4 reveals the sophistication dimension (4 items: upper-class, glamorous, good-looking, and smooth). Dimension 5 represents the new generation dimension (3 items: young, imaginative, and up-to-date). Dimension 6 reflects the down-to-earth dimension (3 items: down-to-earth, family-oriented, and small-town). Dimension 7 indicates the elegance dimension (3 items: independent, charming, and feminine). Dimension 8 represents the originality dimension (2 items: real and original). Finally, dimension 9 exhibits the spiritedness dimension (2 items: spirited and cool).

Table 1: Factor analysis personality of country

Dimensions											Means	SDs
		1. competence	2. excitement	3. ruggedness	4. sophistication	5. new generation	6. down-to-earth	7. elegance	8. originality	9. Spiritedness		
1.	hardworking	.534									4.10	.85
2.	secure	.679									3.52	.80
3.	intelligent	.715									3.66	.87
4.	technical	.697									3.47	.91
5.	corporate	.678									3.30	.80
6.	successful	.715									3.46	.81
7.	leader	.654									3.26	.82
8.	exciting		.513								3.43	.99
9.	daring		.709								3.49	.85
10.	sentimental		.628								3.44	.87
11.	friendly		.618								3.60	.91
12.	trendy		.703								3.45	1.07
13.	honest		.634								3.48	.90
14.	sincere		.671								3.51	.94
15.	outdoorsy			.592							3.00	.88

16.	masculine			.701							3.40	.93
17.	western			.817							3.33	.95
18.	tough			.786							3.45	.93
19.	rugged			.795							3.24	.99
20.	upper class				.699						3.07	.77
21.	glamorous				.781						2.82	.82
22.	good looking				.654						3.13	.85
23.	smooth				.722						3.13	.88
24.	young					.740					3.22	.91
25.	imaginative					.690					3.24	.87
26.	up-to-date					.716					3.09	.89
27.	down-to-earth						.662				3.45	.86
28.	family-oriented						.738				3.47	.86
29.	small-town						.693				3.35	.84
30.	independent							.633			3.71	.85
31.	charming							.581			3.53	.94
32.	feminine							.566			3.64	.94
33.	Real								.598		3.50	.91
34.	original								.657		3.60	.95
35.	Spirited									.782	3.63	.91
36.	Cool									.570	3.39	.94
Eigenvalues		4.43	4.12	3.47	3.06	2.77	2.24	2.13	1.98	1.58		
Variance explained(%)		10.5	9.81	8.26	7.29	6.59	5.34	5.06	4.72	3.77		

Discussions

Summary

Results from a factor analysis reveal 9 dimensions of Vietnam's country personality. These dimensions include competence, excitement, ruggedness, sophistication, new generation, down-to-earth, elegance, originality, and spiritedness.

Theoretical Implications

Based on the study results, the current research provides a number of contributions to the areas of country personality, country branding, and brand personality. From the theoretical perspective, as there have been relatively few studies specifically designed to investigate country personality, our research is therefore considered a step further to fill in this void. In addition, the results from our study reveal some dimensions similar to those identified in other research. For example, the competence, excitement, ruggedness, and sophistication dimensions uncovered in the present study are quite similar to those identified in research conducted with traditional branded products (e.g., Aaker 1997), therefore confirming the similarity between brand personality and country personality in this respect. However, there are also some new dimensions uncovered in the present study. These include new generation, down-to-earth, elegance, originality, and spiritedness. In this light, this discrepancy may highlight the unique aspect of country personality which is different from those of traditional

branded personality while the similar dimensions reflect the universality or the commonness between product personality and country personality. Further research may consider examining this issue in greater depth.

Furthermore, from a methodological perspective, these new personality dimensions obtained from this survey are those which have not been previously identified in the literature. As a consequence, the implications in this regard are twofold. First, this may also reflect country personality dimensions unique to Vietnam. Next, this may suggest an opportunity for future research. That is, further investigation of these new country personality dimensions would provide an interesting avenue to better understand the country personality construct.

Managerial Implications

In addition to the academic contributions, the results from the present study also provide several practical guidelines in building Vietnam's country personality. First, the competence dimension may reflect that Vietnam is a country with highly competent or highly skilled people. Therefore, the Vietnamese government may use this dimension to attract foreign investment. Next, the excitement and ruggedness dimensions may be communicated through tourism attractions with such characteristics. These may include, for example, the sand dunes of Mui Ne, Cu Chi tunnels, Ha Long bay, and Phong Nha-Ke Bang national park as they could be particularly interesting for adventurous tourists. However, for those who love sophistication and elegance, Vietnam may focus on such tourism attractions as well-maintained and glamorous colonial-style building as well as Hue Citadel and Imperial Citadel of Thang Long. In addition, various forms of high culture and art can be used to convey this personality. In terms of the new generation dimension, Vietnam may possess this characteristic due to the fact that much of its population is still young, teenagers or in the working age group while many other countries are approaching toward the population aging. This group of people is therefore more likely to be up-to-date and imaginative. Vietnam thus may manage this personality by training these people to have marketable skill and abilities in order to attract more foreign investment. Next, the down-to-earth dimension may reflect the relatively low labor cost which could also be useful in attracting foreign investors. Furthermore, the originality dimension may reflect the traditional lifestyle of Vietnamese people where bicycles and traditional forms of architecture and costume may constitute some examples. Finally, based on the spirited dimension, Vietnam must work hard and have a strong determination concerning their long-term national agenda.

Study Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

Certain limitations in this study may suggest fruitful avenues for future research. First, future studies may examine the personality of other countries such as Cambodia, Laos, and Timor Leste as there are relatively little research concerning them. In this light, research with other underrepresented Asian countries will respond to the comparative shortage of research in this issue among this region. Furthermore, the results of the present study come from student sample. They may not therefore be a true representative of the whole population. As a consequence, future research may consider different groups of samples to provide the generalizability of the research results. Finally, in addition to a survey method as employed in this study, depth interview (cf., Blythe 2007), experiment (cf., Johar, Sengupta and Aaker 2005) and content analysis (cf., Opoku, Abratt and Pitt 2006) will also provide additional insights in country personality.

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Examining Levels of Job Burnout Among Teachers Working in Kosova in Terms of Different Variables

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Abstract

This study examines job burnout levels of teachers teaching in primary and lower secondary schools in Kosova and changes in levels of teacher burnout according to demographic variables. Research data was collected using the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) and analysed using SPSS. Findings show moderate levels of exhaustion and disengagement for teachers teaching in primary and lower secondary schools; while, variables of gender, age, years of service, type of service, perceived socio-economic level, and marital status do not significantly affect burnout levels of teachers teaching in the southern part of Kosova, respectively Prizren.

Keywords: job burnout, teacher education, teacher disengagement, teacher exhaustion, Oldenburg Burnout Inventory.

Introduction

Burnout is a syndrome which affects individuals in their work environment and within specific job conditions causing them to feel psychological exhaustion and develop feelings of apathy. First described as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment by Maslach and Jackson (1985), burnout is also referred to as “an affective reaction” (Fernet, Guay, Senécal, and Austin, 2012:514); as a psychosocial discomfort experienced in a working environment (Montero-Marin et al, 2009); as a personality crisis with a right combination of stress, exhaustion and anxiety, which deteriorates health into illness by going beyond job-related one (Rudow, 1999); and as an outcome of being exposed to stress for too long by Shirom and Melamed (2006). Burnout’s common symptom of exhaustion aligns it next to depression, making correct diagnosing a real accomplishment (Doohan, 1982). Stress and fatigue are mentioned alongside burnout because of their overlapping symptoms, especially its positive correlation with emotional exhaustion (Eisenstat, & Felner, 1984). Further synthesis in burnout studies reveals that it can occur at any time in a life of a working individual and can develop unobtrusively until identified (Chen, Wu & Wei, 2012). Although it can affect a wide spectre of individuals, studies show that people at most risk from burnout are those who are engaged in social work, such as nurses, medical staff, psychologists, counsellors, teachers, attorneys, police and social workers (Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach, & Jackson, 1981; Schaufeli, & Enzmann, 1998). Amongst the most vulnerable profession to both stress and burnout is the teaching profession (Rudow, 1999; Williams, 2011). Teachers are classified as a group prone to burnout due to their close and continuous contact with people namely students, parents, and administration (Maslach, & Jackson, 1999; Fernet, Guay, Senécal, & Austin, 2012). Further, studies on the relevant topic reveal an array of burnout symptoms which are classified into three major groups: physical (Belcastro, 1982; Rudow, 1999), psychological manifestations including emotional exhaustion, dissatisfaction, disappointment, loneliness, low morale and guilt (Doohan, 1982; Maslach, & Jackson, 1985; Gil-Monte, 2012), and social symptoms with reduced work efficiency, sick leaves, absences from work, and early retirements (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985; Rudow, 1999; Korczak, Huber, & Kister, 2010; Korczak, Wastian, & Schneider, 2012).

Similar concerns are also found in teacher burnout. Bauer, Stamm, Virmich, Wissing, Müller, Wirsching and Schaarschmidt (2006) identified burnout as a primary reason for driving teachers to premature retirement due to stress, exhaustion and depression. This distressful state within educational institutions inevitable affects learning process where teachers’ performance deteriorates and they feel they cannot extend themselves to students’ needs anymore. Teachers become depressed, hopeless, disappointed, and utterly helpless (Chen, Wu, & Wei, 2012). Their relationship with students declines as teachers become uninterested in student learning (Rudow, 1999). Additionally, they withdraw from society or from socializing with peers developing cynicism towards colleagues, followed by de-motivation in developing professionally. Subsequently, this leads to deficit in teaching personnel, especially good teachers (Huston, 1989; Chang, 2013).

Speculation on causes thirty years ago changed very little up to day, showing hapless victims of burnout manifest an array of symptoms depending on their respective personalities, attitude of people they serve, and organization they work in. Due to its complex nature, identifying causes that trigger burnout is a demanding enterprise. Research on this subject navigated in several directions including demographics, personality traits and organizational variables as the most common causes of teacher burnout (Nagy, & Nagy, 1992). One of the most frequent routes of study is looking at demographic variables including gender, age, years of experience, education, and marital status. Teacher burnout has been reported to be dependent on certain demographic variables such as gender (Burke, & Greenglass, 1989c). Contrary to deeply-rooted opinions that females should be more prone to burnout than males because of their innate caring nature, the results of first empirical studies showed the opposite (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985). In the research carried out so far, gender variable made little difference when it came to levels of burnout, except that men scored higher on depersonalization level (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985; Huston, 1989; Byrne, 1991). Similar findings are reported across other cultures (Bauer, Stamm, Virnich, Wissing, Müller, Wirsching, & Schaarschmidt, 2006; Ozan, 2009; De Caroli, & Sagone, 2012). While gender issue fails to generate any significant difference in burnout level among women and men, age proves the opposite (Maslach, & Jackson, 1981; Byrne, 1991). The results on age and years of experience seem stable throughout nations with young teachers burning out more than older teachers, but some controversy is present here, too. For example, novice teachers in the States scored higher on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than their older counterparts (Maslach, & Jackson, 1981), and so did beginner teachers in Sweden as opposed to older teachers (Hultell, Melin, & Gustavsson, 2013). The similar findings on emotional exhaustion were consistent only for university teachers in Canada while older teachers at primary levels, namely 40-50 of age difference had higher personal accomplishment than younger teachers (Byrne, 1991). In Italy, older Italian teachers expressed higher value for their students than they did for their freshmen colleagues (De Caroli, & Sagone, 2012). They also showed lower depersonalization than middle aged groups (Huston, 1989). Controversial findings, though, were published in research done by Huston (1989) which revealed a possible explanation for inconsistency of age and burnout correlations.

Education impacts burnout in a sense that more education expects more money and if this is not met than it develops into burnout. On a far end, people who expect less and find more like the ones with less education are more satisfied with their job and correspondingly show less burnout (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985). Teachers with college and postgraduate scored higher on emotional exhaustion than those without college, i.e. those in higher levels of administration reported less burnout indicating presence of specific burnout antecedents based on the academic status of teachers (Burke, & Greenglass, 1989b). Personal preferences in career choice play a role in burnout, as reported by teachers in Cyprus. Those who were free to choose a profession they love experienced less burnout as compared to those who had no other choice (Ozan, 2009). An interesting combination was found between education and health for instance teachers with good health and educational success had lower initial levels of burnout, whereas those who had poor health and experienced strain during their education had higher initial levels of burnout (Hultell et al, 2013). In fact both good mental and physical health are negatively correlated to burnout (Hultell et al, 2013).

The variable of marital status reveals relatively homologues data in relation to burnout. Single and divorced individuals are more emotionally exhausted than married ones, whereas, married couples that do not have children report higher levels of burnout than couples who have (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985). Family responsibilities show no significant difference on burnout levels as predetermined but quite surprisingly marriage and children alleviate levels of burnout, and one of explanations given is that when we get married we change our view on life and this is what diminishes feelings of burnout (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985). Following their empirical study on role of family in burnout, Maslach and Jackson (1985) gave several possible explanations. First, people without offspring are more concerned with personal fulfillment and satisfaction and thus are more prone to recurring disappointment. Second, family is seen as an emotional haven where depleted resources are recharged again and third, family life equips individuals in solving inter-social conflicts. The significance of family role in combating burnout is emphasized by other researchers alike (Bauer et al, 2006) on whose resource list family is one of the strongest tools in fighting off burnout (Braunstein-Bercovitz, 2013). The coping strategies that fight burnout have their share of debate, where certain dimensions of burnout are seen as efforts of coping rather than expressions of symptoms (Burke, & Greenglass, 1989c; Eisenstat, & Felner, 1984). So far, studies on burnout have identified a number of ways to combat this psychological state, proposing a combination of personal empowerment, social support, and reduced workload as preventions, although less workload failed to influence burnout levels (Braunstein-Bercovitz, 2013). Other scholars proposed a dual action of creating a stimulating environment while cutting down on stressors at work (Eisenstat, & Felner, 1984).

Methodology

The research on this paper has been carried out through a correlated survey method and it is based on descriptive method of research. Data are analysed using independent sample t-test (Köklü, Büyüköztürk, Bökeoğlu, 2007; Balcı, 2007; Büyüköztürk, 2010), frequency and percentage method, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Scheffe Test. Disengagement and exhaustion levels are examined in relation to job burnout levels of teachers teaching in primary and lower secondary schools in Prizren. Second, demographic characteristics of teachers such as gender, age, years of service, type of service, perceived socio-economic level, and marital status are tested to find out if they present a factor for disengagement and exhaustion of job burnout.

Participants

In its initial stage, research was carried out on 531 teachers teaching in primary and lower secondary schools in Prizren during 2013/14 academic year through sampling method from the total of 17468 teachers in Kosovo. According to general number designation in order to determine a sample population we took into consideration Gay's (1996) table developed to designate a sample group based on a general number of population.

A careful examination of findings related to a research sample population, shows that from the total of participants, 379 are female (% 71,4), 152 are male (% 28,6). Out of these 59 participants belong to 26-30 age group (% 11,1), 52 participants to 31-35 age group (% 9,8), 53 participants to 36-40 age group (% 10), 63 participants to 41-45 age group (% 11,9), 98 participants to 46-50 age group (% 18,5), 72 participants to 51-55 age group (% 13,6), 73 participants to 56-60 age group (% 13,7) and 61 participants to 60 age group and above (% 11,5). From these, 49 (9,2%) participants have 1-5 years of service in teaching, 72 (13,6%) participants have 6-10 years of service in teaching, 67 (12,6%) participants have 11-15 years of service in teaching, 59 (11,1%) participants have 16-20 years of service in teaching, and 284 (53,5%) participants have over 21+ years of service in teaching. According to type of service, 237 (44,6%) participants are primary education teachers, and 294 (55,4%) participants are subject-focused teachers. 54 (10,2%) participants have low socio-economic level, 397 (74,8%) participants have moderate socio-economic level, and 80 (15,1%) participants have high socio-economic level. Out of these 467 (87,9%) participants are married, and 64 (12,1%) participants are single.

Data Collection Instruments

During the research procedure, two types of instruments were used for collecting data. The first one is a personal information form developed by the author and the second one is the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory for measuring burnout. The personal information form has several questions about personal information of participants including gender, age, years of service, type of service, perceived socio-economic level, and marital status. The second data collection instrument is the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) developed in 1998 by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli as an alternative measurement (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) to Maslach's MBI. The joint undertaking of Dutch and German authors of OLBI tried to surmount drawbacks of previous instruments and opted for dualism in burnout. The grounds of their argument lie on a JD-R model, a Job Demands-Resources model which suggests that employees who face high demands in their jobs but have run out of available coping resources will develop burnout (Demerouti et al, 2001). After observing that the MBI instrument has a wording issue, namely grouping the same worded items in specific dimensions, this group of researchers in their two-factor model of exhaustion and disengagement used positive and negative worded items interchangeably (Demerouti et al, 2001). Two dimensions of OLBI exhaustion and disengagement encompass wider burnout symptoms, because the dimension of exhaustion is not limited only to emotional fatigue but covers also cognitive, physical, and mental weariness.

Oldenburg Burnout Inventory instrument comprises of sixteen statements which are divided into eight items in disengagement dimension and eight items in exhaustion. For both dimensions, four items are phrased negatively, and four items are phrased positively. This dual model of burnout with exhaustion and withdrawal is accredited as the reliable method for testing job burnout (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). The reliability coefficients for OLBI is .71 for exhaustion and .73 for disengagement. The OLBI instrument was translated from English into Albanian language by the author.

Findings

In terms of exhaustion and disengagement levels, findings show that 7 % of teachers have low levels of exhaustion, 84.9 % moderate and 8.1 % have high levels of exhaustion. While 10.5 % of teachers have low levels of disengagement, 83.2 % have moderate and 6.3 % have high levels of disengagement.

According to gender variable, disengagement level mean in females is ($\bar{x} = 14,36$) standard deviation ($S = 4,02$) and mean in males is ($\bar{x} = 15,11$) and standard deviation ($S = 3,36$). While exhaustion level mean in females is ($\bar{x} = 16,39$) standard deviation ($S = 4,12$) and mean level in males is ($\bar{x} = 16,74$) and standard deviation ($S = 3,59$). In order to determine if there is a significant difference between these scores a t-test was administered and findings for disengagement ($t_{(529)} = -2,02$, $P > 0,05$), and for exhaustion ($t_{(529)} = -0,901$, $P > 0,05$) in terms of gender variable show no significant difference in levels of burnout as shown in table 1.

Scale	Dimensions	Gender	N	t-test for equality of means							Levene's Test for equality of variances	
				Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	P	F	P		
Job Burnout	Disengagement	Female	379	14,36	4,02	529	-2,02	0	0,001	0,988		
		Male	152	15,11	3,36							
	Exhaustion	Female	379	16,39	4,12	529	-0,901	0,4	0,197	0,657		
		Male	152	16,74	3,59							

Table 1. Disengagement and exhaustion means according to gender variable

Disengagement and exhaustion levels of participants according to age variable show exhaustion level mean for 26-30 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,25$) standard deviation ($S = 3,01$); 31-35 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,22$) standard deviation ($S = 3,22$); 36-40 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,36$) standard deviation ($S = 2,48$); 41-45 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,71$) standard deviation ($S = 3,23$); 46-50 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,27$) standard deviation ($S = 3,68$); 51-55 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,20$) standard deviation ($S = 3,23$); 56-60 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,37$) standard deviation ($S = 3,07$), and exhaustion level mean for 61+ age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 17,73$) and standard deviation ($S = 7,65$). While findings for disengagement level mean for 26-30 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 13,98$) standard deviation ($S = 3,05$); 31-35 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,98$) standard deviation ($S = 3,51$); 36-40 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,20$) standard deviation ($S = 2,92$); 41-45 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,57$) standard deviation ($S = 3,19$); 46-50 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,48$) standard deviation ($S = 3,29$); 51-55 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,37$) standard deviation ($S = 2,77$); 56-60 age group teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,78$) standard deviation ($S = 3,78$), and disengagement level mean for 61+ age group ($\bar{x} = 15,35$) and standard deviation ($S = 7,00$) as shown in table 2. In order to determine if there is a significant difference between these scores an F-test is administered and findings for disengagement ($F_{(7-523)} = ,776$, $P > 0,05$), and for exhaustion ($F_{(7-523)} = 1,057$, $P > 0,05$) in terms of age variable show no significant difference in levels of burnout as given below in table 3.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Disengagement	26-30 age	59	13,98	3,05
	31-35 age	52	14,98	3,51
	36-40 age	53	14,20	2,92
	41-46 age	63	14,57	3,19
	46-50 age	98	14,48	3,29
	51-55 age	72	14,37	2,77
	56-60 age	73	14,78	3,78
	61+	61	15,35	7,00
	Total	531	14,58	3,86
Exhaustion	26-30 age	59	16,25	3,01
	31-35 age	52	16,22	3,22
	36-40 age	53	16,36	2,48
	41-45 age	63	16,71	3,23
	46-50 age	98	16,27	3,68
	51-55 age	72	16,20	3,23
	56-60 age	73	16,37	3,07
	61+	61	17,73	7,65
	Total	531	16,50	3,98

Table 2. Disengagement and exhaustion means according to age variable

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Disengagement	Between Groups	81,03	7	11,575	,776	,608
	Within Groups	7804,88	523	14,923		
	Total	7885,91	530			
Exhaustion	Between Groups	116,90	7	16,700	1,057	,391
	Within Groups	8266,32	523	15,806		
	Total	8383,22	530			

Table 3. Disengagement and exhaustion F-test findings according to age variable

Years of service variable findings reveal disengagement level mean for teachers working 1-5 years ($\bar{x} = 14,81$) standard deviation ($S = 2,66$); for teachers working 6-10 years ($\bar{x} = 14,52$) standard deviation ($S = 3,39$); for teachers working 11-15 years ($\bar{x} = 14,02$) standard deviation ($S = 2,70$); for teachers working 16-20 years ($\bar{x} = 14,15$) standard deviation ($S = 3,45$); and teachers with more than 21 years of service ($\bar{x} = 14,77$) standard deviation ($S = 4,41$). While findings show exhaustion level mean for teachers working 1-5 years ($\bar{x} = 16,44$) standard deviation ($S = 2,80$); for teachers working 6-10 years ($\bar{x} = 16,30$) standard deviation ($S = 2,99$); for teachers working 11-15 years ($\bar{x} = 16,02$) standard deviation ($S = 3,02$); for teachers working 16-20 years ($\bar{x} = 16,25$) standard deviation ($S = 3,38$); and teachers with more than 21 years of service ($\bar{x} = 16,71$) standard deviation ($S = 4,62$) as shown in table 4. F-test findings for disengagement ($F_{(4-526)} = ,755, P > 0,05$), and for exhaustion ($F_{(4-526)} = ,546, P > 0,05$) in terms of years of service variable show no significant difference in levels of burnout as shown in table 5.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Disengagement	1-5 year	45	14,8190	2,66676
	6-10 year	72	14,5245	3,39501
	11-15 year	67	14,0271	2,70937
	16-20 year	55	14,1564	3,45054
	21+	284	14,7763	4,41093
	Total	531	14,5827	3,85734
Exhaustion	1-5 year	45	16,4428	2,80454
	6-10 year	72	16,3032	2,99466
	11-15 year	67	16,0283	3,02734
	16-20 year	55	16,2534	3,38499
	21+	284	16,7157	4,62932
	Total	531	16,4965	3,97711

Table 4. Disengagement and exhaustion means according to years of service variable

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Disengagement	Between Groups	45,028	4	11,257	,755	,555
	Within Groups	7840,884	526	14,907		
	Total	7885,912	530			
Exhaustion	Between Groups	34,653	4	8,663	,546	,702
	Within Groups	8348,565	526	15,872		
	Total	8383,218	530			

Table 5. Disengagement and exhaustion F-test findings according to years of service variable

Type of service variable findings show disengagement level mean for primary education teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,4$) standard deviation ($S = 4,51$) and for subject-focused teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,72$) and standard deviation ($S = 3,23$). While findings reveal exhaustion level mean for primary education teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,3$) standard deviation ($S = 4,78$) and for subject-focused teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,65$) and standard deviation ($S = 3,17$). T-test findings for disengagement ($t_{(529)} = -0,96, P > 0,05$), and for exhaustion ($t_{(529)} = 0,99, P > 0,05$) in terms of type of service variable show no significant difference in levels of burnout as given in table 6.

Scale	Dimensions	Type of service	N	T-test for Equality of Means					Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
				Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	P	F	P
Job	Disengagement	Primary	237	14,4	4,51	529	-0,96	0,339	0,92	0,762

Burnout		Other	294	14,72	3,23					
	Exhaustion	Primary	237	16,3	4,78					
		Other	294	16,65	3,17	529	-0,99	0,321	0,596	0,44

Table 6. Disengagement and exhaustion means according to type of service variable

The perceived socioeconomic level variable shows disengagement level mean for teachers with low socioeconomic level ($\bar{x} = 15,09$) standard deviation ($S = 3,06$), for teachers with moderate socioeconomic level ($\bar{x} = 14,51$) standard deviation ($S = 4,14$), and for teachers with high socioeconomic level ($\bar{x} = 14,61$) and standard deviation ($S = 2,75$). While findings reveal exhaustion level mean for teachers with low socioeconomic level ($\bar{x} = 16,97$) standard deviation ($S = 3,10$), for teachers with moderate socioeconomic level ($\bar{x} = 16,45$) standard deviation ($S = 4,22$), and for teachers with high socioeconomic level ($\bar{x} = 16,43$) and standard deviation ($S = 3,19$) given below in table 7. F-test findings for disengagement ($F_{(2-528)} = ,548, P>0,05$), and for exhaustion ($F_{(2-528)} = ,425, P>0,05$) in terms of socioeconomic level variable show no significant difference in levels of burnout as shown in table 8.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Disengagement	Low	54	15,09	3,06
	Moderate	397	14,51	4,14
	High	80	14,61	2,75
	Total	531	14,58	3,86
Exhaustion	Low	54	16,97	3,10
	Moderate	397	16,45	4,22
	High	80	16,43	3,19
	Total	531	16,50	3,98

Table 7. Disengagement and exhaustion means according to perceived socio-economic level variable

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Disengagement	Between Groups	16,335	2	8,168	,548	,578
	Within Groups	7869,577	528	14,905		
	Total	7885,912	530			
Exhaustion	Between Groups	13,481	2	6,741	,425	,654
	Within Groups	8369,737	528	15,852		
	Total	8383,218	530			

Table 8. Disengagement and exhaustion F-test findings according to perceived socio-economic variable

And the variable of marital status findings show disengagement level mean for married teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,64$) standard deviation ($S = 3,97$) and for single teachers ($\bar{x} = 14,09$) and standard deviation ($S = 2,79$). While findings reveal exhaustion level mean for married teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,54$) standard deviation ($S = 4,11$) and for single teachers ($\bar{x} = 16,12$) and standard deviation ($S = 2,79$). T-test is administered and findings for disengagement ($t_{(529)} = 1,07, P>0,05$), and for exhaustion ($t_{(529)} = 0,79, P>0,05$) in terms of marital status variable show no significant difference in levels of burnout as given in table 9.

Scale	Dimensions	Marital status	N	T-test for Equality of Means					Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
				Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	P	F	P
Job Burnout	Disengagement	Married	467	14,649	3,97	529	1,07	0,281	1,36	0,243
		Single	64	14,09	2,79					
	Exhaustion	Married	467	16,54	4,11	529	0,79	0,431	1,44	0,23
		Single	64	16,12	2,79					

Table 9. Disengagement and exhaustion means according to marital status variable

Results

Amidst scarce research conducted in Kosova, this is the first research of this kind to be undertaken in this country. Findings gave the following results: teachers teaching in Kosova, respectively in Prizren show moderate levels of disengagement and exhaustion; female teachers show higher levels of exhaustion, but male teachers show both higher levels of disengagement and exhaustion; disengagement and exhaustion levels of teachers increase with age; disengagement and exhaustion levels of teachers change according to their years of service, where especially exhaustion levels correlate to an increase in years of teaching; disengagement and exhaustion levels of subject-focused teachers are higher as compared to primary education teachers; teachers with perceived low socioeconomic level show higher levels of disengagement and exhaustion, and married teachers show higher levels of disengagement and exhaustion as compared to single ones.

Discussion

Presently, teaching system in Kosova is in the process of finding a new identity for itself, in one of the poorest countries in the South-eastern Europe, where 75 % of its labour force is younger than 35 years of age (Ministria e Arsimit, Shkencës dhe Teknologjisë [MASHT], 2011); however, 56.9 % are within an employment age and only 28.7 % of these are employed (MASHT, 2006). According to the government report of Ministry of Education, Science and Technology in Kosova, the country needs to accommodate 20.000 jobs for its nation, annually. This 24.66 % surge of school-age nation requires reforms and strategic planning in order to follow current and future market needs of the country. Consequently, a reliable education system and dependable teaching personnel have significant role in producing a qualified workforce. The understated objective of this research, then, addresses a national need in advancing the quality of teaching (MASHT, 2011) through improving cognitive and psychological abilities of teachers. Indirectly, the study responds to the international need of analysing burnout in cultural and national perspectives (Schaufeli, & Enzmann, 1998), with a heightened focus on conducting research in non-English speaking countries (Rudow, 1999). Therefore the present research on burnout levels of Kosovar teachers endorses the country's current education plan of advancing professional development of teachers. There is a considerable study done on market research but study is scarce in education research, and particularly in the aspect of teaching personnel in the country (author et al, 2012). Because teaching staff is a major contributor to efficient teaching and quality learning, we need to give to it a special care, ensuring both mental and psychological wellbeing of its members.

Teachers teaching in Kosova show moderate levels of disengagement and exhaustion. This finding is in line with other results from around the world. Although percentages change from country to country, burnout has plagued teachers in the States (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985; Huston, 1989), in Canada (Byrne, 1991), in China (Yu, 2005; Zhong, & Ling, 2014), Cyprus (Ozan, 2009), Spain (Cano-Garcia, Padilla-Munoz, & Carrasco-Ortiz, 2005), Germany (Bauer et al, 2006), Italy (De Caroli, & Sagone, 2012), Serbia (Nenadović, Janković, Katanić, Đokić-Pješčić, Malešević, Radulović, Nenadović, & Grbić, 2013), and Sweden (Hultell, Melin, & Gustavsson, 2013). The staggering 90 % of teachers report moderate to high levels of exhaustion and disengagement. The causes of teacher burnout in Kosova are to be found on both personal and social level. On personal level teachers have to balance their personal ideals with individual possibilities. Teachers in Kosova showed commitment to their nation and teaching, by attaining their professional identity during perilous pre-war years

(Slinn, 2008). Yet after surviving war, exhaustion followed having to fight for daily living in post war Kosova. Although they loved their profession, this left them with little time for professional development and consequently drove them into challenging situations in classrooms. On social level, teachers personal drives are rarely harmonized with social strive. Social mismatch of these needs and requests are reflected from government officials to school principals, students and parents. Changes in education have given rise to shifts in power relations between students and teachers. Now students' sayings are valued over teacher's one. Thus, teachers find themselves in an unfamiliar situation, unsure on how to proceed with teaching, because student's newly found boorish freedom is taking a toll on discipline issues, which is the most sensitive issue for teachers. On top of this, there is a high level of national corruption present in every aspect of society including education. The overall lingering expression that there is nothing that can be done to change this position has made teachers join in the general apathy of national dissatisfaction. This has hindered them from taking any sort of action in changing their present situation. Moderate levels of burnout identified in teachers in Kosova might have a direct correlation with poor quality of learning process presently highlighted in the country.

Female teachers show higher levels of exhaustion but male teachers show higher levels of both exhaustion and disengagement. Findings are along the lines with other studies as regards gender issue (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985; Huston, 1989; Byrne, 1991; Ozan, 2009). Although gender variable makes little difference to burnout levels still, women continue to be associated with dimension of exhaustion, and men with that of disengagement. The reasoning that Maslach and Jackson (1985) give regarding this is a socially-rooted belief that women get more emotionally involved with people as compared to men. The similar belief is held also for women in Kosova. In addition, there are additional stereotyping beliefs associated with Kosovar female believing that they are pillars of a family. They are caring mothers who silently endure life difficulties and try to give the best to their children. This female model is transferred to a female teacher, whom Kosovar society sees as second mother to her school children. Kosovar female teacher is expected to express the same caring attitude towards her students as she does towards her children. Naturally, she assumes her role wholeheartedly and tries to do her best. Reasonably, displaying more and more sympathetic attention towards dozens and dozens of students is energy consuming and this leaves female teachers more exhausted, but also more satisfied with their work because of the sisterhood environment they share at school (Burke, & Greenglass, 1989c). The present results are in line with findings where male teachers show higher disengagement and exhaustion levels (Burke, & Greenglass, 1989c; Van Horn, Schaufeli, Greenglass, & Burke, 1997; Zhong, & Ling, 2014). Some of possible explanations again might be found in social beliefs about gender affiliation towards certain jobs. Thus, teaching is primarily populated with females (Burke, & Greenglass, 1989c), as evident in our sample group statistics were 71,4 % of primary and lower secondary school teachers are females. However, the gender balance seems to shift towards males in accordance to level of education, i.e. 73,1 % of novice teachers that attend Faculty of Education are females; however, there are very few female university professors (MASHT, 2011). Consequently, male teachers in primary and lower secondary schools might encounter difficulties in adjusting to a job originally thought to be a female profession. As a result, male coping resources might come in action in form of dealing more with discipline issues (Burke, & Greenglass, 1989c; Van Horn et al, 1997) which corresponds to their gender status, triggering thus more student reaction and less learning effectiveness (Huston, 1989). Extra work in managing discipline in the class and low opinion about themselves might be a possible explanation for high levels of burnout in male teachers (De Caroli, & Sagone, 2012).

Additionally, older teachers show increase in levels of exhaustion and disengagement as compared to younger teachers, the age curve is not straightforward. Findings show an increase of exhaustion levels for teachers in their early 40's and after their 60's, while the disengagement curve fluctuates between early 30's, early 40's, and from late 50's above. Such fluctuation is best explained by Huston (1989), who observed that teachers are susceptible to burnout at any age, predetermined only by actual intensity and time of their disillusionment. Possible causes for such a disappointment of teachers in post-war Kosova should be searched in the country's social policy system concerned with job availability and retirement benefit. Most of graduates end up teaching because of a limited number of available jobs in the market. In fact, in a country where 39.7 % of its population is unemployed, teaching is seen as one of few professions that can secure a stable contract (MASHT, 2006). According to 2004 statistics, presented in the action plan for employment of youth in Kosova published by Ministry of Education, Science and Technology in 2006, out of 28.7 % of its employed nation more than 10 % work in education only. However due to lack of employment opportunities, a teaching job is more a forced-choice option rather than a free-will preference.

As with the age variable, years of service prove to predetermine teacher burnout. Our findings are contrary to findings from elsewhere for instance the States, Canada, Sweden and Italy (Maslach, & Jackson, 1981; Hultell, Melin, & Gustavsson,

2013; Byrne, 1991; De Caroli, & Sagone, 2012) where novice teachers are more burned out than senior teachers. However, our results are in line with Huston's (1989) research which revealed an explanation that burnout can begin at later stages of teaching also, correlating to their disillusionment. For Kosovar teachers possible reasons for their frustration are to be found in the education system of the country. In fact, an aspect that needs to be taken into consideration when analysing the variable of service years is that senior teachers with higher levels of exhaustion belong to a group who have taught in parallel education system and have experienced war. They have maintained high spirit throughout two decades, seeing independence as a new beginning for the country and its nation. Freedom, however, failed to restore their professional respect, or sustain economic security. For years, these teachers had gone accustomed to teaching with old methodology and out-dated material. However, rapid changes after war in form of innovative teaching strategies, latest technologies, and new economic requirements found them poorly equipped for this market, with obsolete knowledge and abilities that needed to be refreshed and improved (MASHT, 2011). Developing professionally alongside managing teaching in after-war Kosova with large classes, poorly disciplined students, unsupportive administration, weakly equipped schools, disrespectful parents and especially, high levels of corruption prove to be a challenge. Teaching under these circumstances and not seeing any improvement or change for better might be a possible reason for senior teachers to get disillusioned at this stage of their career (Boles, Dean, Ricks, Short, & Wang, 2000). Subsequently, this diminishes teachers' incentive to take moral and ethical action towards professional improvements, which are not accredited by respective authorities, or financially stimulated. Gradually these signs have collected over time in senior teachers who teach more than twenty years, and developed into burnout (Byrne, 1999; Rudow, 1999).

Disengagement and exhaustion levels of subject-focused teachers are higher when compared to primary education teachers. These findings echo the significance of grades teachers teach (Burke, & Greenglass, 1989a; Van Horn et al, 1997; Byrne, 1999). A possible explanation for this is to be found in teacher satisfaction. Primary education teachers who teach young learners get more satisfaction from teaching because children at this age are better learners and more disciplined students than older learners, as observed by Burke and Greenglass (1989a) research which showed that primary school teachers are less burned out despite having more work, or being longer in the profession. Thus, teachers who see results in their teaching, and have higher self-appreciation are less likely to have burnout (De Caroli, & Sagone, 2012).

Teachers with perceived low socioeconomic level show higher levels of exhaustion and disengagement. This variable best reflects teachers' poor situation in Kosova, as relates to their both social and economic status (MASHT, 2006) giving a possible explanation for correlation of burnout with low socioeconomic status, which can be reflected in dual identity of Kosovar teachers. Positive correlation of exhaustion with low socioeconomic situation has its roots in pre-war Kosova, where teachers have long been overworked in trying to subsist by working in other jobs besides teaching. This situation began in 1991 when Serbian authorities who were governing the country then, banished Albanian teachers and closed down Albanian schools. Urged by their need to continue and educate children, Albanian teachers formed a parallel education system throughout Kosova and kept on teaching undercover until 1999 when the war began (Slinn, 2008). For over eight years teachers taught voluntarily, but had to look for an additional paid work in order to support themselves and their families. So, you could easily find physics teachers running computer shops, biology teachers working as taxi-drivers, primary teachers managing a kindergarten, or English teachers working as translators and office assistants. Putting up with a second job, considerably reduced their capacity to develop professionally due to exhaustion and time lost in other undertakings. More than two decades of academic seclusion left teachers professionally impaired. Later on more energy and more time was needed to replenish their resources and teaching skills and despite their earnest desire to improve teaching and offer better education to learners, teachers of post-war Kosova are still unable to keep pace with new trends in their subject-matter, follow constantly changing technology (MASHT, 2006; 2011), and digest the surge of diverse knowledge that students possess. Consequently, feelings of exhaustion, disappointment (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Ebbinghaus, 2002), and low self-efficacy follow amounting to teacher burnout (Fernet, Guay, Sénécal, & Austin, 2012; Hultell, Melin, & Gustavsson, 2013).

At last, married teachers show higher levels of disengagement and exhaustion as compared to single ones. The marriage variable results are contrary to outcomes from other countries, such as the States and Germany, (Maslach, & Jackson, 1985; Bauer et al, 2006; Braunstein-Bercovitz, 2013). Although reasons listed by these researchers such as support from partners and a more stable view that married couples have on life which runs contrary to a state of burnout are valid for Kosovar couples too, results obtained from this study show a slightly different story. One of the explanations might be because the socio-economic situation in the country affects married couples more than singles, where the former with their

family and children have more people to feed and cater for. In addition, most of married couples live in a community with in-laws where traditional domestic customs of looking after the house and family have prevailed, leaving little space for couple privacy as a prerequisite for partner support. Although a number of couples that move out from their in-laws is in the increase, still they are outnumbered, and those who decide to move out usually go on rent, which is an additional financial burden on a couples' budget. This constant financial struggle is a temporal impediment to a prospect of teacher development, which leads to burnout (Yu, 2005). Consequently, inability to balance family and teaching demands with personal coping resources leads to burnout of married teachers (Braunstein-Bercovitz, 2013). In comparison, single teachers seem to benefit from this position, enjoying more liberty in personal development.

The above findings demonstrate both prevalence and complexity of this syndrome throughout nations. Every aspect of burnout as a psychological phenomenon depicts inconsistency in describing, identifying, preventing or treating it. Therefore, its nature asks for similar multidimensional and holistic approach in treatment. Although collection of data through self-reported questionnaires calls for caution in coming forth with explanations, still their self-perceptive aspect renders the relevant data valid to an extent. Future studies should focus on tracking and registering additional information such as, personality factors leading to burnout. More research should follow the route of studying social support and coping strategies of individuals (Burke, & Greenglass, 1993). Longitudinal studies should also be used to track changes in the syndrome in relation to stressors at work, such as change in carrier, or additional job roles at workplace. However, future research should incorporate use of qualitative studies on burnout, which addresses the need for a personal approach to cases of burnout. Because of a limited research data available, the results presented here are of great significance to Kosovar teachers and society and create foundations on which future studies can build new strata of important information and new structures on Kosovar educational database. Identifying and analysing job burnout levels of teachers through this research, we hope to understand better how this syndrome affects teachers in Kosova, and find ways to alleviate it. Although our research addresses primarily a population of teachers, we hope that education stake holders, government officials, national teaching professionals and international educational and psychological experts can also benefit from findings of this study.

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Determinants of Tendency to Deviant Social Identity among Delinquent Youth

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Abstract

Deviant identity has been recognized as one of the main causes of the crime in a large number of the studies. Formation of criminal or deviant identity are affected by different social conditions this study was conducted in order to investigate the factors underlying the deviant identity among the delinquent youth. The research sample consisted of 15-25years old delinquent youth in Yazd city. A survey was used as research method and data were collected using the questionnaires. The results showed that destructive social capital, Anomie and deviance in the family, have a significant relationship with deviant identity.

Keywords: Deviant Identity, Social Capital, Anomie, Family, Crime.

Introduction

The concept of deviant identity has been defined by the researchers in different ways. Some defined it as exiting an ordinary life style (Irwin, 1977; Lofland, 1969; Meisenhelder, 1977; Shover, 1983). Others argued that the deviant people never abandon their former identity and select a new role (Ebaugh, 1988). Labeling perspective considers the deviant identity as a factor that prevents the labeled deviant people enter the society (Sampson & Laub, 1997; Link, 1982; Lemert, 1972; Becker, 1963).

The formation of criminal or deviant identity and having such a self-definition are affected by different social conditions. As Stryker emphasized in theory of identity salience, as much as a person has a salient identity, s/he plays those roles that are related to the functional expectations of their identity. In this way, s/he regards all situations as the opportunities for improvement and implementation of the identity and seek to find (or provide) those opportunities that are relevant for expression of identity (Turner, 2003).

Deviant identity has been addressed in many studies as one of the most important factors of the criminal actions. For example, Walters (2016) in his study concluded that the deviant identity predicts the deviant thinking and delinquency. Deviant identity has a major role in the growth of antisocial personality. This has been considered in other studies, too (Thompson, 2009; Watson, 2007; Matsueda, 1992). A variety of studies has been carried out on the factors related to deviant identity; Fergusson et al. (2007) concluded that relationship with deviant friends and destructive social capital leads to deviant behavior. Boduszek et al. (2012) showed that criminal relationships with close friends and inadequate supervision of parents have a direct effect on social or identity. Rocheleau and Chavez (2014) found that deviant peers strengthen labeling and deviant identity of the people.

One of the fundamental effects of the family can be observed on the identity formation of the children. A number of scholars believe that family factors and deviant family leads to the deviant identity of the children. Shaw et al. (1991) and Simons et al. (1991) regard the lack of affection and poor parenting practices as a factor in creating deviant identity. Vazsonyi and Belliston (2007) in their study showed that family processes have direct and indirect effect on the deviation of the people. The results of the study conducted by Abigatil et al. (2010) indicated that family factors lead to the tendency of children towards crime and deviance. Studies have also been conducted on the anomie and deviation; Zojonc (2013) showed that there is a significant relationship between anomie and deviance and crime. Carter and Carter (2014) concluded that anomie caused a further deviation. Noriega et, al (2014) showed that anomie increases the criminal behaviors.

There are a high number of people who have a criminal record with different repeated social deviations. On the other hand, living and interactions can shape and strengthen this deviant identity. This study followed the question that Which variables are related to the acceptance of deviant identity?

Theoretical Background

The theoretical framework draws from the theory of interaction, differential association and Merton's theory of anomie. Among the different theories that have been raised in explaining the social deviations, symbolic interaction approach mainly focuses on the self and identity and emphasizes that formation of deviant interaction has a bilateral relationship with self and identity; especially since the commission of deviancy and its social outcomes influence on the formation of deviant identity. Last but not least, identity, as a social concept, has been mainly developed in the framework of interaction. Concerning the crime, symbolic interaction theorists believe that individual self-concept as a deviant or law-abiding person is formed through the development of functionality processes and social interactions (Matsueda, 1992; Thornberry, 1987). Once this process is repeated over time, deviant identity and improving the functional commitment and social relations in the network increase (Stryker & Burk, 2000).

One of the views consistent with the views of social identity is the theory of differentiation proposed by Sutherland in relation to social deviations. He believes that deviant behavior, like other social behaviors are learned through companionship and association with others (Sutherland & Cressy, 1966: 170). According to this theory, the greater the individual's relationship with deviant individuals, it can be the basis for strengthening the deviant identity of the people. From this perspective, the formation of deviant identity above all is the result of social interactions with individuals, groups and environments that are involved in criminal behavior and deviation. In these situations, people learn that deviation is a natural and normal part of the individual life and therefore, they try to appeal it for solving their problems. Gradually as the interaction and contact with deviant people increases, individual deviant identity is strengthened, too. Of course, these interactions in contemporary sociology literature can be mainly raised in relation to the concept of "social capital". Hutter and Smith conducted a study on released prisoners and found that social capital is one of the most important factors for re-entering the prison. They stated that having high social capital facilitates accessing to important resources such as jobs and housing that are two important variables to connect the people and society (Hattery & Smith, 2010: 101).

Merton believes that anomie and some forms of abnormal behavior mainly result from separation of the cultural institutional goals of a society and social ways to achieve those objectives. In other words, the gap between goals and legitimate means to achieve them lead to failure in individual and social values (Garfield, 1987: 272). The main assumption of this theory is that market mechanisms and regulations cause anomic stresses. Market strengthens the materialistic views on social relations. When these trends will continue, probably anomie occurs. When the objectives are promoted by cultural support, while the controller normative tools lose continuous effect, conditions for the anomic activities are provided. In an anomic environment, activists are engaged with the results and efficiency of the action, not the legitimacy of tools that helps regulate behavior. Normative control failure likely increases the amount of improper behaviors such as crime and deviance (Messner, S., Rosenfeld, 1997: 936).

According to Sutherland, in fact, destructive social capital leads to a kind of deviant identity; because people try to mimic the deviant behaviors and as this relationship continues, this deviant identity is strengthened. On the other hand, according to the symbolic interaction, family is the most important place where individual functionality is shaped; therefore, any kind of the deviancy in family, lead to deviant behaviors and since these people tend to communicate with deviant groups, the network of their relationships create a destructive social capital.

Also according to Merton, anomic conditions and undermining the normative control, will lead to the deviant behaviors; so, anomic conditions may shape the destructive social capital; so, based on the theoretical framework, research model is outlined as follows:

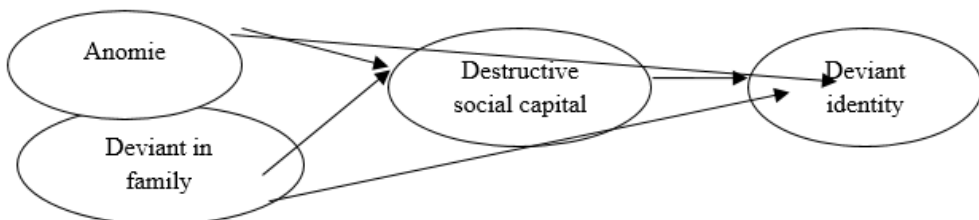


Figure 1: Theoretical model

Methods

Participants and Method

This is an applied research survey. The Statistical population consists of all youth delinquents in the rehabilitation of Yazd City-Iran, of whom 381 were selected using the Cochran formula; statistical samples were obtained using systematic random sampling; a list was prepared and respondents were selected using the sampling ratio.

Scales

Researcher-developed questionnaire was used for data collection. Answers were scored based on the Likert scale. The face validity and reliability of the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's alpha. The questionnaire had two parts. The first part included demographic and descriptive variables such as gender, age, type of crime and recidivism rate and the second part included the dependent variable (identity deviation) and independent variables (anomie, destructive social capital and deviation in the family).

Table 1. Operational definition and reliability of research variables

Variable	Items	Cronbach's alpha
Deviant identity	1. To what extent do you feel comfortable with positive and healthy people? 2. To what extent are you accustomed to the criminal life? 3. To what extent are you proud of being an offender? 4. To what extent do you enjoy relationship with offender friends? 5. To what extent do you know yourself as a professional criminal? 6. To what extent do you sympathize with the other prisoners? 7. To what extent do you help a criminal, if he wants to? 8. To what extent do you get upset, if others recognize you as a criminal? 9. To what extent do you get relaxed by offending? 10. To what extent do you feel you were born an offender? 11. To what extent do you think you are a successful person in wrongdoing? 12. To what extent do you feel intimate with offenders? 13. To what extent do you regret after wrongdoing? 14. To what extent do you think criminals are better people?	0.82
Deviance in the family	To what extent do these behaviors exist among your family members? : 1. Drug abuse. 2. Alcohol consumption. 3. Fights and clashes at home. 3. Fights and clashes outside the family. 4. Judicial sentence.	0.80
Destructive social capital	How much do you spend your leisure time with your deviant friends? To what extent do you consult with your deviant friends? To what extent do you have intimate relationships with your deviant friends? To what extent do you talk about your problems with your deviant friends? To what extent do you trust these people? deviant friends prison mates deviant people in your locale	0.80

Results

Out operating time 381 respondents, 84% were men and 16% were women. 62.7% were prisoned once, 17.1 twice, 8.9% three times, 5.2% four times, 2.9% five times and 2.1% were prisoned more than five times. In terms of crime, 67.6% were prisoned for drug, 8.4% for theft, 2.4% for murdering, 3.2% for beatings, 4.9% for financial crimes and 13.5% were prisoned for other crimes.

Table 2. Profiles of respondents

Variable	Items	Percentage
Gender	Male	84
	Female	16
Times of imprisonment	1 Time	62.7
	2 Time	17.1
	3 Time	8.9
	4 Time	5.2
	5 Time	2.9

Above of 5 Time

2.1

The results in Table 2 show that the deviant identity has a positive and significant relationship with destructive social capital ($r = .295$; $P < 0.01$). Moreover, there is a significant relationship between anomie and deviant identity ($r = .237$; $P < 0.01$).

There is a positive and significant relationship between deviant identity and deviations in the family ($r = .231$; $P < 0.01$).

Table 3. Correlations Matrix

	1	2	3	4
1. Deviant identity	1			
2. Destructive social capital	.295**	1		
3. Anomie	.237**	.150**	1	
4. Deviant in family	.231**	.157**	.058	1

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Path analysis

Path model was obtained using Amos Software version 22. Fitting indices show that the model has a relative good fitting; Chi Square was 1.28 that is desirable. RMESA value should backup less than 0.05 that is 0.027 in the proposed model. The values of the components of CFI, NFI, NNFI, IFI, and GFI were 0.99, 0.98, 0.97, 0.99 and 0.99, respectively that shows the good fitting of this model according to the indicators and outputs of the Amos software.

Table 4. Results of Testing the Model by Path Analysis

Model	χ^2	p	df	RMESA	p	GFI	IFI	NNFI	NFI	CFI
1	1.28	<.01	1	.027	<.05	.99	.99	.97	.99	.99

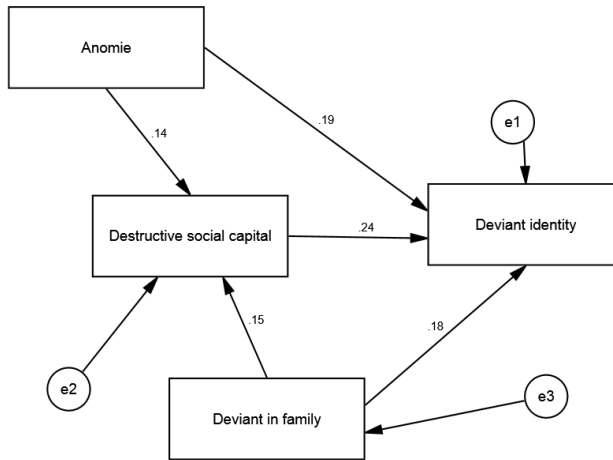


Figure 2: Path Analysis

Figure 1 and Table 2 show the total, direct and indirect effects of the independent variables on deviant identity using regression weights. Results indicate that most general effects are related to destructive social capital (0.239), anomie (0.225) and deviations in the family (0.218). The deviation in family due to the destructive social capital, in addition to direct effects, has an indirect effect on the deviant identity; moreover, the anomie directly affects the destructive social capital and directly and indirectly affects the deviant identity.

Table 5. Direct and Indirect Coefficients

Variable	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Destructive social capital	.239**	.000	.239**
Anomie	.191**	.034*	.225**
Deviant in family	.183**	.035*	.218**

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Discussion

Deviant identity is one of the basic requisites for entering and repeating social deviances; so, this study was conducted to investigate the factors associated with the deviant identity among the prisoners. The results showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between destructive social capital and deviant identity. This result is consistent with those obtained by Fergusson et al. (2007), Boduszek et al. (2007) and Rocheleau and Chavez (2014). According to Sutherland, differential association with deviant people leads to formation of deviant identity and tendency for committing the crimes. If the individual social capital is affected by deviant people and groups it may lead to deviation and deviant identity. This variable can result in stretching the identity and deviant actions: destructive social capital among the criminals provide a secure network for continuing and repeating the crimes. In fact, having a network of relationships and mutual trust between criminals provides the ground for the reproduction and continuity of the criminal activities. In such a network, people support each other and for deviations, provide the mutual security.

Other results showed that anomie has a positive and significant relationship with deviant identity; this result is consistent with those results obtained by Zojonc (2013), Carter and Carter (2014) and Noriega (2014); all of these studies

acknowledged the relationship between anomie and crime and deviations. According to Merton, in an anomic society, people cannot use legitimate means to reach their target; therefore, they tend towards deviancy.

Results also showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between the deviation of family and deviant identity; the results of the studies conducted by Shaw et al. (1991), Simons et al. (1991), Vazsonyi et al. (2007) and Abigail et al. (2010), indicated that family processes and parenting practices have direct and indirect effects on a person's crime. According to the theory of identity in symbolic interaction theory, a person in the family learn one of the core networks of socialization, values and norms, so, if these values and norms are deviant, the it may lead to the deviant identity.

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Theories of Death with a Special Reference to Indian Philosophy

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Abstract

Most of the philosophers deal with the quality of life, assuming a long span covering all phases. Therefore it is a commonly idealized life. But during the course the life as we advance, there are numerous riddles of self and the universe we live in it to encounter. Certain questions that have not only puzzled the common man but also the intellectuals had been like, Is there any meaning behind every happening? How ought we to live? Is there any life after death? Is death as such is the true end of all activities and so on. However, when the subject of death comes the answers through theories or philosophies have not been very convincing or suitable to all the rungs of the society. This could be mostly due to our evading the very subject of death much owing to the general uneasiness, fear and a sort of psychological insecurity, while dealing with it. Therefore it is always easy to raise philosophical questions than to answer them. There are almost two dozen theories in vogue which have certain basic assumptions but somehow they do not fall in the domain of truly scientific inquiry. They are to be accepted as an outcome of religious sentiments or wishful thinking. This paper highlights the salient features of Indian philosophical viewpoint with regard to death.

Keywords: Riddles of self, Psychological insecurity and Scientific inquiry.

Introduction

The very subject of death even in general discussion often leads to gloom and despondency. In fact it is one of those rare subjects on which honestly speaking none can claim knowledge with absolute veracity. Therefore, most of the times views presented are borrowed from scriptures which needless to say have typically religious overtones or they must have been handed over from one generation to another without any impartial scrutiny. It is an undeniable fact that the majority of our society believes in the handiwork of unseen higher force, usually referred to the Almighty, with power to pervade as Omnipotent, Omniscient and Omnipresent. Therefore there is a total unflinching trust in the justice too. Until there is no substitute for this dependence this trend is bound to continue and truly it has genuinely become a psychological need, as most of the philosophers of pragmatism assert. Death at least on the physical plane is clearly the terminating point from life and no one knows where exactly it merges into. Humanity as a whole with rare exceptions definitely fears it. It is however unfortunate that under uncontrolled enthusiasm and with spirited outlook filled with fanaticism the scientific analysis is not only overlooked but even unjustifiably and ruthlessly condemned. Instead of taking on purely philosophical approaches that are filled with academic fervor it would be wise to take on a common-man's viewpoint and subsequently the problems he has to encounter. A common man is hardly interested in theories or philosophies of any concrete subject as such. All that he harps after is solace. Neither he wants to enter into the scientific realm to understand the basic principles of all natural phenomena nor get involved in the serious philosophical particularly metaphysical sketches. He pretty well knows his own cultivated restricted and well defined arena. For him at any rate death is an existing reality witnessed by one and all for every living being. No one can escape it or even postpone when it is due. However he definitely wants to know the possible and much publicized life after death. Rather all that he desires is a calm and hassle-free termination when it cannot be halted. He is as much obsessed with the questions related to life as those after life. No theory has been successful to date to provide complacency in true sense.

Scientific Viewpoint

In science every phenomenon has a cause and therefore can be explained on the basis of laws. Sometimes it is quite easy to answer back how than why. With the development of science in various branches, as centuries have rolled down there had been always attempts to make living as much comfortable as possible. However, no law or theory could come to the

rescue of people when death would signal. Death is an open reality and remains invincible. It is a fact of life. With the principle of Conservation of energy there is definitely a guidance for us and furthermore little consolation too. The various forms of energy are interconvertible and therefore, theoretically there is never a loss in true sense. Since we are accustomed to a particular form or format, we are not ready to accept or accommodate any new or altered version of the same. Much owing to this kind of sustained ignorance we are dragged into the domain of depression either periodically or continually. The Thermodynamic laws clearly emphasize on the transformations due to which nothing can be claimed by us as a self-creation or even taking credit for the destruction is absolutely unacceptable. In fact, it is the invisible form that we do not accept and more so despite the fact that there are six states of matter viz. solid, liquid, Gas, Plasma, Bose-Einstein and Fermion, we rely only on the first three for explaining all Natural phenomena. Absence or Invisibility is wrongly concluded as or equated to destruction on a permanent basis. With the energy transformation, life and death can be looked upon as separate phases but essentially interlinked. It has been placed on record that about 20% of patients who recover after sustaining cardiac arrest have reported clearly a near death experience. They have also described some kind of awareness, while being resuscitated. With this background life death may be considered as a reversible process which might occur or show such symptoms at a specific moment but only after severe illness. This means that although it is a common or routine feature of almost all religions and also philosophies to entertain such conjectures about life after death, science too on the basis of neuroscience in particular finds and acknowledges the agreeable evidence furnished.

Earlier the historical approach which lasted for a fairly long time described Death as merely stopping of the breathing process or heartbeat only. But with the development of science these two could be restarted in the early stage with the help of life-support devices. That is why in the modern world certain new Medical terminologies have been used to describe partial and complete or clinically proved death.

Philosophical Approach

Philosophers with an existential outlook had been concerned more with the complicated design of life. They however met with a thorough disappointment when they confronted with the changing facts of reality. Human nature as such indicates insecurity and deficiency in most of the situations. In the beginning philosophers paid little attention to death and got engaged with life to such an extent that whole of humanity took pride in solving Nature-mysteries. Later many philosophers with an optimistic approach tried to convince that this is probably one of the best patterns of life gifted to humanity and this ought to be the handiwork of a supremely intelligent agency. Unfortunately most of such emotionally and hurriedly drawn conclusion ended up with lukewarm response. Most of the theories appeared to be result of wistful thinking or lopsided arguments with doubtful pre-suppositions. Whether theistic or atheistic existential approach that dealt with life hinted at the futile nature of the various shades of life which further surfaced with meaninglessness and nothingness. It is quite possible that philosophers of existentialism apparently at least engaged themselves more in highlighting the negative aspects of life and they were indeed very true and convincing. Despite this fact the escape from such a situation or harsh reality somehow did not equally appeal to all the rungs of the society.

If we admit the term 'enlightenment' and then spiritual enlightenment as an extension then it is clear that the very fear of death is chiefly because of our metaphysical or spiritual ignorance. It could also be owing to the fallacy entertained by clutching or identifying the spirit with the body. So long as we continue to believe that soul and body are one and the same this dilemma is bound to continue by subjecting our mind to the fear of death. Once this is clarified, then we realize that our body is subject to the laws of nature and therefore, just as other living beings we too have to sportively accept the steady decline. "so in all religions the great spiritual essence of our being, the more we overcome the fear of death"¹. Both Eastern and Western philosophers have seriously dealt with the subject of death equally. From the beginning it had been one of the major subjects of common concern for the humanity. Much owing to this there are many philosophical or other approaches, first to explain what death exactly means and then how to look at it. It is not possible to cover all philosophers for their individual contribution to this subject and therefore there may be a passing reference to select few.

In Phaedo, Socrates suggests an outlook to people which can reduce their fear of death and may even manage to become indifferent to it. Socrates had tremendous confidence in his conviction that fear surfaces only because of ignorance of the nature of soul. In other words he meant to grant the status of immortality to soul and disqualify body for it. However needless to say, it is the Thanophobia which has not only widely spread but for centuries has humanity in its tight grip. The morbid fear of death may be taken lightly by the intellectuals or evolved beings and that too in debates but then with varying percentages it does remain or at any rate cannot be eradicated totally. As Socrates himself claims that, "if you see any one distressed at the prospect of dying, it will be proof enough that he is a lover not of wisdom but of the body."²

Heidegger's Philosophy of death is a way to be but not a way to end. Therefore there is, a need to distinguish between Being at an end and Being towards an end. Heidegger in no way suggests Being at an end. This is a proof that he also like many philosophers does not subscribe to the view that death ends us on a permanent basis or is a process of annihilation. For him death is a phenomenon of life itself such that finally human beings manage to exist and it could also be a meaningful possibility because it provides the sense of non-being also.

For Soren Kierkegaard the idea of death is a reflection of one's own understanding of the term Existence. He lays lot of emphasis on personal faith disregarding the attempts to catch hold of certainty through others viewpoints. For a common man death is the end in itself with no other deviation and that is why it could be an uncertain certainty."In Either/Or the response of Kierkegaard's aesthete to this situation is one of despair. He wants to view enjoyment as life's purpose but sees man as tragically at the mercy of fate, suffering and death robbing him of pleasure and happiness: no one asks if one wants to come in none when one wants to go out."³

Indian Philosophy

The followers of Indian Philosophy do not feel death as a problem because they had been trained and periodically guided to look at life and death as complementary to each other. Therefore if an onlooker feels that there is a very little practical approach, still it is trusted that some mystic element governs death as a phase or shade of life only. Hinduism in fact invests willingly all its faith in not only the rebirth theory but also in the reincarnation of souls. As a matter of fact body is always given a secondary status while soul an exclusive and more so a spiritual position. Therefore souls are regarded by one and all with exception of atheists, as immortal and subsequently imperishable. The Conservation of Energy principle scientifically backs this outlook. However soul which is residing in the body on a temporary basis is needless to say is always independent and therefore can willingly transcend. The body however is subjected to the physical plane and therefore physical laws and so it has to pass through the stages to mature and then get ready to go into a newly transformed phase. It is always attacked by impurities brought forth by attachment, delusion and laws of Karma(action).

The consolatory part of this philosophy is that Death is never looked upon as any sort of calamity or end of everything but it is a natural process in the very existence of jiva(being) and nonetheless a separate entity. The Gita described two paths with highly illumined one and the other one with complete darkness, connected to Sun and Moon respectively. The brighter one is supposed to be a path of God and there is no retreat thereof. The latter one is equated to ignorance and therefore fails to negotiate the enlightened path and is ever stuck up. This is how one attains the state of Nirvana or Moksha. One of the major Upanishads viz. Katha Upanishad has the central theme Death only.

Conclusion

From the salient features of Kathopanishad it is clear that human life has two aspirations. On one side there is an ardent desire to gain all worldly pleasures while after passing through variety experiences of life it may be concluded that the efforts invested in gathering all the prosperity not truly worthy. Life is full of miseries and no materialistic gain can appease our mind. As Schopenhauer puts it, "All willing arises from want, therefore from deficiency and therefore from suffering. The satisfaction of a wish ends it, yet for one wish that is satisfied there remain at least ten which are denied. Further the desire lasts long, the demands are infinite; the satisfaction is short and scantily measured out...No attained object can give lasting satisfaction."⁴. Therefore it is believed that man survives death and the soul releases itself to travel according to one's own righteous deeds and then accordingly he is reborn. Lastly one can have a realization through the recommended Yogic practices so as to be liberated in true sense from mortal miseries!

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The Cyprus Peace Talks at Mont Pelerin (7-11 and 20-21 November 2016) and the Greek Cypriot Press: The Positions of Cypriot Newspapers *Alithia*, *Politis* and *Haravgi*

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Abstract

This text is based on research aiming to record the period of negotiations at Mont Pèlerin, Switzerland between the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot community in November 2016. Articles from three newspapers (*Alithia*, *Politis* and *Haravgi*) were studied, with an emphasis on political coverage regarding the negotiations. The choice of newspapers was based on the fact that they have been around for many decades, they have a different ideological orientation and they have contributed to the modern history of Cyprus. Moreover, they all have a full electronic archive of their issues which makes it easy to access and study the articles. The overarching aim is to understand the efforts to solve the Cyprus problem through the recent negotiations in Switzerland and to examine the positions of the Cypriot press regarding this thorny and crucial issue over which the Republic of Cyprus has been agonising for more than forty years.

Keywords: The Cyprus Peace Talks at Mont Pelerin (7-11 and 20-21 November 2016) and the Greek Cypriot Press: The Positions of Cypriot Newspapers *Alithia*, *Politis* and *Haravgi*

Introduction

The Cyprus issue emerged, in practical terms, on the day of declaration of independence of the Republic of Cyprus, on 16 August 1960, following the armed struggle of the National Organisation of Cypriot Fighters (EOKA) between the years 1955-1959 and a summit in London on 19 February 1959, attended by representatives from Greece, Turkey, the UK and the two Cypriot communities. Over the course of time, it was made clear that the implementation of certain provisions of the newly-signed Constitution presented serious problems and, as a result, the Turkish Cypriot ministers and members of the Parliament withdrew from the Cabinet and the House of Representatives respectively and formed separate bodies of executive and legislative power for their community. On imposition of the military dictatorship in Greece in 1967, things got even more complicated. After the establishment of the dictatorship of 21 April 1967 in Athens, the relations between Greece and Cyprus deteriorated gradually. On 15 July 1974, military coup was launched in Cyprus, organised by the Junta aiming at the deposition of president Makarios. Makarios managed to escape to Paphos initially and then to Akrotiri British Sovereign Base, before travelling abroad. Five days later, Turkey, using a long-sought pretext, invaded the island on 20 July 1974 and, to this date, holds 37% of the territory of Cyprus.

Since 1977, several rounds of talks were held between the two sides for an overall settlement of the problem with the then Secretary General of the United Nations, Kurt Waldheim to the current Secretary General, Antonio Guterres, without success. The most recent talks took place at Crans Montana, Switzerland in July 2017 and reached a dead-end.

In 2016, the Cyprus problem reached a crucial point in the history of efforts in search of a solution, with the meeting between the president of the Republic of Cyprus Nicos Anastasiades and the Turkish Cypriot leader Mustafa Akinci at Mont Pèlerin, Switzerland. Following two rounds of talks, Anastasiades and Akinci were unable to achieve the necessary convergence on the criteria for territorial adjustments that would pave the way for the last act of the talks. According to the Special Adviser of the Secretary-General on Cyprus, the two sides decided "to return to Cyprus and examine the way forward" (*Politis*, 21 November 2017).

This paper aims to record and analyse press publications during the UN-led talks on the reunification of Cyprus in November 2016 at Mont Pèlerin, Switzerland between the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot communities. Articles from three Greek Cypriot newspapers (*Alithia*, *Politis* and *Haravgi*) were studied, with an emphasis on political coverage regarding the peace

talks. The choice of newspapers was based on the fact that they have been in circulation for many decades¹, they have a different ideological orientation² and they have contributed to the modern history of Cyprus. Moreover, they all have a full electronic archive of their issues which made it easy to access and study the articles.

The overarching aim is to understand the efforts to seal a deal to reunify Cyprus through the recent negotiations in Switzerland and to review the positions of the Cypriot press regarding this thorny and crucial issue over which the Republic of Cyprus has been agonising for more than forty years.

The study

As is the case with media across the world, the Cypriot media undertake the task of keeping the public informed and up-to-date. They play the role of the Fourth Estate since people rely on media for the exercise of criticism on the Executive Estate (Sofokleous, 2008:167). Newspapers, as a traditional form of the Press, are always a notable and reliable medium as they cover several topics with the aim of informing the public. The Cypriot Press has existed for 130 years and judging by the circumstances on the island all these years with the on-going occupation by the English and the Turks, its presence and development has been particularly difficult (Sofokleous, 1995). For the record, the first Cypriot newspaper was printed in 1878 in Lamaca by Theodoulos Constantinides. During World War II, the Cypriot Press started to gradually gain freedom and independence. Its contribution to the national liberation struggle of 1955-1959 was considerable. Several Greek Cypriot journalists were persecuted, tortured and imprisoned in concentration camps, mostly because they wrote articles against the establishment of that period (Sofokleous, 2006). Today, five daily and ten weekly newspapers are available in Greek for Cypriot readers.

As already mentioned the object of our study is to record and present the peace talks as covered by the Greek Cypriot Press during the period starting from 1 November 2016 and ending on 30 November 2016. More particularly, we focus on political articles in newspapers *Alithia*, *Politis* and *Haravgi* and on how they reported the negotiations between the two communities.

Alithia newspaper was founded in 1952 by the late Antonis Farmakides as a weekly newspaper. Antonis Farmakides is considered one of the pioneers of Cypriot journalism. Weekly *Alithia*, following its Monday issue on 15 July 1974, was forced to suspend its circulation for a few weeks due to the circumstances that occurred as a result of the military coup and the subsequent Turkish invasion. It re-circulated on 5 August 1974 with a detailed report on the tragedy that hit Cyprus and an optimistic message. Today, *Alithia* has completed 35 years of presence as a daily newspaper

Politis newspaper was first issued on 12 February 1999. The newspaper has made a firm commitment to provide all-round and impartial information and to adhere to the principles of independence, impartiality, truth, freedom of speech and pluralism. It is not a newspaper of extreme ideology. It has demonstrated responsibility and, naturally, it endeavours to feature the sensitivities and interests of small and bigger groups of Cypriot society and to bring Cyprus even closer to European affairs, thus broadening the horizons of knowledge and experience.

Haravgi has large, island-wide circulation and is the medium of expression of left-wing party AKEL (Progressive Party of the Working People). Its first issue was published in Nicosia on 18 February 1956. In a main article titled "Setting off" on the front page of its first issue, the newspaper states "[...] our newspaper will strive to offer high-quality material to our readers. Aside from news reporting that will be our top priority, there are several other topics worthy of attention." (Sofokleous, 2011:394)

Methodology and Objectives

Our methodology was based on elements of content quality analysis which we thought was most appropriate, since "the great strength of content analysis is that it analyses the whole message system, and not the individual's selective experience of it" (Fiske 2010:139). This method is suitable when cultural issues are examined since it "takes account of notion systems deriving from culture" (McQuail 2003: 382) and assists in analysing the features of the text message, discourse and form (Constantinidou, 1998) and involves five stages (ibid, 1998):

The procedure of compiling the empirical evidence

The isolation of items (units recorded)

The classification of units recorded into categories

The quantity conversion and measurement of items (codification)

Analysis and interpretation of data.

More specifically, the research involved the recording of daily news items in daily newspapers of island-wide circulation and the identification of the main political news stories in the above newspapers. In this case, the role of the Press is paramount in ensuring that there exist conditions that enable citizens to stay well informed and up-to-date. We recorded the articles and we then classified them into six categories as follows: a) *Republic of Cyprus*, b) *Greek Cypriot community*, c) *Turkish Cypriot community*, d) *countries involved* (i.e. the guarantor countries in accordance with the Treaty of Establishment of the Republic of Cyprus, namely Greece, Turkey and the UK), e) *United Nations* and f) *European Union*.

During the first stage, we identified the empirical evidence, namely the news stories that were relevant to our research. During the second stage, we isolated the stories that could be incorporated. The third stage involved the codification, i.e. the classification of topics into categories. During the fourth stage, we converted the quantitative items into such form so that they could be processed on the computer, compared and analysed (ibid, 1998). During the fifth stage, the data was presented, analysed and interpreted. A thematic analysis helps to answer questions such as how the negotiations between the two communities are presented, why it is possible to record views and conceptions through political news items published in the political columns and subsequently make a connection of all this. Moreover, by putting the news items into categories, we can identify the different positions/ opinions expressed and have them in one place.

The one-month period that was examined was chosen primarily on the basis of the working hypotheses, as well as the material under study. The events taking place in November 2016 were of particular significance and the daily issues of newspapers covered a range of stories and topics and made extensive reviews on the progress made during the week. The extent of the duration is just right to support our hypothesis, as it allows us to shape an opinion on the varied reflections expressed by the Greek Cypriot community, which take form and change as the events unfold on both a local and international level.

From the newspaper issues, we focused on the political and news sections which include a plethora of news reports, articles and reportages. Moreover, the political section is dominated by highly interesting, catchy headlines that attract readers and draw them into buying a newspaper. Choosing the material is a difficult task, since as many titles as possible need to be selected from a vast pool of items.

More particularly, the working hypotheses are the following:

If the newspaper's positions have a conflictual or reconciling tone;

Whether the tone of the news items regarding the talks varied depending on the newspaper;

Whether the articles were signed or unsigned; if unsigned, this probably means that journalists, as individuals, were reluctant to be associated with the talks.

Our research relates to the period of November 2016. Overall, 281 news items were scrutinised as units of analysis from the three newspapers (*Alithia* 108, *Politis* 104, *Haravgi* 69). In order to examine items on the front page, the following pattern of typical categories/ variables was used:

Political news stories that were relevant to the subject were classified based on their type as follows: Main Article, Opinion Article - Analysis - Comment/ Commentary, Reportage, Interview, Announcement, Letter, Simple Report, Other

In order to investigate the content of news, the number of references in each article was recorded so as to create a list of protagonists: President Anastasiades, Mustafa Akinci, Espen Barth Eide, Alexis Tsipras, Nikos Kotzias, Recep Tayyip Erdoğan etc.

The news items were recorded on the basis of source, origin of source and editor of the article (signed, unsigned, international news agency, special report).

If the newspaper positions were in favour or against the positive progress of the peace talks and the prospect of a deal.

RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

TABLE 1: References in newspapers *Alithia*, *Politis* and *Haravgi*

Period: 1-30 November 2016

References	1-30 November 2016	%	<i>Alithia</i>	<i>Politis</i>	<i>Haravgi</i>
Republic of Cyprus	222	22	84 (23%)	82 (21%)	56 (21%)
Greek Cypriot Community	193	19	74 (20%)	73(18%)	17%
Turkish Cypriot Community	149	14	53 (15%)	63 (16%)	33 (12%)
Countries involved	295	28	96 (26%)	110 (28%)	89 (32%)
United Nations	123	12	40 (11%)	49 (12%)	34 (12%)
European Union	55	5	17 (5%)	21 (5%)	17 (6%)
Total	1037	100	364	398	275

Note: Based on columns "Politics" and "News"

TABLE 2: A quantitative analysis of news items in *Alithia*, *Politis* and *Haravgi*

Period: 1-30 November 2016

Article Editor	<i>Alithia</i>	%	<i>Politis</i>	%	<i>Haravgi</i>	%
Signed	21	19	64	62	21	30
Unsigned	87	81	39	37	48	70
International News Agency	--		1	1	--	
Special Report	--		--		--	
Total	108	100	104	100	69	100
Type of article						
Main article	44	41	47	45	27	39
Opinion article	2	2	2	2	1	1
Reportage	26	24	29	28	7	11
Interview	2	2	4	4	--	
Announcement	--		--		--	
Letter	--		--		--	
Simple report	34	31	22	21	34	49
Other	--		--		--	
Total	108	100	104	100	69	100
Origin of source						
Anonymous	80	73	37	37	48	70
Greece	--		--		--	
Cyprus	29	26			21	30
UK	--		--		--	
Turkey	--		--		--	
Mont Pèlerin, Switzerland	--		62	62	--	
International news agencies	1	1	1	1	--	
Other	--		--		--	
Total	110	100	100	100	69	100
Focus on protagonists						
Nicos Anastasiades (President of the Republic of Cyprus)	70	33	69	26	37	21

Ioannis Kasoulides (Foreign Minister, Republic of Cyprus)	5	2	4	2	5	3
Nikos Christodoulides (Government spokesman)	15	7	9	3	8	4
Andreas Mavrogiannis (GC negotiator)	3	1	4	2	4	2
Archbishop of Cyprus	2	1	1	1	1	1
GC Party Representatives	18	8	28	10	16	9
Mustafa Akinci (Turkish Cypriot Leader)	45	21	61	22	29	17
Ozsdil Nami (TC negotiator)	3	1	2	1	3	2
Espen Barth Eide	16	7	22	7	16	9
Alexis Tsipras (Prime Minister, Hellenic Republic)	14	7	26	10	17	10
Nikos Kotzias (Foreign Minister, Hellenic Republic)	8	4	16	6	7	4
Prokopis Pavlopoulos (President, Hellenic Republic)	3	1	2	1	3	2
Recep Tayyip Erdoğan (President, Republic of Turkey)	9	4	15	6	15	9
Mevlüt Çavuşoğlu (Foreign Minister, Republic of Turkey)	5	2	5	2	9	5
Sergey Lavrov (Foreign Minister, Russia)	3	1	1	1	4	2
Total	214	214	265	100	174	100

The position of *Alithia* newspaper

This newspaper deals with a broad range of subjects and includes "articles, news reportages on local or international events, commentaries, culture coverage, courts news, reports from the countryside and a variety of other pieces of information" (Sofokleous 2011). The research revealed that regarding the type of news item, 41% are main articles, 31% are simple news reports and 24% are reportages. 88% of the articles are signed and 19% are unsigned (working hypothesis 3 confirmed). The main protagonists are the following: President of the Republic of Cyprus and leader of the Greek Cypriot Community Nicos Anastasiades with 33%, the leader of the Turkish Cypriot Community Mustafa Akinci with 21%, representatives of Greek Cypriot parties with 8%, the Greek Prime Minister Alexis Tsipras with 7% and the Turkish Prime Minister Recep Tayyip Erdoğan with 4%.

Over the period under study, *Alithia* maintained its government-affiliated stance, since it supports the Democratic Rally, which is President Anastasiades's political party. *Alithia*'s objective to support President Anastasiades's efforts to solve the Cyprus problem has remained unchanged. The titles below indicate the newspaper's support towards President Anastasiades and his negotiating team:

"President Anastasiades: The solution to the Cyprus problem will be the greatest financial reform for the decades to come" (*Alithia*, 2 November 2016)

"First day with smiles" (*Alithia*, 8 November 2016)

“Good spirit and progress during the first talks (*Alithia*, 8 November 2016)

“What matters most with the territorial trade-offs” (*Alithia*, 9 November 2016)

The subjects that appear repetitively and consistently in *Alithia* newspaper during the period under study are the following:

(1) The positive support of the efforts to solve the Cyprus problem:

Extracts from the newspaper:

“A solution is possible” (*Alithia*, 8 November 2016)

“The negotiation between Anastasiades-Akinci about the territorial matter is fruitful” (*Alithia*, 11 November 2016),

“Everyone is working for the solution” (*Alithia*, 12 November 2016)

“Steps towards a solution” (*Alithia*, 12 November 2016)

(2) The spirit of reconciliation between the two communities.

Extracts from the newspaper:

“Good spirit and progress during the first talks” (*Alithia*, 8 November 2016)

“The climate for peace is rising” (*Alithia*, 19 November 2016)

“Collaboration will conquer fears” (*Alithia*, 20 November 2016),

(3) Reference to more important topics, such as the territorial adjustments, the property trade-offs and economic progress.

Extracts from the newspaper:

“Good spirit and progress in the discussion of pending issues of the four chapters” (*Alithia*, 8 November 2016)

“And now the territory issue” (*Alithia*, 9 November 2016),

“Progress with the four chapters still open” (*Alithia*, 9 November 2016),

“New meeting focusing on the territory issue scheduled for the two leaders” (*Alithia*, 12 November 2016),

“Property issue: The estimates regarding the compensations” (*Alithia*, 21 November 2016),

(4) The trend towards agreement on the European Union chapter, and more particularly the economic aspect of this chapter.

Extracts from the newspaper:

“The economic aspect of the solution before Eurogroup” (*Alithia*, 7 November 2016),

“The economics of the solution – Experts from the International Monetary Fund in Cyprus today” (*Alithia*, 9 November 2016),

(5) The British stance: the United Kingdom does not wish to remain a guarantor power and, upon solution, will return half the territory of the Sovereign Base Areas.

Extracts from the newspaper:

The High Commissioner of the United Kingdom to Cyprus, Matthew Kidd, reaffirmed the position of the British government that “in case of a deal, at least 48% of the territory of the two British Bases will be returned” which amounts to approximately 1.5% of the total territory of the Republic of Cyprus (*Alithia*, 9 November 2016)

“The British High Commissioner has clarified that ‘the United Kingdom does not wish to remain a guarantor power’.” (*Alithia*, 9 November 2016)

(6) The summit on Cyprus and all the statements about Cyprus by foreign leaders about the island, as well as the

statements by Greeks and Turks.

Extracts from the newspaper:

"The Greek government supports these talks, backs-up the overall efforts and aspires to a viable and fair solution on the basis of the resolutions of the Security Council of the United Nations" (*Alithia*, 9 November 2016)

"We want the issue of territory, properties, guarantees and security to be discussed last" stated the Turkish Foreign Minister (*Alithia*, 10 November 2016)

The Turkish Minister further stated that "Turkey supports the negotiations procedure on the Cyprus problem and expressed the hope that the Greek Cypriot side is equally honest (*Alithia*, 10 November 2016)

The position of *Politis* newspaper

As shown in Table 2, *Politis* has the most articles regarding the peace talks in all categories compared to the three newspapers we used in the sample. The topics that appear repetitively and consistently during the period under study in *Politis* newspaper are the following:

(1) The desire for a solution to the problem.

Extracts from the newspaper:

"On our way for a solution with self-confidence" (*Politis*, 5 November 2016)

"Time for responsibility for the two leaders" (*Politis*, 6 November 2016)

"The talks will determine the prospect of a solution within 2016" (*Politis*, 7 November 2016)

"Seeking for convergence on everything" (*Politis*, 8 November 2016)

"The future lies in the hands of the two leaders today" (*Politis*, 11 November 2016)

"The die is cast: Anastasiades - Akinci were close to an agreement at Mont Pèlerin (*Politis*, 13 November 2016)

"On the eve of a solution" (*Politis*, 20 November 2016)

(2) References to paramount issues such as territory, security and guarantees.

Extract from the newspaper:

"The Turkish Cypriot side has not come prepared to hand over a map on territory" (*Politis*, 10 November 2016)

(3) The European Union stance.

Extract from the newspaper:

"If Anastasiades and Akinci succeed in reaching an agreement, the EU will soon be called upon to accept a federal state with all its problems and outstanding issues" (*Politis*, 7 November 2016),

(4) Optimism about the future of the island.

Extracts from the newspaper:

"The future lies in the hands of the two leaders today" (*Politis*, 11 November 2016)

"Counting on the determination of the two leaders, the United Nations expressed the hope that a settlement will be reached" (*Politis*, 11 November 2016).

As expected, *Politis* places an emphasis on the two sides as well the guarantor countries United Kingdom, Greece and Turkey. In the period under study, 18% of the articles refer to the Greek Cypriot community, 16% to the Turkish Cypriot community, 21% to the Republic of Cyprus as represented by its President, 12% to the United Nations and 5% to the European Union.

In 62% of the news items, Mont Pèlerin is the origin of the source, since it is the place where the talks took place and the reporter was present in Switzerland. A percentage of 37% of the items is from anonymous sources, i.e. the source is not specified.

There are no surprises regarding the people getting the most attention: President of the Republic of Cyprus and leader of the Greek Cypriot Community Nicos Anastasiades with 26%, the leader of the Turkish Cypriot Community Mustafa Akinci with 22%, the Greek Prime Minister Alexis Tsipras with 10%, representatives of Greek Cypriot parties with 10%, and the Turkish Prime Minister Recep Tayyip Erdoğan with 6%.

With regard to the type of news item, 45% are main articles, 28% are reportages and 21% are simple news reports.

100% of the articles are signed and 37% are unsigned.

The position of *Haravgi* newspaper

The topics that appear repetitively and consistently during the period under study in *Haravgi Politis* newspaper are the following:

(1) During the talks on the Cyprus problem, *Haravgi* newspaper focuses on Switzerland and the negotiations; it is a time when the leaders of the two communities must assume historical responsibility.

Extract from the newspaper:

"We can overcome the problems and find solutions to all the open chapters of internal governance. The way to the next and possibly final step towards the solution, i.e. the international summit on the issue of security and guarantees, may be paved. If we don't succeed now, Greek Cypriots will not be the only ones burdened with a loss and a failure, but also Turkish Cypriots who will be faced with annexation and assimilation with Turkey. Wishful thinking is not enough. Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots together must truly feel that now is the time to unite our country" (*Haravgi*, 7 November 2016).

(2) The desire for a solution.

Extracts from the newspaper:

"A time of truth for a solution to the Cyprus problem" (*Haravgi*, 6 November 2016)

"Optimism aiming for convergence" (*Haravgi*, 12 November 2016)

"The flame of hope for a solution still burns" (*Haravgi*, 13 November 2016)

"Obama: The Cyprus problem may be solved within the next few months" (*Haravgi*, 16 November 2016)

"The desire for the solution is still alive" (*Haravgi*, 27 November 2016)

(3) The criteria of the solution.

Extract from the newspaper:

"The criteria are being discussed on the basis of a joint document" (*Haravgi*, 10 November 2016)

The main protagonists, as referred to in the sample under study, are the following: President of the Republic of Cyprus and leader of the Greek Cypriot Community Nicos Anastasiades with 21%, the leader of the Turkish Cypriot Community Mustafa Akinci with 17%, the Greek Prime Minister Alexis Tsipras with 10%, representatives of Greek Cypriot parties with 9% and the Turkish Prime Minister Recep Tayyip Erdoğan with 9%.

With regard to the type of news item, 49% are simple news reports, 39% are main articles and 11% are reportages. It is important to note that anonymous sources reach 70% and an equal percentage accounts for unsigned articles.

Lastly, daily articles of *Haravgi* newspaper in November 2016 make reference to the countries dealing with the future of the island, i.e. the Greek Cypriot community with 32%, the Turkish Cypriot community with 12%, the Republic of Cyprus as represented by its President with 21%, the United Nations with 12% and the European Union with 6% (Table 2).

Analysis and results of variables

TABLE 3

List of framings in *Alithia*, *Politis* and *Haravgi* newspapers during the period of 1-30 November 2016 and whether they have a conflictual or reconciling tone:

Tone	<i>Alithia</i>	%	<i>Politis</i>	%	<i>Haravgi</i>	%
Conflictual	7	6%	7	7%	10	14%
Reconciling	101	94%	97	93%	59	86%
Total	108	100	104	100	69	100

A remarkable finding of our research is that all three newspapers use a reconciling tone in the majority of their articles and express the wish of the two communities and guarantor countries to solve the Cyprus problem.

Newspaper *Alithia* writes:

"First day with smiles" (*Alithia*, 8 November 2016)

"The Greek government supports the talks" (*Alithia*, 9 November 2016)

"Constructive negotiation regarding the territorial matter between Anastasiades – Akkinci" (*Alithia*, 11 November 2016)

"Turkey supports the negotiations" (*Alithia*, 16 November 2016)

"Greek parties support the efforts towards solution" (*Alithia*, 18 November 2016)

Newspaper *Politis* writes:

"Time for responsibility for the two leaders" (*Politis*, 6 November 2016)

"Obama and Tsipras see a historic opportunity for a solution for Cyprus" (*Politis*, 16 November 2016)

"Erdogan feels that this is a historic opportunity for a solution" (*Politis*, 16 November 2016)

"The mother countries took over" (*Politis*, 21 November 2016)

Newspaper *Haravgi* writes:

"No army in united Cyprus" (*Haravgi*, 1 November 2016)

"We should apprehend each other's concerns" (*Haravgi*, 3 November 2016)

"Second round of great expectations" (*Haravgi*, 20 November 2016)

"We are ready for a solution" states Özgürün" (*Haravgi*, 22 November 2016)

Conclusion-discussion

In conclusion, through daily news reporting, it becomes clear that the desire for a solution to the Cyprus problem dominates journalism. The procedure of direct talks with the mediation of the United Nations aims to resolve the dispute between the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot communities and, ultimately, to reach an agreement; the press contributes towards this by publishing relevant articles regarding this long-term objective. The reconciliation between the two communities predisposes the termination of any type of conflict between the two sides.

A comparison among the three newspapers demonstrates that all of them have faith that the Cyprus issue can be resolved through the talks. The Greek Cypriot side went to Mont Pèlerin aiming for success in the matters of territory and property. Both sides showed their cards, whilst the regulatory role of the countries involved was evident. The Greek side holds in its hands the main political demand of Turkish Cypriots, that of political equality, which is envisioned to be obtained through the acceptance of a rotating presidency. The Turkish side also wishes to discuss the issue of security guarantees.

It is worth to note that there is no name-calling, no prejudice, nothing that accuses any of the two sides for the failure of the talks at Mont Pèlerin; just sheer disappointment about the dead end of the peace talks. *Alithia* reports "Dead end for the territorial criteria – to be continued in Cyprus" (*Alithia*, 22 November 2016), while *Politis* reports "Instead of reaching an agreement, we reached a crisis" (*Politis*, 22 November 2016). In the same spirit, *Haravgi* reports "Return from Switzerland without results" (*Haravgi*, 22 November 2016). Almost all newspapers provided the same coverage and this probably means that they perceived the events of the two summits in the same manner.

Another aspect that was looked into was the reporting style used in the news items of all three newspapers. For example, at Mont Pèlerin 1, there was an impression that the conditions have matured and a settlement could be achieved. Journalists' texts are written in a rather striking tone as they give the impression that an optimistic mood dominates the talks: "First day with smiles" (*Alithia*, 8 November 2016), "A setting of culmination with an open agenda" (*Politis*, 8 November 2016), "Good spirit and progress in the discussion of pending issues on the four chapters" (*Alithia*, 8 November 2016). At the same time, a series of logical arguments are deployed that "convince" the readers of these newspapers that a compromise between the two communities is the only feasible and viable solution sought by the two communities.

A similar image was observed with two of the three guarantor powers, namely Greece and Turkey, as the newspapers reported on the significant role that these countries have during the talks: "Greek prime minister Alexis Tsipras clarified that Greece will have an opinion and the right to manage only in relation to the matter of guarantees" (*Allithia*, 23 November 2016), whilst Turkish Prime Minister Mevlüt Çavuşoğlu stated that "according to the objective for 2016, these negotiations should be fruitful and bring a result; steps should be taken for a permanent solution and a specific road map must be created that will involve the multilateral conference" (*Haravgi*, 26 November 2016).

Finally, the three newspapers promote a culture of consent between the two sides and, at the same time, support the direct talks between the two leaders of the two communities, a long-held position of the Republic of Cyprus.

Notes

Papathanasopoulos, "Mediterranean/Polarized Pluralist Media Model Countries," 219–28.

Stubbs and Taseli, "Newspapers, Nationalism and Empire," 286.

Ibid., 287–8.

Ibid., 286.

Krippendorff, Content Analysis.

Iyengar and Kinder, *News That Matters*, 59–70.

Constantinidou, "Allocation of Labour According to Sex."

Ibid, 29.

Stubbs and Taseli, "Newspapers, Nationalism and Empire," 284–301.

Sofokleous, *History of the Cypriot Press*, Vol. E, 355.

Sofokleous, *History of the Cypriot Press*, Vol. E, 394.

Sofokleous, *History of the Cypriot Press*, Vol. C, 131.

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ELECTRONIC SOURCES

¹ *Allithia* since 1952 and *Haravgi* since 1966 (Sofokleous, 2011).

² *Allithia*: 35 years as a daily newspaper (1 May 2017)

³ *Haravgi* belongs to biased press and is "AKEL's official medium of expression" (Prodromou, 210, 343-344).

“Educated or Warehoused?”: The educational experiences of former NEET and so-called disengaged youth in a Further Education (FE) College in England

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Abstract

RPA (Raising of Participation Age) legislation re-positioned all youth in England to participate in post-16 education and training, the ultimate aim to develop ‘human capital’, i.e. skills, abilities and knowledge (Foucault 2008). However, how does RPA play out in practice with previously NEET and so-called disengaged youth engaged on a Level 1 prevocational course? Empirical research was conducted at a large general further education (FE) college in South East England, named *The Site* with seven tutors and twenty six students from the 2013-14 and 2014-15 cohorts. Adopting a case study approach, multiple methods of data collection were used, including classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis. Key findings problematize education and highlighted complications for marginalised youth that participated in the study. Far from being a straightforward experience for former NEET and disadvantaged youth to gain knowledge and skills whilst at college, conversely, these Level 1 pre-vocational students faced multiple barriers that challenged student efforts to access essential provision in an attempt to improve on previous academic failure. Research findings revealed ‘warehousing’ appeared to be the main purpose of education for these particular students in this study. Distinctly different to stereotypical ideas, these particular students wanted to learn. In a profound way, empirical research highlighted how stringent academic conditions were powerfully used to demarcate access and predetermined which types of youth were permitted on higher levels of study programmes and apprenticeship. This study adopts a social justice framework and therefore advocated for numerous structural and pedagogical changes. Amongst others, the recommendation was made for an overhaul in government and organisational policies on GCSE provision. This study also calls for a sharpened political focus, inviting academic and government debate for a critical re-think and revamp of re-engagement provision - so it is fit for purpose for disadvantaged students.

Keywords: Raising of Participation Age (RPA); Further Education (FE); NEET (not in education, employment or training); Neo-liberalism; Level 1 pre-vocational course, Warehousing, marginalisation; GCSEs; human capital

Introduction

RPA (Raising of Participation Age) legislation re-positioned all youth in England to participate in post-16 education and training, the ultimate aim to develop ‘human capital’, i.e. skills, abilities and knowledge (Foucault 2008). However, how does RPA play out in practice with previously NEET and so-called disengaged youth enrolled on a Level 1 prevocational course? Moreover, to what extent can they reap benefits when re-engaged in further education, as echoed in RPA discourse?

This paper draws on key empirical findings that problematize education. It brings into focus the strong political emphasis on raising education credentials as a means to develop a skilled, qualified workforce in England (DfES, July 2012), but also highlighted its profound effect and complications for marginalised youth that participated in the study. Far from being a straightforward experience for former NEET and disadvantaged youth to gain knowledge and skills whilst at college, conversely empirical data illustrated that unlike neoliberalist assumption, Level 1 pre-vocational students on this particular employability course faced multiple barriers that challenged student efforts to access essential provision in an attempt to improve on previous academic failure. Contrary to RPA rhetoric, this study challenged notions of ‘upskilling’ and ‘equal access and opportunity’, revealing gatekeeping, warehousing and marginalisation from essential and mainstream provision. At its core functions, a credentialist nature appeared to be inherent to this particular college system - this, despite marginalised students’ efforts to re-engage and develop human capital.

Empirical findings hence appear to dispel political ideology: the study shows that re-engagement in education for these particular students rarely resulted in quality tuition and the right type of qualifications needed to progress within the setting. In a profound way, empirical research highlighted how stringent academic conditions were powerfully used to demarcate access and predetermined which types of youth were permitted on higher levels of study programmes and apprenticeship. This study adopts a social justice framework and therefore advocated for numerous structural and pedagogical changes. Amongst others, the recommendation was made for an overhaul in government and organisational policies on GCSE provision. This study also calls for a sharpened political focus, inviting academic and government debate for a critical re-think and revamp of re-engagement provision - so it is fit for purpose for marginalised youth.

With this in mind, I will begin by returning to my initial research questions in order to tie together the empirical findings that formed the basis for central and original arguments highlighted in this study.

Key research questions

What are the educational experiences and trajectory of Level 1 pre-vocational students engaged in a particular employability course?

How do government, organisational policies and staff practices influence student access and types of educational and training provision made available, and therefore what are its implications for these particular students?

How is the curriculum delivered and to what extent does it facilitate RPA purported goals for enhanced academic and employment outcomes?

Ultimately, what are the actual student outcomes for these students and how does this compare with RPA logic?

Empirical research methodology

Empirical research was conducted at a large general further education (FE) college in the South East of England, named *The Site* with seven course tutors and twenty six students from the 2013-14 and 2014-15 cohorts. A case study approach was used, drawing on multiple methods of data collection: including classroom observations, semi-structured interviews focussed group discussions and document analysis. Participants were sampled 'purposively', using criterion sampling as the chosen sampling strategy as it enabled predominant focus on participants that have direct involvement with this particular course. Students self-selected to participate in the study and all course tutors agreed to be interviewed. Over the two academic years, classroom observations were conducted with one class per year and their tutor that volunteered; the required ethical consent was granted from relevant parties. A focus group discussion was held with students from both cohorts who volunteered to participate, with the aim to capture a group response on the research issues.

Course provision was located in a green, temporary prefabricated building on the outskirts of a large FE college. Known as Q-block, the building is primarily used to deliver programmes for non-traditional students, i.e. NEET young people, disabled students, ESOL (English for speakers of other languages), Access to HE and Adult learners on Welfare to Work programmes. The surrounding environment entails the car park, bike shed and smoking area. This particular Level 1 pre-vocational course and similar Foundation learning programmes seem separate from the operations of this large institution.

A large car park separated Q block from the rest of the buildings - mainstream provision on the opposite ends delivering a range of vocational courses and apprenticeship training. It is also furthest from the Higher Education building, the college gates and security guards. This particular course appear to have low social positioning within *The Site*: the spatial location of the course provision symbolically representative of a metaphorical divide between pre-vocational study for 'non-traditional' students and mainstream vocational education aimed at 'traditional' students. The course and students arguably segregated from wider college.

Key findings and issues for consideration

It is important to note that given the inter-related and complex nature of emerging issues, I could not produce an academic text that reflected a linear response to each research question. Also, it was difficult to cover everything, however, I rather wish to draw out and weave together some central issues which emerged as key findings and gave rise to the original contributions of this study.

Gatekeeping function of GCSEs

Noticeably, key research findings problematize education and highlighted complications for marginalised youth that participated in the study. Contrary to contemporary discourses, the majority of the students that participated in my study held aspirations and voiced an evident need to re-take GCSEs. However, as extensively detailed in one of my previous publications on the gatekeeping function of GCSEs, several student narratives highlighted a fundamental issue - GCSE provision was firmly placed out of reach for students with low or no prior GCSE qualifications; scope to improve upon previous low academic results in reality was diminished (Cornish, 2017a). This particular issue was echoed in several student narratives, illustrated when Zette stated,

"I don't want to waste a year here on this course. My English is like a D and my Maths like a F. But I don't understand why I cannot do my GCSE Maths if I don't get a D? I don't understand that! No, the tutors did not explain why I cannot do it. I would have thought that if you did not get the right GCSEs you can re-take them whatever they are? I didn't know it had to be a certain grade for me to be able to re-take them....I need to take my GCSEs but I don't know where to re-take them?"

This statement echoed student apprehension and highlighted that the GCSE policy essentially bars those students with lower grades from re-sitting and improving GCSE grades. Access to GCSE provision was heavily regulated and controlled through government and organisational practices. College policy mandates that students with a D-grade in GCSE maths and or English are the only ones permitted to enrol on GCSE courses. Not only is this institutional policy, but the DfE post-16 funding policy reflected in the 'Crossing the Line: Improving success rates among students retaking English and maths GCSEs' (Porter, 2015), required learners with GCSE grade D in English or maths to re-sit, alongside their other studies. In a nutshell, if student grades are lower, which is commonly the case with these particular learners, the opportunity to re-take GCSEs does not exist at this particular college. Thus, though Zette identified the need for higher GCSE grades, ironically she found she had to search for a different educational establishment that would allow the opportunity to access GCSE provision. Hence, the education system appeared to reproduce the further marginalisation of youth already on the margins of society. In the present milieu - participants discovered they were stuck with their existing low grades.

'Warehousing' or taught skills to achieve?

The situation exacerbated that instead of being taught actual 'skills to achieve', students appeared to be warehoused. The predominant teaching aim was to 'keep students busy', getting them to do 'any kind of work'. Reflecting on her teaching practice, one of the tutors - Hope reported:

"Uhhh just getting them to keep busy, do any kind of work....getting them to keep quiet when you are talking...We have to rely on someone like the Prince's Trust and EYS to move them on and keep them busy. They might come back to Level 2 and keep them busy or something else before they start something else full time in next September..." (Interview with course tutor, Hope, July 2014).

According to Hope, her central teaching aim was to keep students occupied, getting them to do 'any kind of work'. Although this idea of students being industrious resonates with broader educational aims around citizenship, noticeably, on this occasion the industrial call to 'keep busy' involved students engaged in classroom activities that appeared to lack academic focus and relevance. In this respect, the delivery of the course curriculum appeared to lack purpose, challenging the extent to which the course could facilitate grade achievement and the development of employability skills.

Distinctly different to stereotypical ideas, overall research findings discovered that most participants wanted to learn. Low quality provision was noted and carried criticisms from students. Adam reported:

"I find it (the course) a laugh. Being honest with you...look, look at the type of work we are learning... adjectives and verbs. Yes, look...I find it all a laugh! It is jokes! Look what we are doing. I want to learn proper English and maths...you know what I mean? Not this stuff...this is a waste of time".

In a profound way, this narrative reveals a student's appraisal of the type of education being made available when engaging in this particular course. For students like Adam, re-engagement in education was fundamental; he needed to improve on previous academic failure. Indeed, maths and English were taught in lessons. However, the standard and quality of provision were called into question - Adam mocked the provision and 'found it a laugh'. The point here, in Adam's appraisal,

the type of education made available appeared to lack academic rigour. He found it 'a waste of time' – his time. Adam wanted to be taught 'skills to achieve' - hence his stated desire to learn 'proper' English and maths. By implication, he wanted a 'different form of knowledge'. Classroom knowledge made available in lessons thus did not appear to meet this particular student's expectations. Raising objections, Adam seemed determined to make visible the type of education on offer to him and others in the classroom. Hence his claim, '*look, look at the type of work we are learning*'. Classroom provision was found lacking – at present, the type of education construed as 'jokes' (Comish, 2017b).

While student classroom conduct was observably loud and disruptive, it arguably overshadowed concerns around pedagogical activities and teaching practices. It is likely, that in an important way, these work practices considerably produced negative outcomes: it generated negative classroom conditions and inherently influenced disruptive student behaviour. Hence, consolidating a stereotypical belief that with these particular students there was a reluctance to learn; also, it legitimised warehousing practice on the Level 1 pre-vocational course.

What are the progression outcomes for these learners?

My particular study showed that for pre-vocational students at this specific college, engagement in education rarely resulted in improved academic and employment outcomes. Of significance, destination data indicated discrepancy between students' aspirations and actual progression outcomes. Instead of moving on, data illustrated most students were repeating a similar, lower-end employability programme. Only one student from both cohorts moved upwards on to a Level 2 programme, whilst a few students made sideways progression onto Level 1 vocational courses. Other than the substantial minority that were able to progress on to a Level 1 vocational course or some form of employment, it certainly could not be overlooked that 75 per cent of students that participated in the study were recorded NEET despite having completed the course and acquiring the qualification.

Empirical data thus indicated that participants were rarely given opportunity to progress and advance on to mainstream provision; instead, the majority of students repeated a similar version of the course. Although a prolonged period of education could be viewed as constructive for former NEETs on the basis that the attainment of any type of qualification could be deemed an improvement upon previous academic failure, the problem lies in the fact that the majority of research participants wanted to move on from pre-vocational provision and access mainstream vocational education. Student participants reportedly viewed re-engagement provision as part of a bigger goal to make up for 'lost ground'. Hence, other than the substantial minority that sought apprenticeships or employment, the majority of students pinned their hopes on the qualification to pave the way to vocational courses.

However, a range of emerging factors hindered progression ideals: notably, the Level 1 pre-vocational qualification did not guarantee straightforward transition; neither did it appear to hold academic significance within this particular college. Structural constraints, operational practices and stigma influentially challenged progression outcomes, firmly placing relatively 'realistic' aspirational goals out of reach for student participants. Herein, the Level 1 qualification did not guarantee straightforward transition, questioning the extent to which the qualification held academic relevance within this particular college. On this basis, tension appeared to exist between RPA rhetoric and actual educational opportunities available to participants, despite student efforts to navigate transitions within the setting. Hence the central argument, that the course and current college system essentially reproduced NEET identities, instead of finding a possible resolution.

Implications for policy and educational practice

In light of my empirical findings, it could be argued that since the Wolf Review 2011, there appeared to be minimal changes and improvements on lower level provision for these particular students at this College. In a profound way, empirical research revealed how stringent academic conditions were powerfully used to demarcate access and predetermined which types of youth were permitted on higher levels of study programmes and apprenticeship. Admittedly, it was necessary to be cautious not to make generalisations from a study this size. However, it may be that some parts of the findings resonate with other educators and researchers in the field and with this in mind, the following recommendations are made:

Policy implications

i) Government policy should ensure all young people, regardless of a history of low achievement, should have access to GCSE provision. Recognition should be given that the schooling environment perhaps did not suit, or the fact that students might now be ready and interested to gain qualifications. These reasons aside, they should be given a 'second chance'

opportunity to engage in 'real' and 'meaningful' education within a highly supportive academic environment. This policy recommendation required a critical re-think and overhaul of government policy, and in effect, organisational policy on GCSE provision. Presently, relatively realistic goals to gain and improve upon low GCSEs seemed unrealistic in the current college environment. By implication, access to low level vocational courses and apprenticeships were considered almost unrealistic aspirational goals for these youth. Hence, in an attempt to 'level the playing field', it was recommended that GCSE provision be accessible for all youth within the education sector.

ii). Currently pre-vocational students on these courses appeared 'hidden' and absent from government debate and political focus. This study calls for a sharpened political focus and consequently invited political debate with the view to policy reform on re-engagement provision. This policy should regulate the need for quality improvements and raised academic standards that provide 'real' and 'meaningful' education for students on the course. Government policy to demonstrate commitment through increased government funding, spearheaded for specialist staff recruitment, training and development, and additional resources needed so staff could consolidate or re-set aspirational goals and consequently deliver quality education and training.

Implications for educational practice

i). Firstly, it is recommended that the organisation adopts a more inclusive agenda, re-positioning 'lower ranking' courses with the aim to re-integrate provisions into mainstream operations. For this to occur, several organisational changes are required: the first issue was to deal with the academic divide revealed in space and locations - hereby, it is recommended that all courses should be delivered in buildings that are in the same geographical space. If this is not possible at all times, for colleges to ensure that a diverse mixture of students from all levels of FE study programmes be situated within these buildings.

ii) Secondly, the study calls for an overhaul of the institution's GCSE policy, recommending that organisational policy widens access and allows all students to access this provision, regardless of prior attainment. Moreover, the inclusive ethos to extend to apprenticeship provision and access to mainstream provision too. This policy change also includes organisational mandate that once Level 1 pre-vocational students 'successfully' attained the qualification, this should naturally result in a place on a vocational or training course in mainstream provision. At the moment, students rarely progressed despite having gained the Level 1 pre-vocational qualification. In so doing, policy regulation would negate institutional barriers and address concerns over student progression.

iii) It is recommended that the organisation actively develop a culture of raised academic expectations of pre-vocational and lower level students. Staff attitudes and work practices should reflect this raised level of commitment. Organisational policy should therefore mandate that any labelling, stereotypical ideologies, judgmental language, and low standards of practice be challenged and efficiently dealt with in the setting. The organisational ambition to drive up standards should consequently embody the requirement that tutors have greater student expectations which involves setting challenging goals; practice ideals driven not to keep students busy 'just for the sake of it', but for lessons to have academic purpose and relevance with a mutually agreed learning goal.

Original contributions of the study

Amongst others, this study made an original contribution to literature on the sociology of education: it identified and unpacked contemporary ways in which the English vocational education system reproduced social class inequalities through its structures, policies and practices. My study produced a counter-narrative that drew attention to policy contradiction and how this particular further education system appeared to be instrumental in producing social exclusion and negative outcomes for marginalised youth that participated in my study. It does this in a number of ways – firstly, my study has demonstrated the dominant ways in which government and organisational policies, institutional structures and educational practices intervene and impact young people's agency, further restricting disadvantaged young people's 'choices' and career pathways. This I have shown through fieldwork data, illustrating varying ways how marginalised youth are further excluded and segregated from essential and mainstream provision that could make a positive difference. In this respect, the study hence makes an original contribution and has shown how this particular organisation has constructed various stringent academic conditions and systems of governance within the setting for a twofold purpose: firstly, to demarcate access to types of education provision and knowledge construction; secondly, it reveals how underlying

educational processes and systems were used in a subtle way to regulate which type of student was allowed access to higher levels of study and skilled employment.

Limitations of the study

This research inquiry however, is limited in its particular use of qualitative research methodology. The issue of subjectivity is consequently highlighted. A further limitation was the research design – the study adopted a case study approach. As such, research data could therefore not be representative and generalised to other groups and programmes. Furthermore, the research sample was restricted – it included only young people who were present in a particular class at a time when classroom observations, focus groups and interviews were conducted at this specific FE college. Hence, no claim is made that they are generalisable beyond the groups of young people who participated. Whilst presenting challenges, generalisability was not the intended goal of the study. What I address is the issue of transferability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) as similar processes might be taking place in other further education colleges in different parts of the country. Hence, by way of thick, rich description and detailed information the study could be assessed for its applicability to similar programmes in other context.

Conclusion

The study reconnects with social justice and called into question the extent to which student participants could genuinely benefit from re-engagement provision on this particular pre-vocational study programme. To a great extent, it may be appropriate to consider Marx's theory of alienation, in as much that students on this particular course seemed marginalised from key provision and appeared to have minimal prospect of self-actualisation. Although the course was specifically designed for previously NEET or socially excluded youth, actual fieldwork mainly discovered adverse outcomes. Empirical data highlighted how the education system and broader socio-political mechanisms facilitated symbolic violence – a key notion introduced by Bourdieu and Passeron (1977). Symbolic violence arguably operates on this course and within *The Site*, legitimised in policies and practices considered useful and 'supportive', but which from the perspective of the student are seen as constraining (Cornish, 2017b).

Moreover, access to what was considered 'real and meaningful' education seemed restricted. Empirical data highlighted varying ways in which structural factors, institutional practices and ideological assumptions influenced the type of provision made available for these particular students, complicating the extent to which students could develop human capital within the setting. On a broader scale, such practices arguably facilitate a divide along class, ethnicity and gender lines, with some judged to be 'inside' the system and others 'marginalised', "socially excluded", 'chavified' or 'precaritised'. Hence, in many ways, the situation of NEET young people could be described as a modern reserve army of labour (Simmons et al, 2014), as they seemed 'endlessly interchangeable' and 'churned' between many forms of engagement and on the margins of the labour market (Beck, 2015:494). In effect, the exercise of power through both the actual programme and discourses surrounding them may be recognised in the actual impact as shown in my study - that already marginalised young people, essentially appeared warehoused on low rent employability programmes that rarely offered scope for the development of human capital. In some way, it was also questionable whether engagement in this form of education can lead to rewarding jobs of the type referred to in rhetoric about the knowledge economy. On the contrary, for these students on this course, engagement in a prolonged period of post-16 education and training, far from guaranteeing the benefits claimed for RPA, may actually be diminishing the opportunities it purports to open up (Cornish, 2017c).

Scope for Future Research

Assumptions and stereotypical judgements are generally made about NEET and so-called disengaged youth, exacerbated by mass media representation which usually problematizes them. However, in light of my empirical findings on this particular re-engagement provision at *The Site*, further research was suggested on a larger scale: to discover whether my empirical findings were atypical of such provision, or are there identical issues experienced on similar provision at different colleges nationwide. I firmly believe that a particular focus on re-engagement provision across England was necessary and fundamental: by its very nature, re-engagement provision could offer a critical moment within the education system whereby it could become that turning point for youth that somehow struggled to reap benefits from the schooling system. That is, if it is delivered correctly and effectively. Further research could inevitably enable closer inspection of re-engagement programmes to identify colleges that deliver 'good' practice, but also those that produce negative student outcomes. Finally, a focus on further research invites academic and government debate for a re-think and possible re-vamp of re-engagement

provision – so that it is fit for purpose. Fundamentally, this study essentially calls for a policy reform of re-engagement provision.

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Islamic Identity, Ethical Principles and Human Values

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Abstract

Human ethics and values in general and Islamic ethics in particular have been studied as matters of concern since prophet Adam received respect from the angels in form of their prostration and then descended from *al-Jannah* (heaven) to earth. In *surah al-Isra'*, verse 70, Allah says, "And We have certainly honored the children of Adam and carried them on the land and sea and provided for them of the good things and preferred them over much of what We have created, with [definite] preference." Hence, human beings were created to do what is good while being granted good things in the world. Islamic ethics address the means whereby mankind ideally accommodates divine guidance as applicable human behavior as well as good conduct and personal morality. This paper investigates the importance, essence and characteristics of Islamic ethics. Although Islamic attributions have significantly contributed to all civilizations, contemporary events raise issues that require a revisit. The authors submit this is because Islam's Code of Ethics is grossly misunderstood, especially concerning the office of God's vicegerent. This comprehensive study uses a qualitative approach and cites various verses of al-Quran and portions of the Prophet's Sunnah to support an analysis that emphasizes Islam's ethical principles and human values. By widely referencing verses from al-Quran, the authors highlight Islamic ethics and life principles that have had significant effects on civilization as valuable precepts for all aspects of daily living.

Keywords: Islamic ethics, characteristics of Islamic ethics, human values

Introduction

The word 'ethics' derives from the Greek word *ethos*, which means 'character' or 'custom' (Ahmet and Akdogan, 2012). Human action, behavior, spirit, reasoning and culture comprise moral systems established by mankind. Ethics are referred to by several Arabic terms including *ma'ruf* (approved), *khayr* (goodness), *haqq* (truth and right), *birr* (righteousness), *qist* (equity), *'adl* (equilibrium and justice), and *taqwa* (pious) (al-Hassan et al. 2013). Taken together they describe attributions that define an advanced human society in which high levels of culture, science, industry and government have been attained (John, 1991).

The Arabic term for ethics is *akhlaq*. Its singular form, *khulq*, is mentioned in As-Shu'ara: 137 and al-Qalam, 68:4. Another Arabic word is *adab* (manner) is closely related to *akhlaq*. Although some scholars think both terms have the same meaning there are essential differences that indicate application and source (Abdurezak, 2011). *Akhlaq*, is a characteristic state of soul that determines human actions based on moral philosophy; *adab* is the actual practice of moral philosophy. Moreover, *Akhlaq* describes a broad range of activities characterized as *Amal Salih* or 'virtuous deeds' in al-Quran (Nanji, 1991).

According to al-Ghazali, *akhlaq* defines the science or study of the human soul in terms of qualities and characteristics that are congruent with methods of behavioral application. Al-Ghazali also stated this science comprised two forms: *khalq* (the physical) and *khulq* (or *akhlaq*), which is the manifestation of actions that are rooted in the soul. Al-Ghazali posited that Islamic ethics teach the soul to behave well, do what is good and guard against vices. From his viewpoint, Islamic ethics concern specific religious beliefs with regard to the actual practice of right vs. wrong behavior and not mere understanding (Al-Ghazali, 2014, P. 461). Accordingly, al-Ghazali's opinion of *akhlaq* is strongly related to Islamic ethical positions on righteous deeds towards others and towards God through the actually knowing ones' self, and Almighty Allah, and worldly

realities, and the reality of the Hereafter (Al-Ghazali, 2014, P. 11). Similarly, other philosophers such as al-Farabi, Fakhruddin al-Razi, al-Tusi, al-Dawani, etc., mentioned a direct relation between *akhlaq* and human actions in which characteristics of the human soul determine individual accomplishments.

Science and technology have developed rapidly bringing numerous benefits and opportunities (Saifuddeen et al. 2013). Ethics play a crucial role in improving qualitative outcomes that advance several sectors such as surgery, agriculture, astronomy, information technology, military capabilities and numerous fitting innovations. Despite ethical contributions to the increasing growth of science and technology, certain areas lack ethical oversight, which has consequently allowed severe challenges and technological risks to the world at large.

According to Latifah et al. (2009), most developments in science and technology are pioneered and established by excellent research. However, many participants have disregarded ethical and moral concerns and their efforts have produced unethical outcomes. Nuclear energy and weapons, for example, continue to inflict pain and suffering through atomic radiation (Ahmad, 2016).

For truly progressive benefits, the fields of science and technology require ethical constraints, especially since disastrous results from scientific endeavors cannot be considered ethically neutral. Hence, this review of Islamic Ethics should stimulate fascinating new advances in science and technology with respect to applied Islamic Ethics as a guide to safeguard humanity from destruction due to the decline of morals. Applied Ethics ensure civilization is sustained via important components having to do with education, training and practice (Helmut, 1995). Ethical practices also fundamentally strengthen and protect individual and communal rights within the extremely broad Islamic framework. Muslims also believe we are born with a sound moral nature that responds to faith and ethical values (Nikhat, 2014).

Regarding the practice of blameless ethical behavior in all circumstances, Islam teaches that a strong relation with God leads to virtuous conduct. Human beings should convey piety and righteousness in life with sincere faith towards others made manifest by good habits that are well defined. Such a predisposition builds civilization by optimizing life ways that successfully benefit society. There is no doubt that Islamic ethics contributed to civilization from the beginning. Presently however, ethical values are neglected and consequently places civilization in danger. Al-Hassan et al. (2013) holds forth that several ethical theories, especially Islamic perspectives, need developing to clarify right vs. wrong activities for the purpose of distinctly preventing unethical matters from arising. This paper thus highlights the contribution of Islamic ethics towards building civilization and the challenges that confront the practice of these ethics in today's world.

The Significance of Islamic Ethics

Ethics are important for the development of beneficial Muslim conduct and character as commanded by Allah in al-Quran.

"God enjoins justice (and right judgment in all matters), and devotion to doing good, and generosity towards relatives; and He forbids you indecency, wickedness, and vile conduct (all offenses against Religion, life, personal property, chastity, and health of mind and body). He exhorts you (repeatedly) so that you may reflect and be mindful!" (An-Nahl, 16:90)

Islamic ethics define value as 'good character' shaped by al-Quran's teachings and Prophet Muhammad's *Sunnah* as well as numerous precedents set by Islamic jurists (*Sharia* and *Fiqh*). Thus, Islam presents a complete code for living that is framed by ethical values. Islam's guidelines for individuals, family, society, political, economics, judiciary and all aspects of modern living are replete with moral instructions. In al-Quran, many terms describe the concept of ethics such as *khayr* (goodness), *maslahat* (public interest), *birr* (righteousness), *qist* (equity), *'adl* (equilibrium and justice), *haqq* (truth and right), *ma'ruf* (known, approved), *nahi munkar* (avoidance of bad and harmful things), and *Taqwa* (piety). Moreover, above them all al-Quran commands Muslims to not only do good and but also to forbid evil actions (Zaroug, 1999).

As a fundamental requirement for beneficial living, ethics provide the means for deciding purposeful courses of action that otherwise would become random, arbitrary and even aimless (Adibah, 2013). In a social environment that lacks an ethical code of conduct, there is no way to judiciously obtain specific outcomes because there are no established methods to choose, theoretically, from among unlimited objectives. Even within standard ethical milieus one could be successfully prevented from pursuing individual goals. Based on rational ethical standards, humans can more correctly organize and thus prioritize goals and actions to optimize outcomes. Any flaw in requisite ethics also reduces one's ability to pursue certain endeavors successfully. Thus, morality and integrity are important characteristics that demonstrate a nation's integrity, even for those with no aspirations for a career in law enforcement. We instinctively know that it is good and moral

to act with integrity, but by establishing mutual understanding for the dignity and necessity of providing moral reasoning we become motivated to champion such behavior (Lafollette, 2007).

Regardless of one's position in society, the main reason to lead a moral life of integrity is to construct a better society by treating every member equally according to a uniform code of principles. Other reasons are to secure meaningful employment, business success and reduce levels of communal and personal anxiety. Ultimately, the importance of ethics do not concern philosophical understanding but rather the improvement of how we live (Lafollette, 2007). Being moral enriches our lives and the lives of those around us. It is especially important to live a moral life when young, as it is helpful to exercise and practice ethical concepts before being confronted by more complex issues. Ethics, like most everything else we strive to be good at, requires practice and effort to perfect correct decision making throughout life and pays great dividends when one is faced with serious moral dilemmas (Lafollette, 2007).

Islamic ethics also emphasize the need to understand and develop virtue. Knowing that we ought to behave in a certain way but missing an opportunity to exercise moral behavior indicates the need to "*sharpen moral vision*". For example, we know that we ought to stay in good physical shape but most of us do not. This illustrates a need to be mindful of an important virtue (in this case, perseverance) that should be developed.

Muslims also believe that science and technology must follow a process of evidence, justification and truth.

"They (Jews or Christians) say that none will enter Paradise unless he be a Jew or a Christian. That is their wistfulness (vain desires and fancies). Say: 'Produce your proof if you are truthful.'" (Al-Baqarah, 2:111)

Sources of Islamic Ethics

As a set of beliefs and directives for action without limitations of time, space and convention, Islamic ethics initially begin with al-Quran, the revelation God's word, which is full of beautiful expressions and wisdom; and secondly from the *Sunnah*'s attributions ascribed to the last messenger of Allah that characterize his ethical practices. Both al-Quran and *Sunnah* attach great importance to a code of ethics that fundamentally aims to form honest personalities with truly human identities (Kernal, 2010). Prophet Muhammad was sent to preach an essentially moral message as specifically expressed in al-Quran:

"We have not sent you (O Muhammad) but as an unequalled mercy for all worlds." (Al-Anbiya', 21:107)

For this reason, the best sources of Islamic ethics provide ethical concepts that are not only taught in al-Quran but were also embodied by the Prophet's example; thus providing us with the best model to emulate. Al-Quran states that the best person is a person who upholds moral foundations and invites others to practice these values (Abdurezak, 2011).

"Who is better in speech than one who calls (men) to Allah, works righteousness, and says, I am of those who bow in Islam?" (Al-Quran 41:33)

Moreover, the exemplary moral life of Prophet Muhammad articulated various applications of Islamic morality and ethics. Hence, ethics, from the Islamic perspective, signify behavioral traits that are regarded as good that are based on al-Quran and *Sunnah*. Both sources are referenced for laws and principles that guide the Islamic way of life as mentioned in the following verse:

"... We have sent down on you the Book as an exposition of everything (that pertains to guidance and error, and to the knowledge of good and evil, and to happiness and misery in both worlds), and guidance and mercy and glad tidings for the Muslims (those who have submitted themselves wholly to God)." (An-Nahl, 16:89)

Thus, Islamic ethics not only define ethical behavior but also instruct us in the building of a better way of life for the individual and social order in which he/she dwells. Islam instructs us that Allah created mankind and provided laws and regulations concerning belief and moral instructions suited for mankind's implementation and governance. The modern age confronts us with many challenges including accelerating developments in science and technology. As Islam is a complete dynamic and holistic religion, everything that happens can definitely be handled by Islamic ethics with proper guidance from al-Quran and *Sunnah* and other Islamic sources. Islamic ethics teach us how to conduct ourselves in a goodly manner and avoid wrong doing (Brown, 1999). Thus, Islamic ethics offer optimized guidelines to govern modern science and technology with assure beneficial outcomes for everybody.

In addition, Islamic law depends on two further sources, *Ijma'* and *Qiyas* (Huda, 2016). *Ijma'* is a consensus of opinion offered by ulema' or scholars within a community in the absence of a specific legal ruling for a certain situation. *Qiyas* occurs when people attempt to obtain a legal ruling that, unfortunately, has not been clearly addressed in other sources. Therefore, judges may use analogy, reasoning and legal precedent to decide new case law (Huda, 2016).

In al-Quran, God revealed the eternal message of Islam as guidance for personal life as well as social life. The *Sunnah* completes these guiding principles with the Prophet's example, interpretation and explication so that Islamic law is practiced with required precedent (Sikandar, 2005). In Islam, law and morality cannot be separated as both are intermixed and righteous deeds are established out of necessity once the religion is firmly believed. Islam is a perfect combination of faith (iman) and practice (amal) in which both elements represent law and morality, as mentioned in Shariah law and ordained by God. Literally al-Quran mentions that Muslims must take care of mental attitude by not cheating or exploiting the trust of others and by avoiding injustice and the distortion of rights as well as disloyalty.

"If any person is so false, He shall, on the Day of Judgment, restore what he misappropriated; then shall every soul receive its due, - whatever it earned, - and none shall be dealt with unjustly." (Al-Quran 3:161)

Another verse promotes the practice of good moral behavior by expressing kindness, generosity, self-discipline and constantly forgiving the mistakes of others.

"Those who spend (freely), whether in prosperity, or in adversity; who restrain anger, and pardon (all) men; -for Allah loves those who are virtuous, through such actions, that is to say, He will reward them." (Al-Quran 3:134)

Human Characteristics of Islamic Ethics

Undoubtedly, Islamic ethics improve human relations and shield civilizational constructs with metaphysical ramparts of decency and order. The several characteristics of Islamic ethics are exemplified in the message of al-Quran as revealed to Prophet Muhammad and as inscribed in his *Sunnah* (Nanji, 1991).

Islamic ethics apply to various aspects of life including governance, business and the management of personal matters. Prophet Muhammad, who possessed perfect ethics, once said, "*I was sent to perfect good morals*" (Al-Sahihah, 2010). His mission was to imprint human hearts with impeccable morals that would guide us with exemplary conduct towards each other. Major characteristics of Islamic ethics include bravery, consideration, experience, fairness, justice, honesty and the pursuit of knowledge. Each ethic is discussed in detail below, along with examples and reference to al-Quran and *Sunnah*.

4.1 Bravery

Courage is required for those working in the realms of Science and Technology. A courageous soul will survive the incredibly wild growth of science and technology (Rawls, 1999) and subsequent influences on the development of modern Muslims life ways. Scientific activity requires much effort and risk taking, including failures and even harm when one is striving to achieve desirable outcomes. Hence, a brave, courageous attitude helps scientists overcome confrontations with numerous challenges.

The brave character is mentioned numerous times in al-Quran with respect to protecting Muslim property. Muhammad set an excellent example of noble manners and merits, including courage. Al-Quran presents the Prophet as the best of moral role models: "*You are surely of a sublime character, and do act by a sublime pattern of conduct*" (Al-Qalam, 68:4). His valor was a byword among his contemporaries because he gallantly stood against the greatest odds while enduring painful injuries and still victoriously fought on to overcome and afterwards show mercy to stone-hearted ignorant Arabian infidels (Emara, 2011). He endured pain and sufferings for thirteen long years in Mecca while inviting people to Islam, without ever being intimidated by the sheer force, numbers or arrogance of the *Jahiliyya*. The Prophet never succumbed to fear or threats in extremely difficult situations and crises. He put his full trust in Allah and depended on Him alone (Syed, 2010). He accepted the decrees of his Lord, was satisfied with God's support, and trusted God's promise.

Such bravery also applies to those working in science and technology who should be courageous enough to stand up and protect knowledge from unethical applications (Pollock, 2007). When conducting scientific activities, the scientist should always have faith and rely only on Allah, Who said:

“Do not fear! Surely I am with you, hearing and seeing” (Taha, 20:46); and “As for those who believe and do good, righteous deeds, and have humbled themselves before their Lord, they are the companions of Paradise; they will abide there-in.” (Hud, 11:23)

4.2 Consideration

The way of life set forth in al-Quran and authentic *Sunnah* is not limited to creed, worship or the actions of our limbs or our slave-relationship with our Creator. It goes further to command us to be well-mannered with Allah’s creation: to be kind and charitable to all creatures and to maintain good relationships with them (Sandel, 2010). Hence, Islam charges us to be friendly and to treat others well while considering their feelings and emotions according to sublime Islamic rules and guidelines. This concerns manners, morals and social relations between individuals as to duties and rights. It also commands us to choose appropriate words according to different situations. Allah says in al-Quran:

“... And do good to parents in the best way possible, and to the near (relatives), to orphans and to the destitute; and speak kindly and well to the people; and establish prescribed prayer in conformity with its conditions; and pay the prescribed purifying alms (the *Zakah*)...” (Al-Baqarah, 2:83)

Consideration of beneficial effects on humans, animals and environment help us attain success in science and technology and can be deemed a necessary ethic, as al-Quran commands us to perform what is good towards animals and environment. This also applies to the acceptance of opinions offered by others and the sharing of thoughts and knowledge (Al-Munajjid, 2015).

“(Should not those whose ears are closed to the Quran look around themselves to see the signs of the truth?) No living creature is there moving on the earth, no bird flying on its two wings, but they are communities like you...” (Al-An’am, 6:38)

“O you, who have believed! Avoid much suspicion, for some suspicion is a grave sin (liable to God’s punishment); and do not spy (on one another), nor backbite (against one another). Would any of you love to eat the flesh of his dead brother? You would abhor it! Keep from disobedience to God in reverence for Him and piety. Surely God is One Who has truly returned repentance with liberal forgiveness and additional rewards, All-Compassionate (particularly towards His believing servants).” (Al-Hujurat, 49:12)

The creation of scientific and technological knowledge receives positive or negative feedback from community and colleagues. The Islamic ethical code of conduct recommends that all who play major roles in such venues conduct well-mannered approaches to the opinions and thoughts of others. As mentioned in the above verse, negative assumptions (suspicions) are warned against by Allah and should be avoided by Muslims.

4.3 Experience

Al-Ghazali stated that experience contributes to knowledge in addition to reason and transmission from reliable sources. Informing others about one’s experiences and knowledge plays a significant role in Islam’s system of responsible ethics. For example, the prophet always deferred to the community when seeking to solve problems related to differences of opinion about *aqidah* (faith) and *akhlaq* because his role was to help the community in a good way, as commanded by Allah in Al-Quran:

“(Thus did We command you): Judge between them with what God has sent down, and do not follow their lusts and fancies, and beware of them, lest they tempt you away from any part of what God has sent down to you. If they turn away, then know that God wills only to afflict them for some of their sins. And many among human beings are indeed transgressors.” (Al-Maidah, 5: 49)

Furthermore, expert experience is very useful, mostly when planning, developing, controlling and maintaining each community, and especially when upgrading effective decision making for future projects. Collaboration between experienced designers is purposed to produce brilliant ideas and applications for organizations when assisting subordinate knowledge transfer.

4.4 Fairness/Justice

As a high moral principle and from Islam’s ethical perspective, justice is defined as treating others fairly by providing them with what they rightfully deserve in the Islamic context, and also by rightfully positioning things. God said in al-Quran:

“God commands you to deliver trusts (including public and professional duties of services) to those entitled to them, and when you judge between people, to judge with justice. How excellent is what God exhorts you to do. Surely God is All-Hearing, All-Seeing.” (An-Nisa’, 4:58)

Justice is held in the highest moral regard among Muslims as a means to strengthen their defense against enemies. Even at war, Muslims are required to firmly administer justice. Islam also requires just settlement of arguments between married couples. For justice to be fully applied to the highest degree, Muslims must purify themselves by keeping their acts and beliefs virtuous. They should also stand tall and proudly protect the sanctity of Islam by becoming those who deliverer justice.

“O you who believe! Be upholders and standard-bearers of right for God’s sake, being witnesses for (the establishment of) absolute justice. And by no means let your detestation for a people (or their detestation for you) move you to (commit the sin of) deviating from justice. Be just this is nearer and more suited to righteousness and piety. Seek righteousness and piety, and always act with reverence for God. Surely God is fully aware of all that you do.” (Al-Maedah, 5:8)

This verse shows that God disallows injustice and hatred (e.g., through discrimination) and that He also disregards color and ethnic differences because people are equal in His eyes. Hence, God commands humankind to hold justice with the highest esteem. Allah has repeatedly reprimanded mankind with regard to injustice in al-Quran, wishing to protect us from the mistakes of our ancestors. The command from Allah requires Muslims to refrain from injustice and thus avoid the wrath that has fallen on Jews and Christians due to disobedience. He also warns against acts of treachery:

“If you have strong reason to fear treachery from a people (with whom you have a treaty), return it to them (i.e. publicly declare to them, before embarking on any action against them, that you have dissolved the treaty) so that both parties should be informed of its termination. Surely God does not love the treacherous.” (Al-Anfal, 8:58)

4.5 Honesty

Honesty is held in high regard. The Prophet even said to ‘wait for the Day of Judgment when honesty is mislaid’. This indicates the woeful end of time and Judgment Day, when people will be condemned and punished because of dishonest misconduct. Hence, in Islam, honest conduct is expected when dealing with other people and serves to unite notions of candor and truthfulness in actions, relationships and verbal exchanges. Thus, Islam compels truthfulness and forbids deceit. Al-Quran commands honesty.

“O you who believe! Keep from disobedience to God in reverence for Him and piety, and keep the company of the truthful (those who are also faithful to their covenant with God).” (At-Tawbah, 9:119)

Prophet Muhammad, as a firm believer in Allah, is the perfect example of a character that embodied honesty and received the titles, *al-Amin*, the trustworthy, and *as sadiq*, the truthful, even prior to his elevation to Prophethood.

“Those who have believed in God and His Messengers (those whose actions prove their profession of faith) - they are, in the sight of their Lord, the loyal and truthful (to God in whatever they do and say), and the witnesses (who have borne testimony to the truth with their lives). They have their (particular) reward and their (particular) light. But those who disbelieve and deny Our manifest signs and Revelations - they will be the companions of the Blazing Flame.” (Al-Hadid, 57:19)

Allah strictly forbids deceit and said that hellfire awaits those who conduct their life dishonestly. Allah also commands Muslims to be honest when consuming wealth.

“O you who believe! Do not consume one another’s wealth in wrongful ways (such as theft, extortion, bribery, usury, and gambling), except it be dealing by mutual agreement; and do not destroy yourselves (individually or collectively, by following wrongful ways like extreme asceticism and idleness. Be ever mindful that) God has surely been All-Compassionate towards you (particularly as believers).” (An-Nisa’, 4:29)

Allah forbids the consumption of other people’s wealth with dishonest intent and reprimands Muslims on the matter to prevent murder as a consequence.

“Do not confound the truth by mixing it with falsehood, and do not conceal the truth while you know (the meaning and outcome of what you do, and that what you strive to hide is true, and that Muhammad is the Messenger of God, whose coming you have been anticipating).” (Al-Baqarah, 2:42)

It is antithetical to Islamic ethics to mix truth with falsehood. An instance of this is telling partial truth when witnessing a crime committed by someone related to you. Allah forbids the concealing of truth when you know it, for example, lying for a family member who committed theft to prevent the pursuit of justice. Time and again, Allah reprimands Muslims to follow his instructions via Al-Quran to prohibit lying.

4.6 On Being Knowledgeable

Being knowledgeable is essential for a successful society. Knowledge is gained via informal and formal study and is a major Islamic contribution to human development (Al-Rawahy, 2013). Generally, knowledge derives from individuals who have beliefs and values that promote the creation of knowledge for competitive advantages (Sokhanvar et al. 2014). Islamic concepts of knowledge include transcendent aspects as well as sensory perceptions (Faruqi, 2007). Hence, a Muslim must obtain knowledge to understand God and enter into scientific activities that benefit human welfare by utilizing universal resources (Faruqi, 2007). Al-Quran, Islam's holy book, contains detailed knowledge and its contents are securely protected and guaranteed by Almighty Allah.

“Assuredly We have brought them a Book (the meaning and commandments of) which We set out in detail with knowledge, as guidance and mercy for people who will believe and who will deepen in faith.” (Al-A'raf, 7: 52)

“Indeed, it is We, We who sent down the Reminder in parts, and it is indeed We Who are its Guardian.” (Al-Hijr, 15: 9)

As science and technology develop to fulfill human needs, products produced by knowledgeable people will certainly be accepted. Knowledge varies from one person to another because judgments based on individual thought processes cannot be transferred genetically (Sokhanvar et al., 2014). Al-Quran even affirms this difference.

“Is he who worships God devoutly in the watches of the night prostrating and standing, who fears the Hereafter and hopes for the mercy of his Lord (to be likened to that other)? Say: “Are they ever equal, those who know and those who do not know?” Only the people of discernment will reflect (on the distinction between knowledge and ignorance, and obedience to God and disobedience), and be mindful.” (Az-Zumar, 39: 9)

In the pursuit of knowledgeable advances, a strong relationship exists between knowledge and emotion (Antlova et al. 2015), one that highlights the importance of morals, values, ethics and their benefits to society (Chowdhury, 2016). This is because knowledge is used in decision making (Tennoy et al. 2015) and plays a more important role than does desire (Antlova et al. 2015). For example, drugs commonly used for medical purposes can also be misused solely for the purpose of profit making. Moreover, such drug abuse causes much harm to those who are addicted. This is unethical and demonstrates that knowledge is insufficient when emotions (desires) are not controlled and a person's credibility can easily fall into disrepute. This statement relates to a verse in al-Quran:

“No, indeed! Those who do (the greatest) wrong (by associating partners with God) follow only their lusts and fancies, without (basing on any) knowledge. Who has the power to guide him whom God has led astray (on account of following merely his lusts and fancies)? And such have none to help them (to salvation).” (Ar-Rum, 30:29)

Islam teaches us to live and consume responsibly without causing negative effects to any living or non-living thing (Al-Rawahy, 2013). With appropriate use of knowledge with regard to science and technology, immoral issues cannot arise when people realize their responsibilities to cause and reap what is beneficial for all. Moreover, knowledgeable upgrades in science and technology continue to improve human life without neglecting ethics.

To usher characteristics of Islamic ethics into an individual's life it becomes everyone's responsibility to reject unethical behavior. Thus, we are required to react appropriately and in a good manner to encourage ethical behavior as mentioned in al-Quran, most especially because Almighty Allah does not change people until they change themselves.

“ (Every person advances through varying states before and after, and) by God's command attendant angels succeeding one another accompany him before and after him to guard him (and record his deeds). God does not change what is in

themselves. When God wills evil for a person (in consequence of their own evil deeds), it cannot be averted, and apart from Him, they have no protector.” (Ar-Rad, 13: 11)

Essential Islamic Values and Ethics for the Development of Civilization

Islam teaches that human beings were created as God's *khalifah* (vicegerent) to realize *amanah* (His will). To enable man for the task of building civilization, Allah revealed *Shari'ah* law, which sets forth rules to govern various aspects of Islam. This includes ideology and laws that are essential for the development of civic-minded citizens and a constructive social order. Its accompanying codes of ethical behavior are basic guidelines for the development of upright and wholesomely integrated individuals and societies (Sikandar, 2005). Hence, as *khalifah*, men are required to ensure that life is improved by civilizing their communities.

Men also have an inherent need to perform ethical duties and constantly upgrade their quality of life. For this reason, human conduct is considered ethical when it contributes to civilizing efforts in line with Allah's will, which then qualifies such communities as guided by an Islamic ethical system that is replete with divine, transcendent and universal principles. As stated earlier, Islamic ethics offer a complete guide for the applicable management of *akhlaq* and *adab* to build a strong civilization. The Islamic ethical system considers the role of spiritual motivation in the determination of a man's attitude as either good or bad. Optimally, ethics, religion and law are complementary and lack contradiction, and thus constitute moral practice.

Defined as the 'process of civilizing to advance and develop human societies', civilization includes advanced achievements that portray a systematic and progressive system. A civilized society demonstrates various characteristics that exemplify formative fundamentals of a complete and forward-thinking societal system. Islam's contribution to civilization and social development is established as a 'glorious' influence on western civilization, including the growth of knowledge, which was made possible by contacts with Muslims (O'Brien, 1999). According to Syed Othman Alhabshi and Nik Mustapha Nik Hassan (1997):

“Since its first appearance on the world scene, Islam has played its part in the development of civilization, first by transforming an Arab *Jahili* society into a *tawhidi* one; second by influencing neighboring societies through international and intercultural contact; and third by acting as a catalyst for the transmission of certain values from one society to another ... the biggest empire in world history was built by Muslims through their missionary activities, military might and efficient and just administrative rule.”

Islamic civilization can be defined by the spiritual and material achievements of Muslims both. Urban areas are centers of Islamic civilization where one observes magnificent architecture as well as advances in science and technology accompanied by spiritually guided laws that uphold the economy as well as family relationships, education and political relations. All is based on steadfast moral platforms provided by *shari'ah* and *iman* (belief), as found in al-Quran and *Sunnah*. It became obvious during the medieval period that many Muslims intellectuals were leaders in administration, astronomy, economic development, agriculture, industry, engineering, defense, science, mathematics, shipping, navigation, medicine and other fields of art and science.

Their outstanding achievements and contributions to civilization established significant milestones. Therefore, we cannot be remiss when discussing the influence of Islamic ethics on the building of civilization because ethics guided relationships and achievements obtained with a view towards Islamic principles that materially realized a great civilization.

Islamic political philosophy places an essential need on the election of good leaders within a social system focused on family centered communities, states, organizations, etc., all framed by the context of morally imbued Islamic ethics. A famous narrated *hadith* of the Prophet reports “For a long journey with more than three *musafir* (travelers) one should be elected as *amir* (leader)”. Islam also places much emphasis on the concept of *shurah* (consultation). A full chapter in al-Quran, Ash-Shura, praises consultation.

“Those who hearken to their Lord, and establish regular prayer; who (conduct) their affairs by mutual consultation; who spend out of what We bestow on them for Sustenance are praised” (Al-Quran, 42:38).

Moreover, previous Muslim civilizations constantly improved their economies and positions in the world by vigorously pursuing industrialization (Ghazali, 1996). Moral values are one of the most important components that contributing towards economic progress. Therefore, good moral values in the pursuit of economic development require ethical adherence. In

this regard, we refer to al-Quran and *Sunnah* to appreciate the emphasis placed on the proper use of the intellect and the need for wise reflection on the bounties of Allah and their proper utilization (Ghazali, 1996).

Discussion of socio-cultural development is fundamentally about ethics, which are most essential in the formation of all civilizations. The three main objectives of Islamic civilization are to establish the following:

Relationship of man with Allah S.W.T;

Relationship of man with man;

Relationship of man with his environment.

These are possible through 'knowing one's own self', 'knowing the Almighty Allah', 'knowing the reality of the world', and 'knowing the reality of the Hereafter' (Al-Ghazali, 2014).

Man's relation with Allah is paramount as the basic pillar of Islam and the building of a civilized nation. The bedrock of Islamic civilization is *iman* (faith). However, Islamic civilization was/is not the result of ritual pursuit or even of obedience to Allah but was rather of analyzing and applying injunctions and guidance from Allah as a practicable way of life (Alhabshi et al. 1997). Islam provides guidance for everything concerning daily life ways that positively contribute to society and help develop the state via ethical principles for work, family and neighbors to improve life by making everyone aware of their responsibilities and rights.

In fact, *Kīmiyā-i-Sa'ādāt* is included four essential elements of Islam to obtain alchemy of eternal bliss:

'Ibādāt (the acts of worship),

Mu'āmilāt (the dealings),

Muhlikāt (all bad morals such as arrogance, pride, self-appreciation, anger etc.),

Munjīyāt (all good morals such as love, hope, gratitude, patience) (Al-Ghazali, 2014).

God's Vicegerent: Modernization and Ethical Challenges

Changes arise in human lifestyles from the development of technology and science that often challenge moral values and cultural mind-sets. Technology and information have also managed to eliminate some limitations of national frontiers. In fact, they allow influences that change perceptions, ideology and various external elements to enter a country without restrictions or controls. Naisbitt (1982) predicted that one out of ten human tendencies in the early 21st century would be based on information from a globalized world as decisive drivers into the future because information would spread internationally through social network media. Although such powerful influences on civilizational exist, potential adverse effects should not be ignored because they can become a cancer that worsens existing social ills. Islam offers moral perspectives that can counter negative influences by generating authentic harmony and prosperity in a modern world filled with ethical crises.

Undoubtedly modernization allowed rapid urbanization, industrialization and migration from rural areas with some positive impacts but not without rising social ills. A moral crisis occurs when some people are so driven by profiteering that they neglect moral sensitivities. Money oriented incentives have stimulated unethical behavior in all fields of invention and development without any concern or hesitation over adverse affects on environment or community. Without realizing it, problems arise when we stray from man's true purpose in accord with Islamic principles, morals and ethics.

Rapid growth of information technology allows all levels of society to access knowledge and data without restrictions. This also leads to challenging ethical issues that include the validity and correctness of information. Accuracy and authentic truth are important to prevent irregularities and falsehoods from being presented as facts, especially in matters of religious knowledge. Unscrupulous people always find ways to deviate and lie for the expressed purpose of misleading others. A most strikingly misunderstood issue is *jihad*, which has been wrongly portrayed by and to Muslims as well as non-Muslims. Misinformation is spread by people who fail to comprehend the spiritual significance of *jihad* and also by those who purposely indulge incorrect interpretations.

Solely citing Internet sources without confirmation of content validity often causes problems and can even threaten public security. Advances in information technology can also have adverse impacts from intrusions caused by hackers in countries where confidential information is easily compromised. The latest technology also allows for the modification of images that give negative impressions and affect the dignity and position of an individual and his family leading to charges of libel and other more dangerous forms of *fitnah*. In Islam, the spreading of *fitnah* is considered a great crime according to al-Quran:

“... and *fitnah* is more dangerous than killing...” (Al-Quran, 2:191)

Nowadays, social media networks and personal webpages can share information privately and publicly that has direct impact on social issues. Without restraints, on the surface this can be helpful but many times terrible results can arise that invite the loss of respect for moral values. Hence, development must be oriented towards optimizing human dignity in all realms. Moral considerations are inseparable from spiritual, material, economic and social pursuits. The holistic approach to development offered by Islamic ethics is morally oriented and comprehensively covers multi-dimensional aspects of material and social progress.

The role of knowledge is also important in the formation of personal character. Educational systems should serve as agents of *tazkiyah* (purification) to produce morally imbued citizens. Knowledge managers should not only recognize matters of good or bad behavior but also implement programs that familiarize students with the constant practice of what is truly beneficial in daily life. According to A. Rahim's (2013) study on Ibn Miskawayh's ethical philosophy, the practice of virtue transforms irrational students to rational individuals who will keep performing good deeds. For Muslims, being rational does not mean only to justify things intellectually but also to examine every single aspect of moral conduct to determine whether such behavior aligns with Islamic law.

In addition, there is a great need for the Muslim *Ummah* to provide the best example of behavior according to Islam's code of ethics. Thus, Muslims should mirror good manners as indicated by al-Quran, which has called them the best *ummah*, one that behaves according to what is right and wrong:

“You are the best community that has been raised up for mankind. You enjoin right conduct and forbid wrong” (al-Quran, 3:10).

Regardless of time or place, Islamic ethics provide courses of action that emphasize what should be learned by human beings throughout history. What was considered morally good in the past remains so throughout time. Good individuals will produce a good society. Thus, there is need to apply the deepest wisdom of Islam to contemporary problems in the modern world, especially when dealing with ethical matters.

Conclusion

Ethics comprise the most important of prerequisite elements for the building of humankind's character and as mentioned in al-Quran: to worship God, to perform what is good and to avoid bad actions. According to al-Quran and *Sunnah*, Islamic ethics are the most beneficial guidance for use in the advancement of life and the avoidance of wrongdoing. Moreover, they provide motivation for humankind to advance the importance of Islamic ethics in global development. With all the excitement of modern progress, we should not neglect the important role of ethics in the establishment of harmony, prosperity and peace. As the religion of mercy, Islam should be the major reference and guideline in the drafting of a global code of ethics in accord with the characteristics of Islam that brings a complete multidimensional perspective and way of life. In addition, Islam's ethical value judgments transcend worldly gains and relativist interpretations. Thus, we urge the Muslim *Ummah* to practice true Islamic ethics and to return al-Quran to the mainstream in our approach to problems faced by society today and in the future.

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A National Pilot Project on Smart City Policy in Thailand: a Case Study on Phuket Khon Kaen Chiangmai Province

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Abstract

This research studied Phuket, Khon Kaen, and Chiangmai province policy on smart city. Also this research used smart city concept to provides an essential data and suggestion for executive committee. Thus, This research employed by a qualitative research methodology as a documentary research. Moreover, this research compares three main country which are EU, Japan, Singapore, then Thailand and narrow down to provincial area which is Phuket, Khon Kaen, and Chiangmai. After that it will interpreted and suggested for smart city which are help Phuket, Khon Kaen, governor and chief executives improve quality of life in Phuket, Khon Kaen, and Chiangmai province. The research found that Thailand has initiating on smart country policy and strategy which are focus on ICT system but it does not succeed to implement in province and local level. In provincial level, Phuket, Khon Kaen, and Chiangmai have been initiated but there is no concrete plan also in local level it stills struggle from basic needs of infrastructure. Therefore, this research recommended that Phuket, Khon Kaen, and Chiangmai governor and chief executive need to startup action plan which linked both province and local level.

Keywords: National pilot, Smart city, Public Policy, Phuket province, Khon Kaen province, Chiangmai province, Thailand 4.0

Introduction

When we are talking about "smart city" it looks like it is a hot topic for policy makers in urban area and rural area as well, indeed it actually is a national development plan which sprung in many countries around the world in this decade. It begins since the globalization and internet introduced and it has been creating many impact to many dimensions. Therefore, many policy makers have accelerate and catch up a dynamic social and economy changing. Moreover, in academicians is getting relevant on development practitioners. Thus, recently, many articles which is talking and discussing smart city increasing sharply and raise many cases to study specifically in Europe and north America, then later on in Asia. Yet, this topic became a core and important challenge subject in every national development plan.

This papers has four parts the first part is a brief definition on smart city. It focuses on academia definition rather than the practitioners one. However, on the second part it compares a three leading countries that has been engaging smart city in recent situation. The third part it narrows down into Thailand case from the national plan and policy which so called "Thailand 4.0" and smart city to local administration especially in this case study (Maejo municipality). For the last part it is a conclusion and suggestion for Maejo municipality.

However, we should to understand why smart city is necessary in this century and then we can investigate some key aspects and meaning regarding on "smart city" to get a better understanding on this word. the main reason that many cities around the world is facing a challenge in many dimensions also both nation and local government confront with "technology management" or information and Communication Technology (ICT). Moreover, as Falconer (2012:2) explained that more than 50 percent of the world's population lives in cities, placing massive pressure on city infrastructures (transportation, housing, water, power, and city services) many of which require enormous redesign and capital expenditure. Yet, the 600 largest global cities contribute 65 percent of global GDP growth from 2010-2025 and greenhouse-gas emissions (GHGs) are forcing cities to develop sustainability strategies for energy generation and distribution, transportation, water management, urban planning, and eco-friendly (green) buildings. Also, the economic climate continues to place huge budgetary constraints on cities, which are becoming limited in their ability to respond to these pressures. Therefore, these

issues, and others, can be mitigated through the adoption of scalable solutions that take advantage of ICT to increase efficiencies, reduce costs, and enhance quality of life. These three main reasons that a bedrock of modern cities in both urban and rural area problems. The solution for fix and reduce this problems is to using technology but also every actors in society such as community, government, private company, and NGOs need to cooperate and participate together.

On the other hand, to understand meaning and definition of smart city, according to Central policy unit, The government of the Hong Kong special administrative region (2015:1-2) pointed out that a smart city can be interpreted as a city which is smarter than traditional ones and capitalizes on new technologies and insights to transform and enhance systems, operations and service delivery. The concept of smart city covers almost every aspect of society and people livelihood, e.g. monitoring of public space, and management of underground pipelines and street illumination in respect of municipal facilities; construction, security, energy management and internal communication in respect of buildings; public transport service such as signal management, road traffic and parking monitoring; home automation and remote management ; high-speed network and cloud storage; and electronic public and business service.

In the same way, as Cohen (2012:1) initiated in 2012 the Smart City Wheel, it consisted of six major components which are; Smart Economy, Smart Mobility, Smart Environment, Smart Citizen, Smart Living, and Smart Government. However, he still pointed out that the first step for smart city is people engagement but the government or local government have to be a leader to let people and community join in policy campaign and process, then policy goals.

In the meantime, Albino, Berardi, and Dangelico (2015:1736) as their studied on smart city definition and argued that smart city evolved along three main directions, representing the perspectives through which the concept has been studied: technology, people, and community. Also their studied directly support to policy makers which could help to identify cities, develop incentives and tools for development of smart cities, and monitor the progresses. In the same way, Policy department A: Economic and scientific policy (2014:17-20) shown that smart city as multi-stakeholder municipally based partnerships aimed at addressing problems of common interest with the aid of ICTs, which underpin "Smart" classification. 'Smart City' initiatives address problems of common interest with the aid of ICTs. To be classified as a Smart City, a city must contain at least one initiative that addresses one or more of the following characteristics: Smart Governance, Smart People, Smart Living, Smart Mobility, Smart Economy and Smart Environment. ICT initiatives based on these characteristics aim to connect existing and improved infrastructure to enhance the services available to stakeholders (citizens, businesses, communities) within a city.

On the other hand, centreforcities (2014:3-4) argue that the concept is poorly defined and understood, and is at risk of sitting alongside other well-used but rarely defined notions like "livability" and "sustainability". Also Smart City initiatives can be broadly classified under two main approaches: top down and bottom up. From the top down is Cities adopting this approach become smart by integrating data gathered from different kinds of sensors (smart meters and CCTV cameras amongst others) into a single virtual platform in order to manage city operations more efficiently. On the other hand, bottom up is emphasizes the use of new technologies (for example, social media, websites, mobile applications or censoring technologies) and new data (becoming available mainly through open data platforms or sensors) as a means to enable citizens to devise solutions, acquire new skills through online learning and improve their interaction with public authorities. Such initiatives include open data platforms that allow the development of new mobile applications or online crowdfunding platforms to fund innovative projects.

In the same way as Chourabi, Nam, Walker, J. Ramon, Mellouli, Nahon, Pardo, School (2012:2289-2290) emphasized that the concept of a smart city itself is still emerging, and the work of defining and conceptualizing it is in progress. Also they pointed out that the conceptual comprehensiveness of a smart city, it could be thought of as a large organic system connecting many subsystems and components. In contrast with Nam and Pardo (2011:186-187) argued that smart city related in terms of technology, organization, and policy. Also smart city still have some risk and challenges in smart city that it could be failed, the failure in managing high risks leads to total failure in technology-driven public sector projects. 85 percent of IT projects fail because of the challenges by non-technical aspects of innovation in large part policy, organization, and management-related risks. Since public sector innovation projects have condition less friendly for innovation. Government agencies are monopolies without competitive pressure to innovate as well as bureaucracies structured to perform core tasks with stability and consistency, and resist change or disruption of those tasks. The public sector cannot easily burden varying costs of learning, experimentation and improvisation. The avoidance of failure is an organizational priority in the public sector and is highly valued because of accountability. As well as Hajduk (2016:34-49) pointed out that the smart city phenomenon developed due to some important challenges such as technological progress,

innovative devices, knowledge economy, environmental pressures and the political support of global institutions including the United Nations, the European Union and the OECD. Moreover, Hajduk pointed out that smart city is an integrated and comprehensive vision of all aspects of urban life including: the economy, government, transport, green areas, health care and culture.

Therefore, in the modern world most people lives in cities thus, it created a complex society and policy makers or government need a new management to organize in coming digital society. Smart city is one of the solution in this era. However, it still a new and fuzzy, and fancy word to understand the meaning. Many scholars in both academia and practitioners try to define smart city is. As this paper shown earlier we can see that smart city need to involve three main components which are technology, people, and community as a multilevel of stake holder and connected as organic system. However, for policy makers smart city is not only three components but it is a multi-stakeholder at least one initiative linked with people, ICT, government, economy, and etc. for this reason, in next part we raise some cases and compare some city that could represent smart city which is to find out the definition that could be fit on cases.

A Comparative Studies on Smart City: EU, Japan, and Singapore

This part will compare a cases from three main countries that initiated on smart city. it takes a look on how each country defines and how their approach on smart city which is each of them have a differences perspective, strategies, and policy. In EU case, according to Policy Department A Economic and Scientific Policy (2014:7-63) explained smart city is a city seeking to address public issues via ICT-based solutions on the basis of a multi-stakeholder, municipally based partnership on six characteristics which are Smart Governance, Smart People, Smart Living, Smart Mobility, Smart Economy and Smart Environment . Moreover, in this report their focused on many city in EU and founded that there are Smart Cities in all EU-28 countries, but these are not evenly distributed. Countries with the largest numbers are the UK, Spain and Italy, although the highest percentages are in Italy, Austria, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Estonia and Slovenia. Smart City initiatives are spread across all six characteristics, but most frequently focus on Smart Environment and Smart Mobility. Geographically, there is also a fairly even spread, although Smart Governance projects are mainly seen in the Older Member States of France, Spain, Germany, the UK, Italy and Sweden. Also noteworthy is that some characteristics typically occur in combination, such as Smart People and Smart Living. Also, to approached smart city this report examined using the following categorization:

maturity level 1: a Smart City strategy or policy only

maturity level 2: in addition to level 1, a project plan or project vision, but no piloting or implementation

maturity level 3: in addition to level 2, pilot testing Smart City initiatives

maturity level 4: a Smart City with at least one fully launched or implemented Smart City initiative.

Cities that do not attain maturity level 1 did not qualify as “Smart”: clearly there would also be no evidence of them having any of the six characteristics. This is quite clear to measure which city is qualify to count a smart city. Furthermore, in EU, it founded that Citizens tend to have more influence in the neighborhood and participation platform initiatives; government units are important drivers of intelligent traffic systems and participation platforms, and businesses are most influential in resource management systems. There is a mixture of public and private support. Public funding is most important in intelligent traffic system and non-energy-related resource management system initiatives. The energy-related resource management projects often rely on major private financial support. Private sector stakeholders tend to provide in-kind support for testbed micro infrastructures and intelligent traffic systems.

However, according to European Innovation Partnership on Smart Cities and Communities Strategic Implementation (2013: 2-22) the role in EU 2020 which is the EU’s strategy for boosting growth and jobs across the region in order to create a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy.110 To further these aims, key targets within five areas have been set on at national and EU-wide levels to be achieved by the 2020, including employment, R&D, climate change and energy, education, and poverty and social exclusion. EU focuses on employment 75% of 20–64 year olds to be employed, R&D and innovation 3% of the EU’s GDP (public and private combined) to be invested in R&D or innovation, Climate change and energy Greenhouse gas emissions to be 20% (or even 30%, if the conditions are right) lower than 1990 20% of energy from renewables 20% increase in energy efficiency, Education Reduce school drop-out rates below 10% At least 40% of

30–34 year olds have completed third level education, and Poverty and social exclusion which is at least 20 million less people in or at risk of poverty and social exclusion.

In practical, Smart City initiatives can be considered a useful vehicle for cities to achieve their Europe 2020 targets. Cities are conurbations that house a significant number of people, often in densely populated areas. Therefore, cities as Smart entities may be particularly well suited to initiatives addressing local public goods problems, such as energy and climate change. Moreover, the impacts may be highly visible, especially compared with less densely populated areas. The density and diversity of inhabitants (population and business alike) facilitates mutual recognition of problems, mobilization of critical mass, and efficient reallocation and monitoring of roles and responsibilities. These are some potential uses and characteristics of Smart City initiatives:

The Europe 2020 energy target could be addressed through initiatives that focus on Smart Environment or Smart Mobility.

Smart Economy and Smart People initiatives are oriented towards employment and education targets, which include e-skills development. Moreover, improving citizens' skills should make them more employable which in turn supports the Europe 2020 employment targets.

Smart Governance and Smart Living initiatives address poverty and social exclusion through measures including improvements to the quality of life, a focus on citizen connectivity (including e-government services) and the use of open data to create citizen services.

The majority of Smart City initiatives have the potential to support innovative growth and R&D. They are funded by a variety of sources, including government and private companies, which share a common interest in progress in this area. To contribute to the innovation and R&D target by further stimulating private sector R&D investment, it is essential that projects are evaluated and lessons learnt from them to enable further development.

In reality, a Smart City initiative aims to make improvements in relation to a number of the Europe 2020 targets. For instance, a project that enhances mobility may make it easier for individuals to travel to the most appropriate school or job (thus contributing to the employment and education targets). In addition, to implement a strategic vision need to be backed up by all stakeholders and supported by long-term policies, regulations and frameworks is the basis for an effective and efficient change process. Alignment, both horizontally (different policy fields) and vertically (local, regional, national, EU), using a participatory approach guarantees a holistic view and commitment to the smart-city process for example, Helsinki, Copenhagen, London, Geneva, and Amsterdam.

Finally, in EU which is high density city populations increase strains on energy, transportation, water, buildings and public spaces, so solutions need to be found which are "smart" in both highly efficient and sustainable on the one hand, as well as generating economic prosperity and social wellbeing on the other. Smart city is the best way to achieved by mobilizing all of a city's resources and coordinating its actors using new technologies and forward looking joined-up policies. There are 468 cities in EU with a population of over 100,000 and 240 cities are smart cities identified, based on definition and characteristics of smart city. As a number shown that EU cities strongly engaged to smart city even though each cities has difference focus in smart city characteristic but mostly tries to catch up the criteria on smart city. also the EU commission policy that intend to upgrade an focus on problems which use smart city as a solution to mitigate internal problems.

On the other hand, in Asia Japan is one of the advance and developed country and Japan has been taking a serious action on smart city. Japan has been established Japan Smart Community Alliance (JSCA). There aims focuses on smart community systems which are expected to be an effective means to help resolve many of these issues by harmonizing with existing social infrastructures, thereby creating sustainable societies that can offer increased well-being, safety and security such as Yokohama, Keihanna, Kitakyushu, and Fujisawa

Moreover, according to EU-Japan Centre for Industrial Cooperation report (2014:6-13) shown that the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) has invested in the increasing numbers of Smart City projects since 2010. The promotion of smart energy initiatives is now one of the goals established by the Fourth Energy Strategic Plan. However, the smart city in Japan quite differences approaches from the EU. Japan focuses on sustainable energy due to nuclear accident in Fukushima in March 2011 and the resulting shift away from nuclear power.

The accident in Fukushima Daiichi nuclear plant showed how unstable the energy supply was in Japan. Firstly, it put into light the lack of safety, linked to insufficient risk prevention in the construction of nuclear power plant sites and the

radioactive threat to local citizens. Considering that there are 50 plants throughout Japan, the risk could not be disregarded and all plants were stopped until security checks were conducted and new safety regulations were applied. Secondly, the sudden shortage of power and the inadequate electricity grid resulted into blackouts and undesired lumps in electricity consumption, showing how constant energy supply cannot be ensured, even for key services in emergency situations, such as communication networks.

Another contested decision of Abe's government lies in the re-start of up to one third of the nuclear power plants. New Regulatory Requirements and New Safety Standards were established by the Nuclear Regulation Authority formed in September 2012 and should be applied to the nuclear plants before plants are used again. Albeit the 2020 goals of GHG emissions targets will not be respected, Japan still aims at lowering its production of carbon dioxide in the long term. Similarly to the pre-Fukushima accident, the focus is jointly put on renewable and clean energy promotion. Energy efficiency is another key tool to contribute to energy security and reduced CO₂ emissions. A last key set of policy changes relates to the power grid. The production, transmission and distribution of electricity until the Great East Japan Earthquake was efficient enough that no radical reform was needed, especially as the power companies opposed it, while after 3/11 it was clear that a push towards more efficiency and through energy sector liberalization was necessary.

Furthermore, Japan uses a term of "smart community" rather than smart city and it sounds more socialized as Japan Smart Community Alliance (2015: 2-3) mentioned smart community is a new form of social system that comprehensively manages the supply and demand of energy in the distributed energy systems, optimizes the use and application of energy, and incorporates lifestyle support services including monitoring service for the elderly, through the energy management system utilizing IT and storage energy technologies, while making use of distributed energy resources such as renewable energy and cogeneration. The smart community as the comprehensive approach for the above mentioned social issues will be implemented by the integration of advanced technologies related to environment and energy.

Also, smart community being addressed in Japan has the concept involving smart grid. Whereas smart grid refers to the state being smarter by ICT for electric power system, smart community is the effort of changing social system of a defined area into smarter state with technologies not only for electric power system but also for a variety of public infrastructure including heat supply, water and sewerage, transportation and communications.

Japan thinks smart community needs social system to shape the concepts and smart community is a new system that could solve social problems and improve Japanese life quality. Therefore, we can identify smart community or smart city strategy throughout Japan:

Fostering energy security and efficiency, it intends to enabling substantial CO₂ reductions and energy savings, enabling integration of large amount of renewable energy, enabling stabilized supply of energy, and minimizing energy costs.

Boosting local development economically and socially, it intends to enabling to enhance the standard of living of local residents, offering highly convenient transportation and water services, enabling to develop safe and disaster-resistant society.

Enhancing regional and global competition, it intends to find local solutions to global problems

Therefore, smart city or smart community in Japan has been tackling energy problem especially the policy has been revised according to Fukushima Daiichi nuclear plant disaster and a new strategic plan as a smart community has been launched for enhance Japan next-generation. Thus, the smart community in Japan is the best solution to shaping overall community planning. Meanwhile in Southeast Asia, Singapore quite firstly county that initiated smart city. According to central policy unit (2015:71) Singapore is among the first to launch smart city development. Like other regions, it has a top-down planning framework for overall coordination in terms of strategic positioning, master planning and implementation. Even before the smart city concept was proposed, Singapore had been promoting information and communication technologies, or infocomm, for municipal development since the 1990s. Its smart city strategy aims at making Singapore a quality city-state with a well-connected society powered by the growth and use of infocomm in various area.

However, according to Inter-American Development Bank (2016:3-28) reported that Singapore is somewhat disadvantaged in terms of its geographic location and natural resources. The small island nation sits just one-degree north of the equator, consistently hot and humid year round. The island lacks basic resources; it has no energy deposits, no forests and even no farms. However, despite lacking natural resources and hinterland, Singapore has grown into a global commerce, into

an Asian tiger economy based on external trade and its skilled pool of human capital. Today, it has a highly developed market economy. The economy depends heavily on financial services, oil-refining, and manufacturing. Therefore, Singapore is pushing towards the vision of being the world's first Smart Nation under the Smart Nation Program developed in 2014, which ideally seeks to harness ICT, networks and data to support better living, create more opportunities, and to support stronger communities. While various cities around the world are experimenting with the concept of "smart city" by making the use of technologies to tackle wide range of urban challenges, Singapore has a much more ambitious and whole-of-nation vision.

The Singapore Government's Smart Nation vision is a response to growing urban challenges of aging population, urban density and energy sustainability. Various stakeholders such as technology builders and entrepreneurs around the world are invited to be involved in this vision to use the nation as a "living lab" to try out new ideas and smart solutions with global potential. A critical role of ICT standards is to enable the integration and interoperability of different ICT systems that is in place for Smart Nation initiatives. Achieving such integration is expected to facilitate the optimal use of resources across different systems.

Moreover, to achieve smart nation, Singapore has many plan in services and wait for implements. Thus Singapore focuses on five key domains which are transportation, home and environment, business and productivity. Health and enable aging, and public sector services. However, the most developed smart services in Singapore is within the Transportation and urban mobility sector; the development of Intelligent Transport System (ITS) has been going on for more than 10 years. Singapore also has a strong e-governance foundation, which they have been incubating since the early 80s. Also, Singapore has implemented a sophisticated ITS to enhance traffic flow and to keep road traffic running safety. The strength of the ITS in Singapore originates from its holistic approach towards traffic management; ITS work together with other transport initiatives such as free public transportation in pre-morning peak hours, a vehicle quota system, well-functioning public transport system and congestion charge, to enhance overall transport system in the city. Utilizing ITS components, Singapore provides a number of smart transport services for citizens.

Furthermore, smart nation just launched at the very end of 2014 and Singapore has particular advantage in terms of carrying out pilot projects in selected region, partly due to its extensive ownership of public housings, where approximately 80% of the resident population live, making it easier for government to try out services like in-house displays. Therefore, Singapore case is expected to provide a valuable lesson for all cities especially in Southeast Asian countries. The initiation of smart nation.

The Thailand 4.0 Policy and Smart City

According to the government public relations department (2016) announced that Prime Minister General Prayut Chan-ocha has cited the "Thailand 4.0" policy as the new direction of the country, to be conducted along with economic reform, in accordance with the 20-year national strategy. In his national address on the program "Return Happiness to the People" on 1 July 2016, the Prime Minister said that in implementing this policy, the Government needed cooperation from all sectors of society on a voluntary basis, so that it would be able to move the country forward, under the vision of "Stability, Prosperity, and Sustainability."

The policy also seeks to promote creativity, innovation, and the application of technology in various economic activities. The objective is to create equilibrium between the environment and society. Thailand 4.0 is a new economic model to develop Thailand into a valued-based economy. The new model will change the country's traditional farming to smart farming, traditional SMEs to smart enterprises, and traditional services to high-value services. From the past up to the present, Thailand has passed through three economic development models. In the first model, Thailand 1.0, emphasis was placed on traditional agricultural development. The second model, Thailand 2.0, focused on light industries, which helped upgrade the country's economy from the low-income to middle-income status. The third model, Thailand 3.0, emphasized heavy industries for continued economic growth.

In Thailand 3.0, the country has become stuck in the middle-income trap and faces disparities and imbalanced development. In the next period, Thailand 4.0, the country needs to pull itself out of the middle-income trap and deal effectively with disparities and the imbalance between the environment and society. This model will be carried out along with the 20-year national strategy and economic reform through the mechanism of "public-private-people partnership." It will transform Thailand's comparative advantage into a competitive advantage. In this regard, new engines of growth will

be introduced. Prime Minister General Prayut stated that 10 target industrial groups will become new engines of growth. For instance, in the food and agriculture group, the Government has established the Food Innopolis¹ to promote the processing of agricultural products on a full-cycle basis. In the health group, he said, research and development, herbal production, alternative medicine, and local wisdom have been given a major boost, along with health tourism. The Government intends to develop "herb city" and "medical hub." Moreover, robotics and smart electronics will be emphasized, as they will be in great demand in various industries. Thailand 4.0 also consists of seven industries that are considered the backbone of the digital economy.

Therefore, for smart city in Thailand context and a new policy from a national road map. Thailand focuses on build a county wide-high-capacity digital infrastructure, boost the economy with a digital technology, create a quality and equitable society through digital technology, transform into digital government, develop workforce for the digital era, and build trust and confidence in the use of digital technology. Moreover, Thailand has been initiated on smart city by pick up some provinces to experiments which are Nakhon Nayork which is announced in 2013 and the project aims to improve public services by developing wide-area communication networks and to enhance the competitiveness of provinces by making regional cities more competitive especially focuses on communication infrastructure development. Then Phuket, this province has been initiated for creating an environment that supports the development of digital service innovation as well as to encourage the concrete development of the digital industry and innovation.

Furthermore, the government aims to develop Thailand into a hub of digital services in the ASEAN region and a hub for connecting with other countries worldwide to attract digital workers, digital investors, and software companies across the world to work and invest in Thailand in order to create new Startups and efficiently drive the Digital Economy. Also, Chiangmai, and Khonekaen. This cities will be a pilot provinces after that the government will expands to nationwide within 2019.

Also, on March 23, 2016 Digital Economy Promotion Agency (DEPA) (2016) reported that Mr. Pawin Chamniprasart, Governor of Chiangmai Province, Mr. Narong Tananuwat, Honorary Chairman of Chiangmai Province Chamber of Commerce, to attend a meeting to discuss and exchange information concerning Smart City Project launched at Incheon City and Seongnam City, South Korea. The ecosystems in both cities are similar to that of Chiangmai Province, making it a perfect choice to establish collaboration with Chiangmai Smart City Project. In addition, a Letter of Intent signing ceremony was also held to establish collaboration between Chiangmai Province and Seongnam City for Smart City Development at Seongnam City Hall where information on Chiangmai Province was also presented to top-ranking executives from Seongnam City. The event was also joined by software and digital content entrepreneurs from over 40 companies. Furthermore, such collaboration between Chiangmai Province and Seongnam City in developing Smart City also led to other collaboration projects including:

International ICT Volunteer (IIV) – A project initiated under the collaboration between International Telecommunicati on Union (ITU) and Seongnam City to encourage undergraduate ICT students in helping to promote ICT development among local communities Chiangmai Province.

Workshop organized at Seongnam City to promote participation of Smart City experts in formulating Chiangmai Smart City Development Plan.

Startup Promotion Project at Chiangmai Province – A collaboration project that involves the participation of leading companies and Startups from Seongnam City in developing Startup businesses in Chiangmai in order to build Startup Ecosystem CM. In addition, a discussion meeting was also held on the same day regarding how to establish suitable operational procedure to ensure quick and efficient result.

In addition, Leesa-Nguansuk's Bangkok Post writer (2016) reported that Chiang Mai will also serve as a testing ground for new ways of applying information and communication technology to make optimal use of local strengths. The northern

¹ The Internet of things (IoT) is the inter-netw orking of physical devices, vehides (also referred to as "connected devices" and "smart devices"), buildings, and other items embedded with electronics, software, sensors, actuators, and network connectivity which enable these objects to collect and exchange data.

province is mapping out its future. Also, Chiang Mai aims to become a development Centre for enterprise software, digital content and animation, the IoT¹, embedded systems for automation and connected vehicles and tech startup businesses.

Recently in 2017, he also mention that Chiang Mai smart city is dedicated to promoting smart agriculture, reducing air pollution, enhancing tourist experience and sustaining the city and social development through the use of information and communications technology. The Digital Economy Promotion Agency (Depa), formerly known as Software Industry Promotion Agency (SIPA is a Public Organization), is embarking on a 36.5-million-baht smart city project to develop Chiang Mai as an innovation-driven destination.

Moreover, Digital Economy Promotion Agency or formerly known as Software Industry Promotion Agency (Public Organization) created Smart City Project in Chiang Mai Province. The agency provided the project with consultation and promotion of technology application to agricultural industry, tourism and city management. The project is based on 3 concrete operation plans: 1. Smart Environment in which the agency teams up with Maejo University in technological development to eliminate smoke and haze problems usually peaking in March; 2 Smart Agriculture which applies technological development to improve agriculture in Chiang Mai where agricultural areas occupy more than 80% of total areas; and 3. application of technology to solve transportation problems and support tourism.

In the meantime, Maejo municipality located in Sansai district, Chiangmai where Maejo University located in this area as well. However, according to Maejo municipality website it does not provides sufficient information and most of information on website does not up to date. Their yearly plan, three years plan, and strategic development plan still focus on basic needs of infrastructure such as electricity, water supply, water pipeline, road, and waste water pipeline. This means the national policy and province strategic plan do not implement or transfer into local level. Even though Maejo municipality located in Chiangmai where it is a pilot project for smart city. in the same way with Nantawan Wongkachonkitti (2016:367) founded that during the implementation stage, there were some obstacles such as unclear of the policy, lack of readiness, lack of understanding, insufficient budget, poor infrastructure, and lack of concrete guidelines.

Therefore, to find solution government needs to concrete focuses on smart city and needs to put smart city plan into local level which is a fundamental and bedrock in Thai society. Moreover, it needs to promotes and let's local community join in smart city project as a variety of stakeholders. Especially, local community has to be a center and connected and integrated to government agencies in many levels via ICT which creates a new innovation that suitable for each local context.

Conclusion and Suggestion

Smart city is a new word and it is not standard and variety of definition. Also, it depends on people in different sectors. Smart City concepts requires a combination of smart efforts to improve quality of life and it promotes economic growth, sustain environment and energy. The key concept of smart include six dimensions which are: Smart Economy, Smart Mobility, Smart Environment, Smart Citizen, Smart Living, and Smart Government.

All of six dimensions need to connected with ICT and ICT based concepts such as big data, open data, Internet of Things (IoT), data accessibility and management, data security, and mobile broadband. In Europe, Japan, and Singapore cases shown that all of them initiated and some cities has been engaged. However, in EU case, smart city is a new and best solution for improve a quality of life for European. Meanwhile, Japan creates a smart community which focus on social network and it is a new solution for sustain energy since the Fukushima disaster and aging problem. On the other hand, Singapore engaged on smart nation for sustain natural resources and population density.

Moreover, Thailand also initiated on smart city and created a blueprint of national plan which so called Road Map of Thailand 4.0. This national plan tries to develop Thailand into a digital society. However, to implements this plan there are many problems from top-down level especially in local community. Therefore, to achieve and reach the national policy goal Thai government needs more promote and make a concrete plan from the top level to local level. In the same way, local administrative organizations need to start up and promote their community into smart community or smart city which can start up on smart infrastructure. Smart infrastructure is a foundation for all of the key themes in six dimensions. The core characteristic that underlies is they are connected and that they generate data and connected community. For instance, a smart building and mobility integrate the different physical systems present in an intelligent way to ensure that all the

¹ About this, you can watch the video by Professor Amanda Vickery who journeys from Renaissance Italy to the Dutch Republic and discovers a hidden world of female artistry: The Story of Women and Art 1 -2-3. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SCkab-v_o3k

systems act together in an optimized and efficient manner. Smart building and mobility management systems can improve building and save energy and efficiency, reduce waste and ensure an optimum usage of water, electric, gasoline with operational effectiveness and occupant satisfaction. thus, in this case this research recommended to Chief executive and executive committee need to startup which propose smart city development proposal which should focuses on smart city with is could start up on smart infrastructure to community.

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Comparison Between the Reality of Higher Education in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq Before and After the Fall of the Regime in Iraq in 2003

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Abstract

In this study, a comparison between the realities of higher education in the three largest universities in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq has been done before the fall of the Iraqi regime in 2003 and beyond. The statistical results of analyzed of more than 2000 sample data showed tangible and clear changes of the higher education reality toward the better of about 70% after the fall of the Iraqi regime in 2003. These changes are related to the openness of these universities toward the foreign universities of the world especially the European universities. Many professors and students of these universities contacted to the foreign universities to conduct joint research and take advantage of new experiences of professors of these foreign universities and using the new technology in teaching enhanced learning and scientific research, in addition to the using of new references such as journals and books. As well as the improved economic situation in the Region from a low level to the moderate level improved higher education by 20% , especially after the entry of many investment companies to the region and improved infrastructure and accessibility delegations to the region through the newly built airports.

Keywords: Higher education, university, Iraqi Kurdistan Region, teaching.

Introduction

The Iraqi Kurdistan Region before year 2003 was under two embargos; one was of United Nations and the other of Iraqi regime. In that time all the materials and things can not allowed shipping, export or reached to the Kurdistan region in official ways. No references such as books, Journals, disks, CD, computer and its accessories, ...etc allowed to enter the area. For example: if a student or any person who want to enter the Kurdistan region and holding a book or Journal, at Turkish or Syrian check points they terrible him and don't allowed to took it and sometime he goes to prison because that?!. In addition, the economic condition of the government and population was very weak. So the higher education was not easy done and then many students leave the study or not ready to registered Even though some supervised professors greatly facilitate for them. To explain how these two embargoes constraints and impact on higher education studies and how much releasing of these two embargoes contribute to progress the study.

Methodology

For study this case we designed a form consist of 26 different questions related to the most modern techniques and tools used in teaching and researching, some of these tools were not available before year 2003 but most of them available after that time (now).

The form includes five answers which are; 1- More useful, 2- Medium useful, 3- Little useful, 4- Zero (nothing) using and 5- unavailable this tools (Appendix-A).

About 237 of this form were distributed on postgraduate and graduates (teachers) of three universities in the region which are Salahaddin – Erbil, Sulaimani and Kirkuk universities.

After collection the fill forms and sorting the data, several contour map, Pie and histograms were built to study the higher education state in both cases (before year 2003 and after the fall of Baath regime in 2003).

Results and Discussion

The contour map of the five answers of all 26 question was drawn (Fig. 1).

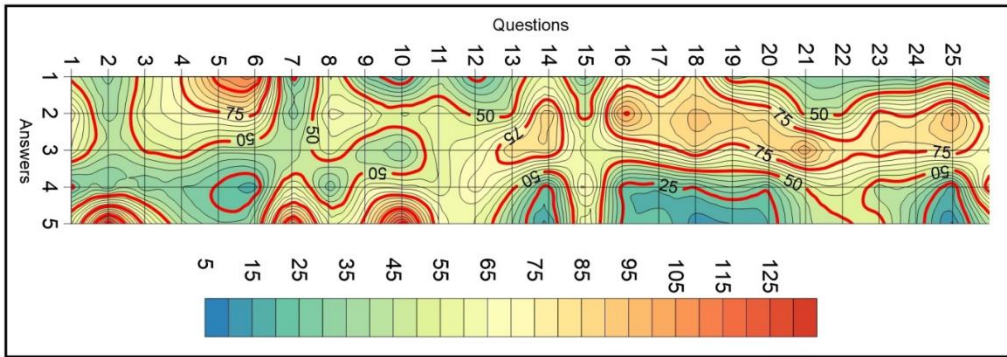


Fig. (1) show the contour map of the five answers of all of 26 questions.

The map shows that the more answers concentrated on answers;

with 2- "Medium" useful of questions 4-6, 14, 16-20, 23 and 25.

with 3- "Little" useful of questions 1 and 3

with 5- "Unavailable" of questions 2, 7 and 10

with 1- "More" useful of questions 4-6 and 18.

with 4- zero "un-useful" of question 7

It means that the available of book, computer and internet uses after year 2003 helps the higher education student in their study. Also Available of different specialize of supervisors (local), Social relations between teachers and students, different references, Available of libraries and modern scientific references, Availability and uses of foreign references such as English, and Appropriate classrooms contribute the Improvement of the study.

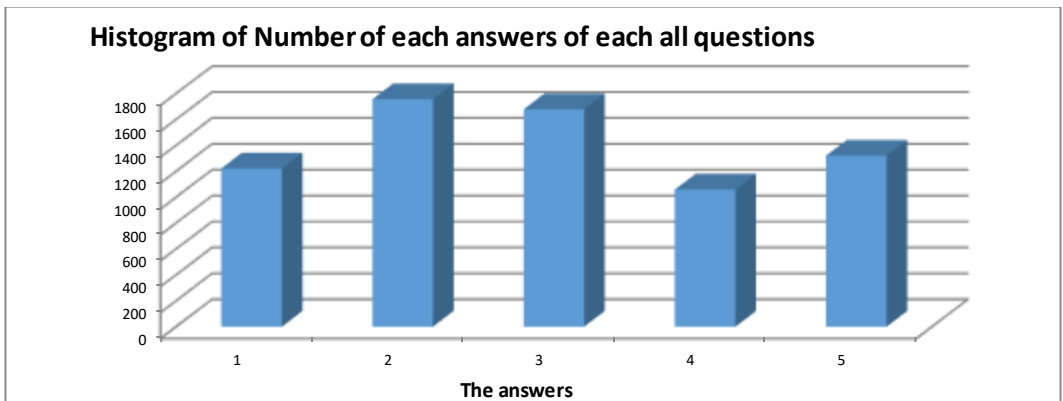


Fig (2) Histogram of Number of each answers of each all questions

While the availability of transportation means (aircraft and modern cars ...), Ease of travel and movement between provinces contribute in improvement of the study but not as the above answers.

In general, most of the answers concentrated on medium more than other answers Fig (2). Also several tens of answers focused on unavailable tools especially on point (Question 2) which is "travel outside the country", video conference, e-learning and multimedia. Most of these answer of students, which were graduated before 2003, (Fig. 3).

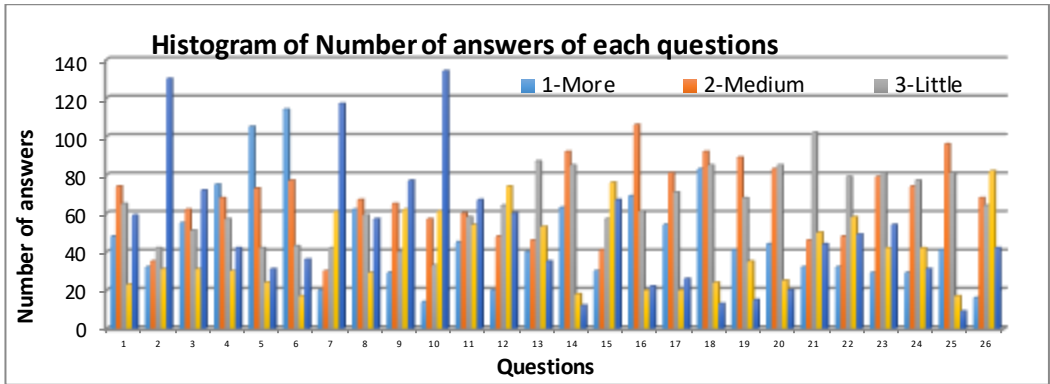


Fig. (3) Percentage of each answers of the question.

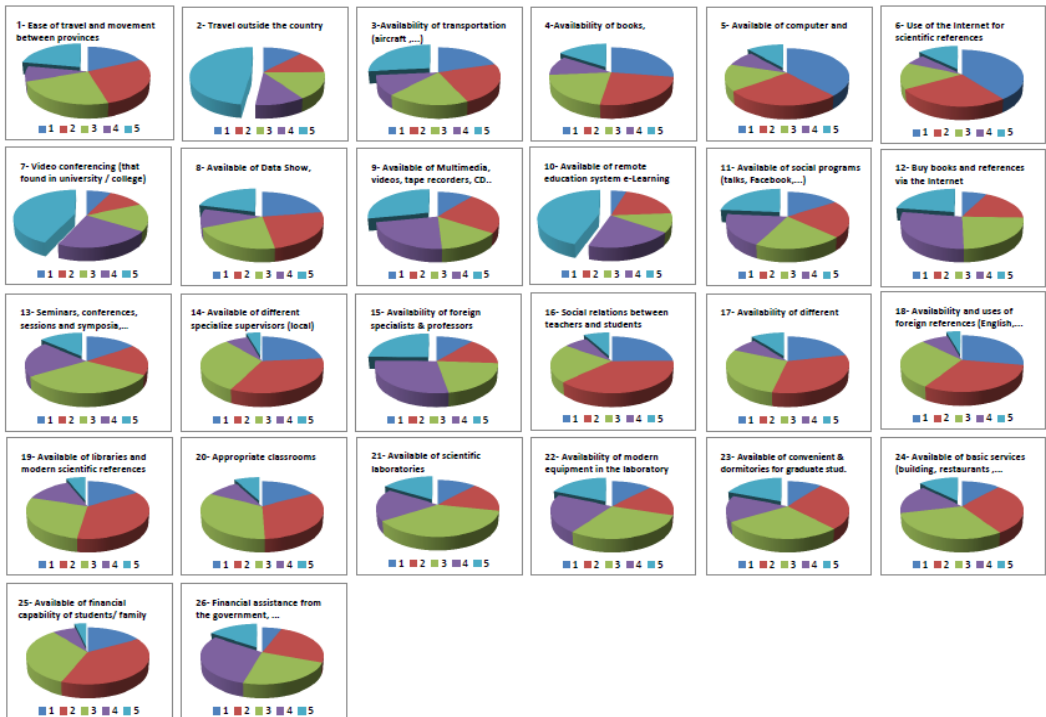


Fig.(4) Histograms for all 26 questions and its distribution of the five answers of (1- More, 2- Medium, 3- Little, 4- Zero and 5- Unavailable for each questions.

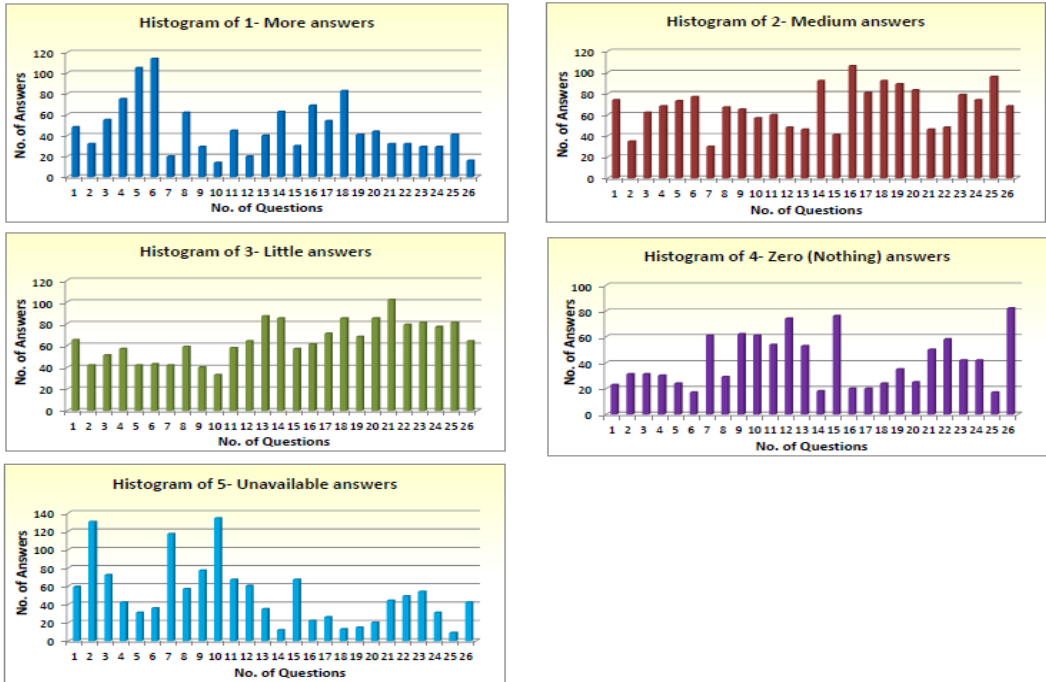


Fig. (5) Histograms for sum of the five answers (1- More, 2- Medium, 3- Little, 4- Zero and 5- Unavailable) for each question of all 26 questions and its distributions

Figs (4 and 5) show result more clearly and the more useful tools are journal, books, e- books, e-journal, computer and its accessories, internet uses, different specialize supervisors of local, social relation between the teachers and students, availability of foreign references and economical capability of the students and her/his families.

We can say in general that all to tools and facilities help the higher education to progress more steps (Fig. 5 histogram of medium answers).

Most of the answers refer that they not benefit from governorate or other non-governorate financial supports (Question 26; Financial assistance from the government or non-government organization). We surprised from this result because we know that all the stages of the educations are free in Kurdistan region and Iraq and this is a big support from the government to all branches of the studies from primary schools to postgraduate too. May be they refer to did not got a special salary which is available now for student for both studying inside or outside the country.

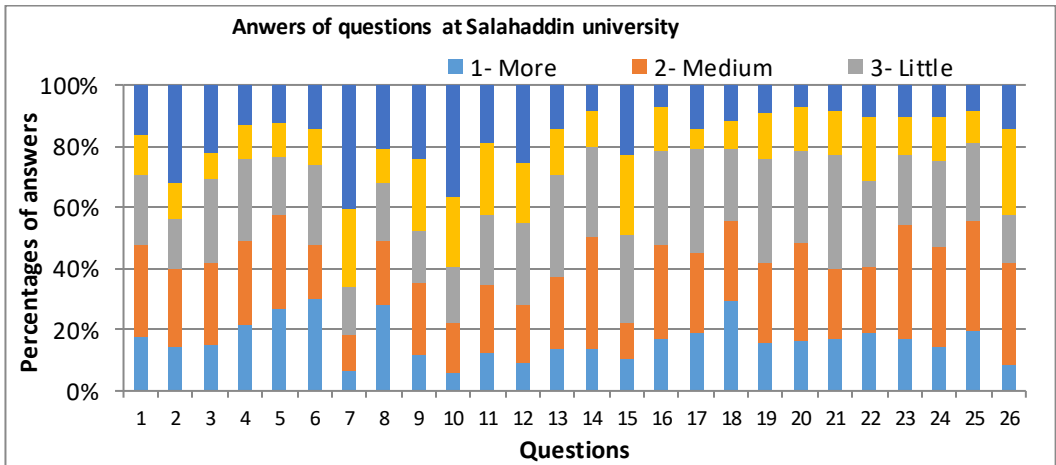


Fig. (6) Histograms for percentage of each answer of all questions in Salahaddin University - Erbil.

The 100 % stacked histogram of Salahaddin University answers (Fig. 6 and table 2) indicate that the three answers 1-More, 2- Medium and 3-Little are the more answers. In other words, it means that they benefit from availability and uses of the tools and references.

Only the video conferences and e-learning are unavailable and they not benefit from it.

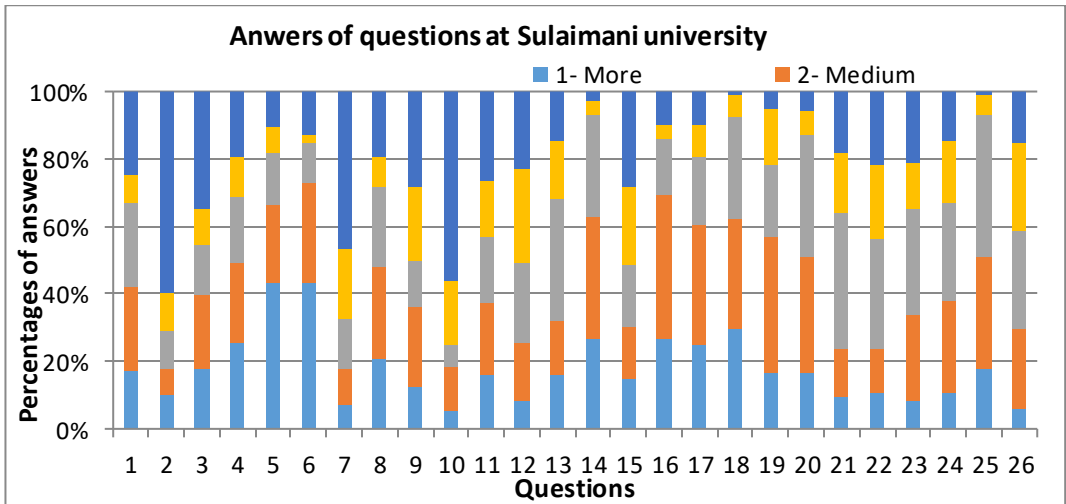


Fig. (7) Histograms for percentage of each answer of all questions in Sulaimani University.

Also, the 100 % stacked histogram of Sulaimani university answers (Fig. 7 and table 3) indicate that the three answers 1-More, 2- Medium and 3-Little are the more answers. Also, it means that they benefit from availability and uses of the tools and references.

The Transportation such as aircrafts, modern transportation machines, video conferences and e-learning are unavailable and they not benefit from it.

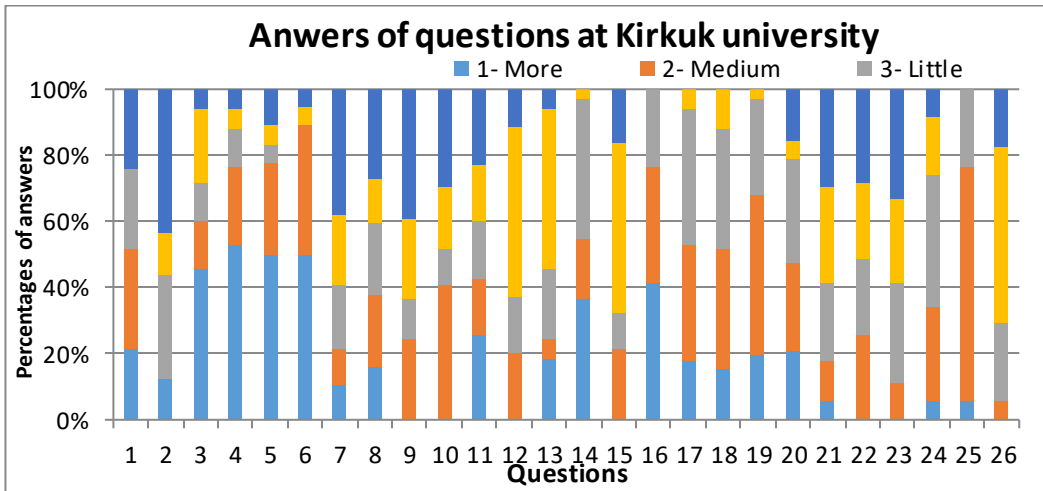


Fig. (8) Histograms for percentage of each answer of all questions in Kirkuk University.

while, the 100 % stacked histogram of Kirkuk university answers (Fig. 8 and table 4) indicate that the three answers 1- More, 2- Medium and 3-Little are not uniform answers. But also, they benefit from availability and uses of the tools and references especially answers of question 3-6, 11, 14 and 16.

The Transportation such as aircrafts, modern transportation machines, video conferences, multimedia, e-learning and convenient and dormitories for graduate students are unavailable and they not benefit from it.

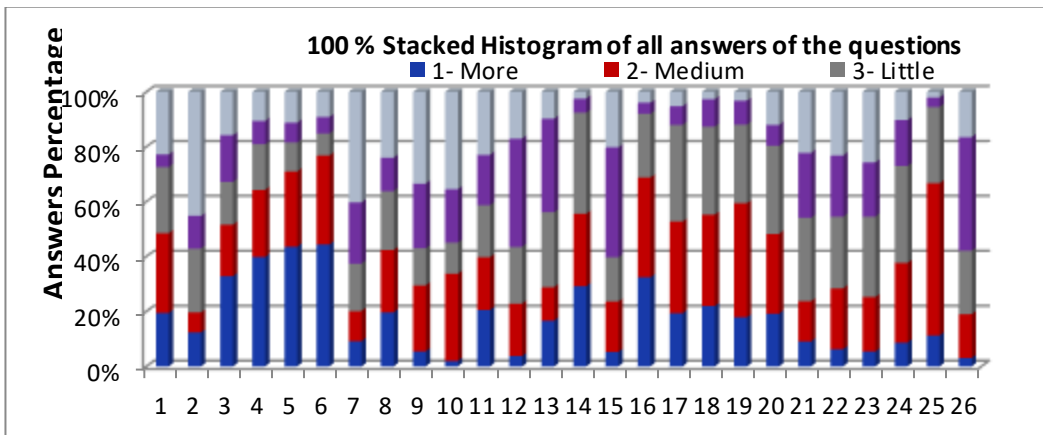


Fig. (9) Histograms for percentage of each answer of all questions of the three Universities.

Finally, the Fig. 9 and table (5) which represents the data and the 100% stacked histogram of summation of all the data of the three universities and show that all them benefit from availability of references, computers, internet resources, available of different local supervisors and social relations between the teachers and student. On the contrary, they not benefit from multimedia, remote learning, video conference, foreign supervisors, modern equipment and laboratories and financial supporting because they were unavailable.

That is means the changing or fall of the Iraqi regime after 2003 contribute to progress the study because the country is opened and the embargos were released and the economic situation got better and all the modern materials, devices and tools enters the country as well as the borders were becomes more flexible.

Conclusions:

We can conclude the results in the following points:

In general, all the higher education student benefit from the fallen and changing of the regime in 2003 and the country is opened and the effects of the embargos were released and the borders are become more flexible.

They benefit from availability of electronic resources, using of computer and its accessories, internet uses and transportation.

May be the unavailable of video conference, multimedia tools, modern laboratories and convenient and dormitories for graduate students are impediment the study.

Appendix – A. Designed Form

Sex : **University:** **Starting study Date:** **Ending study Date :**

No	Question	1- More	2- Me dium	3- Little	4- Zero	5- Not availabl e
1	Ease of travel and movement between provinces					
2	Travel outside the country					
3	Availability of transportation tools (aircraft & modern cars,...)					
4	Availability of books, magazines and electronic references; e-book, e-journal					
5	Available of computer and it's accessories such as printers, storage and camera					
6	Use of the Internet for scientific references					
7	Video conferencing (that found in university or college)					
8	Available of Data Show, electronic blackboards, ...					
9	Available of Multimedia, videos, tape recorders and CD..					
10	Available of remote education system; e-Learning, ...					
11	Available of social programs (talks, Facebook, chatting)					
12	Buy books and references via the Internet					
13	Seminars, conferences, sessions and symposia, ...					
14	Available of different specialize of supervisors (local)					
15	Availability of foreign specialists & professors					
16	Social relations between teachers and students					
17	Availability of different references					
18	Availability and uses of foreign references such as English,...					
19	Available of libraries and modern scientific references					
20	Appropriate classrooms					
21	Available of scientific laboratories					
22	Availability of modern equipment in the laboratory					
23	Available of convenient and dormitories for graduate students					
24	Available of basic services such as building, restaurants of the					
25	Available of financial capabilities of students & his/her families					
26	Financial assistance from the government or non-governmental					

Appendix - 2. Table (1) Sorted answers of the Higher education graduates of the 3 universities.

No	1- More				2- Medium				3- Little				4- Zero (nothing)				5- Not available				Total
	H	S	K	Sum	H	S	K	Sum	H	S	K	Sum	H	S	K	Sum	H	S	K	Sum	
1	17	24	7	48	29	35	10	74	22	35	8	65	12	11	0	23	16	35	8	59	269
2	14	14	4	32	24	11	0	35	16	16	10	42	11	16	4	31	31	85	14	130	270
3	14	25	16	55	26	31	5	62	26	21	4	51	8	15	8	31	21	49	2	72	271
4	21	36	18	75	27	33	8	68	26	27	4	57	11	17	2	30	13	27	2	42	272
5	26	61	18	105	30	33	10	73	18	22	2	42	11	11	2	24	12	15	4	31	275
6	29	67	18	114	17	46	14	77	25	18	0	43	11	4	2	17	14	20	2	36	287
7	6	10	4	20	11	15	4	30	14	21	7	42	24	29	8	61	37	66	14	117	270
8	27	29	6	62	20	39	8	67	18	33	8	59	11	13	5	29	20	27	10	57	274
9	11	18	0	29	23	34	8	65	16	20	4	40	23	31	8	62	23	41	13	77	273
10	6	8	0	14	16	19	22	57	18	9	6	33	23	28	10	61	36	82	16	134	299
11	12	24	9	45	21	33	6	60	22	30	6	58	23	25	6	54	18	41	8	67	284
12	9	11	0	20	18	23	7	48	26	32	6	64	19	37	18	74	25	31	4	60	266
13	13	21	6	40	23	21	2	46	32	48	7	87	14	23	16	53	14	19	2	35	261
14	13	38	12	63	35	51	6	92	28	43	14	85	11	6	1	18	8	4	0	12	270
15	10	20	0	30	11	22	8	41	28	25	4	57	25	32	19	76	22	39	6	67	271
16	16	39	14	69	30	64	12	106	29	24	8	61	14	6	0	20	7	15	0	22	278
17	18	30	6	54	25	44	12	81	33	24	14	71	6	12	2	20	14	12	0	26	252
18	28	50	5	83	25	55	12	92	23	50	12	85	9	11	4	24	11	2	0	13	297
19	15	20	6	41	25	49	15	89	33	26	9	68	14	20	1	35	9	6	0	15	248
20	16	20	8	44	31	42	10	83	29	44	12	85	14	9	2	25	7	7	6	20	257
21	16	14	2	32	22	20	4	46	36	58	8	102	14	26	10	50	8	26	10	44	274
22	18	14	0	32	21	18	9	48	27	44	8	79	20	30	8	58	10	29	10	49	266
23	16	13	0	29	36	39	4	79	22	48	11	81	12	21	9	42	10	32	12	54	285
24	14	13	2	29	31	33	10	74	27	36	14	77	14	22	6	42	10	18	3	31	253
25	19	20	2	41	34	38	24	96	25	48	8	81	10	7	0	17	8	1	0	9	244
26	8	8	0	16	32	34	2	68	15	41	8	64	27	37	18	82	14	22	6	42	272
Total	412	647	163	1222	643	882	232	1757	634	843	202	1679	391	499	169	1059	418	751	152	1321	7038

Table (2) Sorting of answers of the questions of Salahaddin university Higher Educ.

No	Salahaddin university - Erbil									
	1- More		2- Medium		3- Little		4- Zero/ nothing		5- Not available	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	17	0.18	29	0.30	22	0.23	12	0.13	16	0.17
2	14	0.15	24	0.25	16	0.17	11	0.11	31	0.32
3	14	0.15	26	0.27	26	0.27	8	0.08	21	0.22
4	21	0.22	27	0.28	26	0.27	11	0.11	13	0.14
5	26	0.27	30	0.31	18	0.19	11	0.11	12	0.13
6	29	0.30	17	0.18	25	0.26	11	0.11	14	0.15
7	6	0.06	11	0.11	14	0.15	24	0.25	37	0.39

8	27	0.28	20	0.21	18	0.19	11	0.11	20	0.21
9	11	0.11	23	0.24	16	0.17	23	0.24	23	0.24
10	6	0.06	16	0.17	18	0.19	23	0.24	36	0.38
11	12	0.13	21	0.22	22	0.23	23	0.24	18	0.19
12	9	0.09	18	0.19	26	0.27	19	0.20	25	0.26
13	13	0.14	23	0.24	32	0.33	14	0.15	14	0.15
14	13	0.14	35	0.36	28	0.29	11	0.11	8	0.08
15	10	0.10	11	0.11	28	0.29	25	0.26	22	0.23
16	16	0.17	30	0.31	29	0.30	14	0.15	7	0.07
17	18	0.19	25	0.26	33	0.34	6	0.06	14	0.15
18	28	0.29	25	0.26	23	0.24	9	0.09	11	0.11
19	15	0.16	25	0.26	33	0.34	14	0.15	9	0.09
20	16	0.17	31	0.32	29	0.30	14	0.15	7	0.07
21	16	0.17	22	0.23	36	0.38	14	0.15	8	0.08
22	18	0.19	21	0.22	27	0.28	20	0.21	10	0.10
23	16	0.17	36	0.38	22	0.23	12	0.13	10	0.10
24	14	0.15	31	0.32	27	0.28	14	0.15	10	0.10
25	19	0.20	34	0.35	25	0.26	10	0.10	8	0.08
26	8	0.08	32	0.33	15	0.16	27	0.28	14	0.15

Table (3) Sorting of answers of the questions of Sulaimani university Higher Educ.

No	Sulaimani university									
	1- More		2- Medium		3- Little		4- Zero/ nothing		5- Not avia-lable	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	24	0.19	35	0.27	35	0.27	11	0.09	35	0.27
2	14	0.11	11	0.09	16	0.13	16	0.13	85	0.66
3	25	0.20	31	0.24	21	0.16	15	0.12	49	0.38
4	36	0.28	33	0.26	27	0.21	17	0.13	27	0.21
5	61	0.48	33	0.26	22	0.17	11	0.09	15	0.12
6	67	0.52	46	0.36	18	0.14	4	0.03	20	0.16
7	10	0.08	15	0.12	21	0.16	29	0.23	66	0.52
8	29	0.23	39	0.30	33	0.26	13	0.10	27	0.21
9	18	0.14	34	0.27	20	0.16	31	0.24	41	0.32
10	8	0.06	19	0.15	9	0.07	28	0.22	82	0.64
11	24	0.19	33	0.26	30	0.23	25	0.20	41	0.32
12	11	0.09	23	0.18	32	0.25	37	0.29	31	0.24
13	21	0.16	21	0.16	48	0.38	23	0.18	19	0.15
14	38	0.30	51	0.40	43	0.34	6	0.05	4	0.03
15	20	0.16	22	0.17	25	0.20	32	0.25	39	0.30
16	39	0.30	64	0.50	24	0.19	6	0.05	15	0.12

17	30	0.23	44	0.34	24	0.19	12	0.09	12	0.09
18	50	0.39	55	0.43	50	0.39	11	0.09	2	0.02
19	20	0.16	49	0.38	26	0.20	20	0.16	6	0.05
20	20	0.16	42	0.33	44	0.34	9	0.07	7	0.05
21	14	0.11	20	0.16	58	0.45	26	0.20	26	0.20
22	14	0.11	18	0.14	44	0.34	30	0.23	29	0.23
23	13	0.10	39	0.30	48	0.38	21	0.16	32	0.25
24	13	0.10	33	0.26	36	0.28	22	0.17	18	0.14
25	20	0.16	38	0.30	48	0.38	7	0.05	1	0.01
26	8	0.06	34	0.27	41	0.32	37	0.29	22	0.17

Table(4) Sorting of answers of the questions of Kirkuk university Higher Educ.

No	Kirkuk university									
	1- More		2- Medium		3- Little		4- Zero/ nothing		5- Not avia-lable	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	7	0.54	10	0.77	8	0.62	0	0.00	8	0.62
2	4	0.31	0	0.00	10	0.77	4	0.31	14	1.08
3	16	1.23	5	0.38	4	0.31	8	0.62	2	0.15
4	18	1.38	8	0.62	4	0.31	2	0.15	2	0.15
5	18	1.38	10	0.77	2	0.15	2	0.15	4	0.31
6	18	1.38	14	1.08	0	0.00	2	0.15	2	0.15
7	4	0.31	4	0.31	7	0.54	8	0.62	14	1.08
8	6	0.46	8	0.62	8	0.62	5	0.38	10	0.77
9	0	0.00	8	0.62	4	0.31	8	0.62	13	1.00
10	0	0.00	22	1.69	6	0.46	10	0.77	16	1.23
11	9	0.69	6	0.46	6	0.46	6	0.46	8	0.62
12	0	0.00	7	0.54	6	0.46	18	1.38	4	0.31
13	6	0.46	2	0.15	7	0.54	16	1.23	2	0.15
14	12	0.92	6	0.46	14	1.08	1	0.08	0	0.00
15	0	0.00	8	0.62	4	0.31	19	1.46	6	0.46
16	14	1.08	12	0.92	8	0.62	0	0.00	0	0.00
17	6	0.46	12	0.92	14	1.08	2	0.15	0	0.00
18	5	0.38	12	0.92	12	0.92	4	0.31	0	0.00
19	6	0.46	15	1.15	9	0.69	1	0.08	0	0.00
20	8	0.62	10	0.77	12	0.92	2	0.15	6	0.46
21	2	0.15	4	0.31	8	0.62	10	0.77	10	0.77
22	0	0.00	9	0.69	8	0.62	8	0.62	10	0.77
23	0	0.00	4	0.31	11	0.85	9	0.69	12	0.92
24	2	0.15	10	0.77	14	1.08	6	0.46	3	0.23
25	2	0.15	24	1.85	8	0.62	0	0.00	0	0.00

26	0	0.00	2	0.15	8	0.62	18	1.38	6	0.46
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Table (5) Sorting of answers of the questions of the three universities.

No	Sum of all percentages									
	1- More		2- Medium		3- Little		4- Zero/ nothing		5- Not avia-lable	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1		0.90		1.34		1.12		0.21		1.06
2		0.56		0.34		1.06		0.55		2.06
3		1.57		0.90		0.74		0.82		0.76
4		1.88		1.15		0.79		0.40		0.50
5		2.13		1.34		0.51		0.35		0.55
6		2.21		1.61		0.40		0.30		0.46
7		0.45		0.54		0.85		1.09		1.98
8		0.97		1.13		1.06		0.60		1.19
9		0.26		1.12		0.63		1.10		1.56
10		0.13		2.01		0.72		1.23		2.25
11		1.00		0.94		0.93		0.90		1.12
12		0.18		0.91		0.98		1.87		0.81
13		0.76		0.56		1.25		1.56		0.45
14		1.36		1.22		1.70		0.24		0.11
15		0.26		0.90		0.79		1.97		1.00
16		1.55		1.74		1.10		0.19		0.19
17		0.88		1.53		1.61		0.31		0.24
18		1.07		1.61		1.55		0.49		0.13
19		0.77		1.80		1.24		0.38		0.14
20		0.94		1.42		1.57		0.37		0.59
21		0.43		0.69		1.44		1.12		1.06
22		0.30		1.05		1.24		1.06		1.10
23		0.27		0.99		1.45		0.98		1.28
24		0.40		1.35		1.64		0.78		0.48
25		0.51		2.50		1.25		0.16		0.09
26		0.15		0.75		1.09		1.95		0.78

'Positive Obligations' Doctrine of the European Court of Human Rights: Is it Cogent or Obscure?

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Abstract

Over the last half century, positive obligations jurisprudence of the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) has been playing a pivotal role in sculpting European Human Rights system. There is, however, some potential for disagreement on whether it is an effective and well-established doctrine or not. On the one hand, the activeness of the ECtHR brings about some practical benefits in order to keep out with new societal context, but on the other, unique tensions (e.g., underestimation of state's margin of discretion, increasing burden on state, inconsistencies and uncertainties of verdicts) in the implementation of that doctrine give rise to anxieties about its cogency. Since this issue is quite multifaceted, this paper aims to elucidate in what ways positive obligations doctrine is justified and to what extent it has been deliberate while deriving positive obligations regarding Article 2. At the end, it asserts that without positive obligations doctrine, the Convention might be outmoded and ineffective. However, despite some immature aspects of it, the Court at least strived to dynamically interpret the Convention thanks to this doctrine. For this reason, it is claimed that considering existing and possible benefits of that doctrine, common legitimization for the judicial creativity of the ECtHR might be assured in foreseeable future.

Keywords: Positive Obligations Doctrine, Margin of Discretion, European Human Rights, Right to Life

Introduction

As it is well known the first section of the Convention, consisting of Articles 2 to 18, identifies a list of major rights and freedoms. If any of these articles are taken together with Article 1, then these provisions bring about a set of duties on the State. More precisely, Article 1 transforms the declaration of these rights into a range of obligations for the Council of Europe states by stating that "The high contracting parties shall *secure* to everyone within their jurisdiction the rights and freedoms defined in the section one" (Ovey & White, 2006, p.18).¹

What is meant by the word "secure" was not explicitly defined. However, it is eventually admitted that since the negative obligations refer to "duties of restraint", to place states under only negative obligations will not be enough to "secure" these rights (Fredman, 2006, p.1). Then, it is proposed that Article 1 comprises a "double obligation" which means states are no longer merely being required to refrain from interfering with individuals' rights (negative rights); they are being needed to take steps or direct actions to protect those rights (positive rights) as well (Dickson, 2010, p.203 and Ovey & White, 2006, p.20). Yet, as determining whether positive obligations exist or not, the Court has to regard to the fair balance that must struck between the competing interests of the individual and broad community.² In this context, it is widely criticized that if the rights require positive obligations to be ascertained, then lesser protection will be available for applicant regarding that right (The Law Society, 2003, p.2). Thereby, even if the judicial creativity of the Court is admitted, some problems in practice draw attention. Before examining them, this paper begins by explaining general reasons of the positive obligations and then it goes on illustrating their reflections into real cases.

What justifies 'positive obligations' jurisprudence?

¹ See. Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (European Convention on Human Rights, as amended) (ECHR) art 1 (emphasis added).

² See for. ex., *McGinley v United Kingdom* (1998) 27 EHRR 1 para.98 and *Powell v United Kingdom* (1990) 12 EHRR 355, para. 41

In fact, the ECtHR has solely interpreted and applied explicit positive obligations in the Convention, not derived additional ones from apparently negative obligations until the 1970s (Mowbray, 2004, p.227). However, it has more assertively derived implicit or implied positive obligations through purposive interpretation of the ECHR after that period. To understand the root causes of that process, the main premise of this paper is that positive obligations doctrine stems from three main factors namely: (a) deficiencies in the system, (b) the nature of the Convention itself and (c) the evolving characteristics of the Court.

To begin with, deficiencies in the system mean the problematic distinction between positive and negative obligations and less reference to socio-economic rights. In this sense, it is claimed that since the interdependency and indivisibility of all human rights has been affirmed over time, the Court has further laid stress upon implied positive obligations of the Convention in due course (Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, 1993, para.5). Therefore, this problematic distinction is disappeared and socio-economic rights are mentioned more than earlier. Also, the nature of the ECHR refers to subsidiarity and solidarity principles. In line with these principles, the Court has more actively reiterated the primacy of the State to secure the Convention rights. At last, the dynamic characteristics of the Court points out that owing to the increased complexity of the societies and a higher rigidity in assessing breaches of principal values in democratic states, to ensure properly running human rights system has become more challenging (Harris and Warbrick, 2009, 71). Thereby, the ECtHR began to strive for not only “the prevention of destruction” but also “the construction of better rights framework” (Dickson, 2010, p.204). In this context, this section mainly seeks to analyse these factors in detail.

Deficiencies in the system

The first critique to the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) is that it has limited association with socio-economic types of rights and what states should/have to do. Thereby, both the limited extent of the rights and overwhelmingly negative obligations in its nature are interpreted as the significant hindrances on the way of effective system. O’Gorman (2011, 1836) also draws attention to that problem by contending that the ECHR, except the right to education, only consists of civil and political rights.

Admittedly, social and economic rights cannot be guaranteed by state’s inaction. For instance, a homeless person’s need of sheltering cannot be met by the imposition of only negative obligations. Due to this reason, socio-economic and cultural rights seem to be more demanding as compared to civil and political rights. Thus, they thought to be positive in nature whereas the civil and political rights thought to be negative.

Furthermore, on Dickson’s view, the distinction between these rights results from the wording of two different international covenants on which these rights are modelled (2011, p.204). More precisely, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights is premised upon “Everyone has right...” model whereas International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights adopts “The States Parties recognize that...” model. Accordingly, it means that to ensure socio-economic and cultural rights is a decision left to high contracting state’s own free will. Nonetheless, since the Convention is not inclusive enough to guarantee socio-economic rights, the Court has called for more activist state to take some affirmative tasks over time.

Additionally, blurring distinction between negative and positive obligations has been emphasised to resolve these problems and this situation eventually led to a unity amongst different types of rights. The reason behind the unity was that each right can only be ascertained by the protection of one another. For instance, Sen (1987) illustrated that “political freedom may have close connection with the distribution of relief and food to vulnerable groups”. This example demonstrates that the existence of a political right is highly-attached to the guarantee of a socio-economic right.

Likewise since there is no water-tight division separating socio-economic rights from civil and political rights, the claim about limited scope of the Convention was refuted by Merrills (1993, p.94). Also Shue (1996, p. 54, 60) stated that “all basic rights involve threefold correlative duties”¹ namely: “to avoid depriving, to protect from deprivation and to aid the deprived”. Hereby, the Court stressed that positive obligations are inherent in the convention itself, so each right by its nature requires not only negative but also positive obligations.

The Nature of the Convention

¹ H Shue, *Basic Human Rights: Subsistence, Affluence, and US Foreign Policy* (2nd edn Princeton University Press, New Jersey 1996) 54

Subsidiarity and solidarity principles were the basic principles of the ECHR. As solidarity principle has emphasised the role of Contracting Parties to secure the rights, subsidiarity principle has undertaken the Court to be supplementary to the adjudication organs of domestic legal systems (Ovey & White, 2006, p.18). Thereby, since these principles strengthen the efficiency by division of labour technique, the escalation of state responsibility and the judicial creativity of the ECtHR were unavoidable.

Due to these principles, the Court has felt the necessity to stress the importance of the State as an “*Initial Protector*” and it has strengthened its role as a monitoring mechanism.¹ It also reiterated that unless the remedies are exhausted at home, the plaintiff cannot bring the case to the ECtHR. In conclusion, the Court has imposed a positive duty on States to ensure an effective national remedy system.

Besides, the Court aimed at the compatibility between state’s jurisprudence and the Convention. By this way, states structurally adjust their system to make their enforcement mechanisms more operative. Consequently, these principles have provided not only faithful state intention to secure rights but also less workload and chance to discover national courts view for Strasbourg.² Then, the inventive positive obligations jurisprudence of the Court could be justified by the nature of the Convention.

The Evolving Characteristics of the Court

Initially, the Convention aimed at providing judicial resolutions rather than imposing positive obligations (Fredman, 2006, p.1). However, while contracting states are pursuing greater unity by protecting and further realising rights and freedoms, societies have turned out to be too complex for an exclusively passive approach to rights and freedoms (Dickson, 2010, p.204). Accordingly, the Court has transformed itself from being “a factory churning out thousands of judgements each year” to “an institution that can make a real difference to the lives of people throughout the continent” (Dickson, 2010, p.205).

To exemplify, in *Artico v Italy*³, the Court points out that “the Convention is intended to guarantee not rights that are theoretical or illusory but rights that are practical and effective”.⁴ It demonstrates that European Court aims at becoming a *constitutional court* which goes beyond dealing with the allegations of human rights violation (Dickson, 2010, p.205). Briefly, the dynamic character of the Court, which aims at keeping up with new societal context, has become another stimulus for the positive obligations doctrine.

Positive Obligations Arising from Article 2 of the ECHR

Article 2(1) requires that “Everyone’s right to life shall be protected by law”.⁵ This expression consists of both negative and positive aspects of an obligation namely: (a) a negative duty to refrain from the unlawful killing and (b) a positive duty to “protect” right to life through procedural and operational measures. Even if these measures were not defined in the Convention, the Court has developed them through its jurisprudential justification. Accordingly, these measures might be interpreted as indicators of evolving nature of both the Convention and the Court.

More precisely, as indicated in *McCann and Others v the United Kingdom*⁶, “...a general legal prohibition of arbitrary killing by the agents of the State would be ineffective in practice...” because there was no procedure to scrutinize the justification for the use of lethal force in domestic legal system.⁷ Although Article 2(2) defines absolutely necessary criteria for the deprivation of life when the variability of human conduct is considered to formulate a far-reaching convention for a modern society is difficult to achieve. Consequently, the Court imposed a range of positive obligations through its judicial creativity.

¹ See. *Handyside v The United Kingdom*, (App No 5493/72) (1976) 1 EHRR 737 para 48 and N J Blake & L Fransman, *Immigration, Nationality and Asylum under the HRA 1998*: Nature of the Convention: the key concepts of state responsibility, the subsidiary role of the Court, positive and negative obligations, and vertical vs horizontal effect (Lexis Nexis Butterworths, London 2009)

² Ovey and White (n.1) 19

³ *Artico v. Italy*, (App No 6694/74) A/37 [1980] ECHR 4 para 33

⁴ *Artico v. Italy*, para 33

⁵ See. Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (European Convention on Human Rights, as amended) (ECHR) art 2

⁶ *McCann and Others v the United Kingdom*, (App No 18984/91) (1995) 21 EHRR 97

⁷ *McCann and Others v the United Kingdom*, para. 161

This paper discusses them under three headings namely: (a) the planning and supervision of operations; (b) preventive and protective measures; and (c) the investigation of killings.

Planning and the Supervision of Operations

Due to being a subsidiary organ, the Court has participated into human rights protection mechanism merely through contentious proceedings. Nevertheless, since security or civilian forces did carry out their operations with lack of appropriate care and precaution, they justified the positive obligations jurisprudence of the Court.

To begin with, in *McCann and Others v the UK*, claimants alleged that the deliberate lethal shootings of Mr McCann, Ms Farrell and Mr Savage by British Special Air Service members violated Article 2(2) of the Convention.¹ Also, they claimed that Article 2(1) imposes a positive duty on state to give adequate training, briefing and instructions to its security forces and to supervise any action which might contain lethal force.² The ECtHR examined these claims and held that the killings of these people, even if their terrorist activities constitute a threat to state, was not proportional official response with appropriate care in organization and control.³ On Mowbray's view (2004, p.9), this case depicts the Court's eagerness to assess the care taken by the security forces of member states in carrying out operations.

However, in *Andronicou and Constantinou v Cyprus*⁴, although MMAD officers had shot Leteris with 25 bullets and Elsie with 2 bullets during a rescue operation, the Court did not think that this operation was disproportional. The Court surprisingly was of the view that the authorities acknowledged this was a "lovers' quarrel", so the use of guns was not actually intended in the implementation of plan.⁵ On the Court's view, the authorities opened fire to prevent the worst possible eventualities.⁶ Thus, the Court rejected the claim that "the rescue operation was not planned and organised in a way which minimised to the greatest extent possible any risk to the lives of the couple".⁷ When this verdict is compared with the former one, it can be stated that some inconsistent applications occurred and thus the Court's doctrine is loosely legitimized.

Additionally, the ambit of positive obligations regarding supervision of operations is extended from security forces operations to civilian forces operations in due course. For example, in *Avsar v Turkey*, the Court did draw attention to the possible risk of using civilian forces in a quasi-police activity.⁸ At the end, the government was found liable for the acts of those forces. Thereby, it is noticeable that the protection of the right to life requires not only "criminal-law enactment" but also many other "affirmative actions" by officials which are imposed by the Court (Mowbray, 2004, p.15). Consequently, the Court has scrutinized many different aspects of state operations by its positive obligations doctrine.

Preventive and Protective Measures

As interpreting the Convention, the Court has highlighted that states have a duty to provide appropriate protective and preventive operational measures to the individuals who are under a real or immediate threat. For instance, in *Osman v United Kingdom*⁹, the Court pointed out that the ECHR might impose a positive obligation on a member state to protect an individual from the criminal acts of one another.¹⁰ Thus, the ECHR does not only have vertical effect. Due to positive obligation jurisprudence, the Convention has been applied with both vertical (state to individual) and horizontal effect (individual to individual) in due course.¹¹ Moreover, the *Osman v United Kingdom* coined "*Osman Test*" term into the legal literature. It is considered as an important test to measure the risk of real or immediate threat.¹²

¹ *McCann and Others v the United Kingdom*, para. 145

² *McCann and Others v the United Kingdom*, para. 151

³ *McCann and Others v the United Kingdom*, para. 212

⁴ *Andronicou and Constantinou v Cyprus*, (App No 25052/94) (1997) 25 EHRR 491

⁵ *Andronicou and Constantinou v Cyprus*, para 183

⁶ *Andronicou and Constantinou v Cyprus*, para 185

⁷ *Andronicou and Constantinou v Cyprus*, para 186

⁸ *Avsar v. Turkey*, (App No 25657/94) (2001) 37 EHRR 53 para. 414

⁹ See, *Osman v The United Kingdom*, (App No 23452/94) (1998) 29 EHRR 245 para. 116

¹⁰ *Osman v The United Kingdom*, para. 115

¹¹ See, *Costello-Roberts v United Kingdom*, (App No 13134/87) (1993) 19 EHRR 112

¹² See, *Hertfordshire Police v Van Colle* [2008] UKHL 50 (30 July 2008)

At the same time, the Court indicated that “an obligation must be interpreted in a way which does not impose an impossible or disproportionate burden on the authorities”.¹ Thereby, the Court has acknowledged the capacity of the states in terms of resources and priorities and strived to impose attainable targets for officials. This situation may contribute to jurisprudential justification.

Moreover, protective measures may necessitate providing medical services to some extent. However, since the economic resources of countries hugely differ, it constitutes a big challenge on the way of establishing minimum health care provisions. For instance, in *Cyprus v Turkey*², although the Court admitted that if a State endangers an individual life by denying health care, an issue might arise under Article 2; it denied that Turkish authorities deliberately withheld medical services to Greek Cypriots and Maronites.³ Moreover, it stated that “it does not necessary to examine...the extent to which Article 2 of the Convention may impose an obligation”.⁴ The word ‘extent’ illustrates that the Court does not impose a certain standard for countries, it just reviews the failures. Thereby, Mowbray (2004, p.26) thought that positive obligations regarding health care provisions are “at early stage of development”. Considering possible economic burden on state, specifying a standard might be hard to achieve. For this reason, many aspects of positive obligations derived on this matter seems to be quite weak.

The Court also thinks that to provide sufficient information regarding possible threats is another state responsibility. For instance, in *Oneriyildiz v Turkey*⁵, the claimant lost his family members due to methane gas explosion and the Chamber stated that “government authorities had failed to comply with their duty to inform the inhabitants of the Kazim Karabekir area of the risks they were taking by continuing to live near a rubbish tip”.⁶ Additionally, in *Budayeva and others v Russia*⁷, the Court has further elaborated this obligation. Although the media had informed civilians about potential risk of mudslides, the Court decided that there was a “substantive” violation of the right to life due to “the authorities’ omissions in implementation of the land-planning and emergency relief policies in the hazardous area of Tymauz”.⁸ Therefore, the Court has gradually widened its positive obligations doctrine by imposing new duties to the States.

Investigation of Killings

The Court imposes procedural and institutional investigative duties on states both in the public and private spheres when an individual is killed or disappeared in life-threatening conditions. *Mccan and Others v the United Kingdom* was the first case which implies the necessity of the investigation by state when an individual is killed by the agents of state.

Following cases have further extended the positive obligations jurisprudence by initiating new elements. For example, *McKerr*⁹ and *Jordan*¹⁰ emphasised the importance of seeking and recording the facts regarding the fatal incidents to ensure “public confidence”. Furthermore, jurisprudential legitimization has been provided for this positive obligation through the judgements of the Court. For instance, in *Kelly and Others v the United Kingdom*¹¹, the Court indicated that main purposes of making inquiries are to effectuate the implementation of domestic laws and to make states more accountable for killings and disappearances occurred under their jurisdiction.¹²

The key elements of a proper investigation were specified by the Court while criticizing improper inquest of killings by states. In *Mccan and Others v the United Kingdom*, the applicants claimed that (a) police investigation was not independent; (b) police did not trace or interview with all eyewitnesses; (c) the Jury might had close connections with the military; (d) usual scene-of-crime procedures were not followed and so on.¹³ In the light of these claims, the Court has developed key aspects

¹ *Osman v The United Kingdom*, para.116

² *Cyprus v Turkey* (Application no. 25781/94)(ECtHR, 10 May 2002)

³ *Cyprus v Turkey*, para. 219,221

⁴ *Cyprus v Turkey*, para. 219 (emphasis added)

⁵ *Oneriyildiz v. Turkey* (App no 48939/99)(2004)41 EHRR 20

⁶ *Oneriyildiz v. Turkey*, para.75

⁷ *Budayeva and others v Russia*, (Appnos. 15339/02, 21166/02, 20058/02, 11673/02 and 15343/02) (ECtHR, 20 March 2008)

⁸ *Budayeva and others v Russia*, para 158

⁹ *McKerr v. The United Kingdom*, (AppNo 28883/95) (2002) 34 EHRR 553

¹⁰ *Hugh Jordan v The United Kingdom*, (App no 24746/94) (2003) 37 EHRR 52

¹¹ *Kelly and Others v the United Kingdom*, (App no 30054/96)[2001] ECHR 40

¹² *Kelly and Others v the United Kingdom*, para 94

¹³ *Mccan and Others v the United Kingdom*, para. 157

of inquiry. Thereby, in *Brecknell v the United Kingdom*¹, the compliance of the State is measured according to the elements of (a) independence, (b) effectiveness, (c) accessibility to the family and public scrutiny, (d) promptness and reasonable expedition.²

Also, in *Nachova and others v Bulgaria*³, the Court reiterated that more rigid obligations will be necessary when a violent act is prompted by racial prejudice.⁴ Thus, these cases demonstrate that since the beginning duty to investigate is evolving. The Court has been striving to provide effective remedies to Article 2 violations and not to bring about onerous burden on states. Nonetheless, Chevalier-Watts (2010, p.721) states that even if the Court provides a fair balance between the burden on state and practical method of ensuring Article 2, "it will always be subject to constraints in its ability to enforce or demand regime change in a liberal democracy".⁵

Conclusion

In sum, when the Court has taken the lead to mitigate the problems arising from the European Human Rights system, the ambit of positive obligations jurisprudence has unprecedentedly broadened in due process. However, owing to the uncertainty and inconsistency in the implementation of that doctrine deep concerns have been raised about its cogency. Another anxiety was that these obligations might be underestimating state's measure of discretion and leading to onerous burden on states. Also, it is contended that while many positive duties have been laid down by the ECtHR on Article 1 of the Convention, such obligations did not arise in relation to all provisions and they are loosely justified (Campbell, 2006). Therefore, it is asserted that the positive obligation jurisprudence of the Court still does not demonstrate a "principled and systematic commitment" to all of the rights defined in the ECHR (Dickinson, 2010, p.207). For this reason, this paper preferred to examine main positive obligations derived regarding one of the most fundamental rights, right to life, and concluded that positive obligations doctrine has some impotent and vague aspects.

On the other hand, as indicated by Mowbray (2004, p.5-6) the Court's positive obligations jurisprudence is a natural result of "...dynamic interpretation of the convention in the light of changing social and moral assumptions".⁶ Additionally, even if the obligations of state appear to increase, state's role is correspondingly shifted from "rowing to steering", and therefore it may have mechanisms to share its burden (Osborne & Gaelber, 1992). In this regard, the belief was that without positive obligations doctrine, the convention might be outmoded and ineffective; however, despite immature aspects of that doctrine the Court has at least strived to prevent it. Therefore, once the relevant rights become practical and effective in practice, common legitimization for the judicial creativity of the ECtHR might be assured in foreseeable future (Mowbray, 2004, p.207).

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³ *Nachova and Others v Bulgaria*, (App nos 43577/98 and 43579/98) (2005) 42 EHRR 933

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⁵ J Chevalier-Watts, 'Effective Investigations under Article 2 of the European Convention on Human Rights: Securing the Right to Life or an Onerous Burden on a State?' (2010) 21(3) Eur J Int Law 701, 721

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The European Union as a Normative Power on the Example of the EU-Turkey Relations

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to analyze the normative power of the European Union in the relations with Turkey and to answer the question: is the normative power of the European Union effective in relations with Turkey? The work consists of three parts. In the first one, the author analyzes the concept of the European Union as a normative power. The second part is a historical analysis of the relationship between the EU and Turkey. The last part is an analysis of current relations between the European Union (as a Normative Power) and Turkey. The analysis is based on EU's documents.

Keywords: Normative Power, The European Union, Turkey, Soft Power, Principles of The EU

Introduction

The European Union is one of the most important actors in international relations. It is influenced by various factors which come from the outside but at the same time it significantly influences this environment itself. Consequently, the EU has many possibilities of impacting the shape and the course of phenomena and processes which take place in the world. Possibilities which are brought by this impact result from, among others, having a specific potential in a variety of areas (Milczarek, 2005, p. 9). The size of the EU's potential in specific areas affects the scale of the relationship that the organization holds with other actors in international relations. Depending on the type of relationship, the EU partners see it as a significant ally, competitor or opponent (Milczarek, 2003, p. 33).

Actions of the European Union in international relations are not conducted by force, but through peaceful and democratic standards. The civic power of the organization can be characterized by the superiority of diplomatic cooperation and by the resolution of problems and progress in international politics by using transnational institutions (Manners, 2002, p. 236-237). Taking into account the key concept of the civilian role of the European Union on the international stage, attention is drawn to the fact that the EU differs from the traditional great powers because of its unique normative character.

One of the first authors who characterized the normative vision of the European Union's foreign policy was Ian Manners. In 2002, he formulated a concept of the European Union as a normative power in international politics (Reichenbach, p. 1). Manners tried to prove that the scope and scale of international actions of the EU can be explained by the concept of the EU's normative power. This concept underlines the EU's need for shaping its global policy. The normative power of the European Union is the power of ideology, opinion, and standards which are set by it. The organization in relations with other entities reaches out to the norms and values which are written in the treaties. The EU not only promotes them but also shows how to implement them (Piskorska, 2013, p. 8). In 2002, Manners pointed out five norms which were included in numerous documents. These are peace, freedom, democracy, rule of law, human rights. In subsequent years, they were supplemented by four more, namely: social solidarity, non-discrimination, sustainable development and good governance (Reichenbach, p. 2).

Normative Power Union - European Identity and Turkey

The Shaping of the European Identity

European identity is the result of many centuries of the achievements of European nations. Its composition clearly distinguishes it from the African, Asian and, to a large extent, the nations of both Americas. The identity of Europe was largely created in relation to the Orient. The basic features of Europeanity were shaped by the West-East dichotomy, and the struggle to resist "barbarism" and Islam (Łastawski, 2008, p. 12).

The triad of European identity consists of the cultural tradition of ancient Greece, the legal tradition of ancient Rome, and Christian universalism (Judeo-Christian traditions). In the past, some "barbarian" traditions also influenced those "European", including Slavs, Normans, Germanic and Celtic peoples. Characteristic values derived from Germans are recognized by the researchers as honor, equality and solidarity, whereas for Slavs freedom and self-government.

Other European values have evolved over the centuries. They are formed by well-developed national cultures, political pluralism, party and trade unionism, established democratic principles, a broad range of human rights (including the prohibition of death penalty), respect for human reason, the rule of law, the separation of church and state (Łastawski, 2008, p. 12).

According to Art. 2 TEU The European Union "is founded on the values of respect for human dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and respect for human rights, including the rights of persons belonging to minorities. These values are common to the Member States in a society in which pluralism, non-discrimination, tolerance, justice, solidarity and equality between women and men prevail" (**Consolidated version of the Treaty on European Union**). A similar entry can also be found in the preamble to the Charter of Fundamental Rights (CFR), which states "The peoples of Europe, in creating an ever closer union among them, are resolved to share a peaceful future based on common values" (The Charter of Fundamental Rights). As regards the foreign policy of the European Union Art. 3 sec. 5 TEU states that the Union in external relations "shall uphold and promote its values [...] contribute to peace, security, the sustainable development of the Earth, solidarity and mutual respect among peoples [...] and the protection of human rights". On the other hand, a member of the EU can remain "any European State which respects the values referred to in Article 2 and is committed to promoting them" (Art. 49, **Consolidated version of the Treaty on European Union**).

The concept of European Identity within the Framework of the Essentialist and Constructivist Approach

Collective identity can be analyzed through two approaches. The first one is the essentialist approach which treats the issue of identity as an essential characteristic of a given social group. This is something that can be considered as its unchanging essence. The basis here consists of the belief in common origin. This is the reason for the supporters of the essentialist concept to seek the real (historical) basis of cultural identity (Skrzypczak, 2010, p. 206). The second one is the constructivist approach which defines identity as the effect of the creation process (or even as the process itself). Within this approach, identity is not considered as an existing entity, but as something that is created and is a subject to change.

European identity is, therefore, not easily defined by an essential (ethnic) approach. The reason for this is the fact that the European heritage, through which it would be possible to construct this identity, is too diverse. The identity of Europeans is also difficult to build in relation to one and common to all "significant other". This could be, for example, Islam. However, at the same time a common identity would be built on an "antagonistic and anti-Islamic" basis.

The issue of European identity can be explained somewhat differently in the case of constructivist insights. In this case, identity is understood as a common European project and its place can be found in the entire spectrum of diversity. Because of its place of origin or cultural heritage, any entity cannot be excluded. However, this is not the reason for the lack of borders as regards the question of recognizing someone as a European. Europe is a process of constructing a community through joint action. Therefore, it must be based on common, negotiated, fundamental principles, rights and values.

It is, therefore, necessary that these values are not mutually exclusive and that every potential member may be involved in the community through them (ec.europa.eu). The European Union is a negotiated project. Its implementation requires acceptance of values. The EU Values Area is defined in the Treaties and the Charter of Fundamental Rights and defines the conditions for joint building of the European Union, as well as its European identity.

The Identity of Turkey and the European Union

Since the beginning of the European Union, its membership has been conditioned by "democratic credentials". Over time, identity has become also increasingly important. According to some researchers, the overwhelming majority of EU members have created a discursive framework through which their identity can be integrated into the so-called "Supra-nationalist" European identity and this framework does not include any state outside the European circle (Barker, 2012, p. 18).

In the creation of European civilization, the Roman Empire and Christianity played a constructive and unifying role. Identifying someone as a European is not just about living in a given region of the world but also about sharing and practicing common traditions, histories, norms and values. Membership in the European Union is considered to be "the most

significant determinant of Europeanness” (Bac, Taskin, 2007, p. 38), while Member States have a common understanding of common heritage.

According to some scholars, Turkey cannot be considered a state that shares its Christian heritage and rationalistic traditions (recognized as the basis of European identity). For the opponents of this reasoning, it is important that the Byzantine and Ottoman empires also influenced the shape of Europe. By contrast, with Atatürk's reforms Turkey has chosen the European orientation, its political institutions and the idea of a secular state (Litzo-Monnet, Penas, p. 7). However, in the history of Europe, the Turks have always been recognized as the so-called “other”, whereas Turkish/Ottoman influences (like Arab or Jewish) have been seen as foreign influences. Therefore, it is difficult to incorporate them into a common culture and religion that shapes what can be defined as the European heritage and European identity (Tekin, 2005, p. 292).

Buzan and Diez noted that further EU integration with Turkey would jeopardize the social and political self-identification of both of these subjects (Litzo-Monnet, Penas, p. 292), whereas Kevin Robins believes that Turkish culture “disturbs the order of Europe” and that as a some sort of “hybrid” it still does not meet the European standards (Robins, 1996, pp. 65-66). However, according to Bahar Rumelili, the construction of dichotomy between Europe and Asia, as well as the West and Islam, which are two contradictory and mutually exclusive identities, has been a cornerstone in the European Union's relations with Turkey. Such divisions have caused Turkey to become “*partially itself, [partly] and partially the other part*” (Rumelili, 2008, p. 102). Turkey is a country of contradictions located on two continents where the society of Islamic majority exists together with the Western concept of secular state, based on the rejection of the Ottoman and Islamic heritage.

The Turks are a nation strongly attached to their identity, and adopting European patterns could become a threat to them. For Turkish citizens, integration with EU structures is a mean of tackling poverty and economic problems rather than abandoning their own cultural heritage (Szkudlarek, 2012, p. 264).

In a Eurobarometer survey in May 2015, 40% of Turkish respondents said that Turkey's membership in the EU would be “bad” for the state (a 5% increase compared to the Eurobarometer survey 6 months earlier). However, 55% of respondents agreed that Turkey would benefit from EU membership (19% more than in the previous survey). By contrast, 36% of the respondents claimed that the country would not benefit from the membership (dailysabah.com).

On the other hand, European citizens see Turkey's membership in the European Union as a cause for concern over “turkification”. It is understood as the cultural expansion of the Turks, who after the accession would have exactly the same rights as citizens of the EU member states. It can be assumed that the fear of “turkification” is not as much a result of aversion to a foreign culture (although it cannot be ruled out, despite the fact that many Muslims have been living in EU member states for years) as some uncertainty about the number of Turks who could come to Europe after Turkey's accession to the Union. The hallmark of “turkification” is the universality, which means the mass phenomenon of importing unlike European cultural patterns which are not always accepted by the Europeans (Szkudlarek, 2012, p. 264).

Turkey's relations with the European Union

Turkey has already applied for membership in the European Communities in 1987. However, the answer to the accession was negative (Gwiazda, 2005, p. 3). There were indications of numerous irregularities in the political, social and economic spheres (Ciechurska, 2014, p. 103).

In December 1999 in Helsinki, Turkey became the official candidate for the membership of the UE (Szymański, 2008, p. 7) and, like the rest of the candidates, the state was involved in the pre-accession process. The pre-accession process was primarily concerned with the need to introduce reforms, mainly in terms of political criteria and human rights issues (Ciechurska, 2014, p. 104). In “Accession Partnership” adopted in March 2001 by the EU Council, the main issue was the abolition of the death penalty and the signature of Protocol 6 to the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR). Regulations on this matter were finally adopted on 8 May 2004 by The Grand National Assembly of Turkey. The new provisions introduced in the Basic Law did not allow any case of death penalty (“*no one can be sentenced to death penalty*”, Article 38 (7)) (Szymański, 2008, pp. 108-111).

In 2003, the European Commission in its Strategic Document stated that Turkey was able to speed up the pace of reforms and make decisive efforts and progress towards compliance with the Copenhagen Criteria. It has also been noted that considerable progress has been made towards achieving economic criteria. On the other hand, the task that was given to

Turkey was the continuation of progress towards the fulfillment of the *acquis* criteria because in spite of many changes further efforts would be necessary (Üçer, 2006, p. 211).

The decision to start the accession negotiations was made at the Brussels summit in December 2004. This was in line with the plan of 3 October 2005 after Turkey fulfilled two preconditions (Jurkowska, 2009, p. 12). The first condition was the enlargement of the Protocol extending the EU-Turkey customs union (the EU-Turkey customs union have been in force since 1 January 1996) (Gwiazda, 2005, p. 3) to 10 more EU Member States. This condition has been fulfilled, however, Turkey has claimed that the extension of the customs union to Cyprus does not imply recognizing it as a state (Jurkowska, 2009, p. 16). Condition two was the entry into force of six pieces of legislation, including the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Criminal Code.

Values or European interests in relations with Turkey?

For many years, the accession process of Turkey has been in the state of stagnation. According to some researchers, the situation was “comfortable” for the EU. The customs union between the EU and Turkey (since 1996), which opened up the markets, has brought much greater benefit for the Community than for the other side (Czachór, Graś, 2006, pp. 210-211). It was only at the moment of the immigration crisis which began to be faced by the European Union that some moves towards strengthening the mutual relations were made. On 29 November 2015 an EU-Turkey summit was held (Rada Europejska, 2014). At the summit the need to “revive” Turkey’s accession to the EU was and deepening of bilateral dialogue was recognized. During the meeting sides agreed on the issues of acceleration of visa liberalization between parties. The European Union has declared the abolition of visas for Turkish nationals even in the autumn of 2016 if certain conditions are met (including the implementation of the readmission agreement by Turkey which was supposed to happen in June 2016) (IAR/PAP, banier.pl).

The decision to organize an intergovernmental conference finally took place on 14 December 2015. The 17th edition of the “Economic and Financial Policy” Accession Negotiations, which was the first “new” technical point, was agreed upon after almost a two-year break (pl.sputniknews.com).

On 14 April 2016, the European Parliament adopted a resolution on Turkey. It defined Turkey as a “key strategic partner for the EU”. Of particular note was the reception and protection of about 2 million Syrian refugees by Turkey. The resolution also supported the idea of making Turkish one of the official languages of the European Union (EurActiv.pl).

However, already in the April 2016 in the report on the subject of Turkey, the European Parliament (EP) expressed deep concern about the deviations from respect for democracy and the rule of law. It was claimed that the overall pace of reforms in this country in recent years has decreased significantly. Visible regress has been noted in areas such as the independence of judiciary system, freedom of assembly, freedom of expression, respect for human rights and the rule of law. As a result, Turkey has got farther from meeting the Copenhagen Criteria (European Parliament, 2016). There was, however, a revival in the negotiation process and it was hoped that the opening of new chapters would lead to actual progress. Turkey has also been called for “real involvement” in this area. The report supported the idea of a more frequent and open high-level political dialogue on key issues including migration, the fight against terrorism, energy, trade and the economy.

The important issue highlighted in this resolution is the postponement of the publication of the European Commission (EC) report on Turkey’s progress with respect to the elections held in that country in November 2015. It was judged to have been a bad decision which left an impression that the European Union “*was ready to be silent on the violation of fundamental rights in exchange for cooperation with the Turkish government on refugees*” (European Parliament, 2016). The European Commission has also been asked to publish progress reports in accordance with a timetable and findings. They also urged the Commission and the Council not to ignore the internal turmoil in Turkey and, independently of other interests, clearly expressed their respect for the rule of law and fundamental rights in the country as specified in the Copenhagen Criteria (European Parliament, 2016).

Summary

Contrary to the view of Western media that the Turkish people adopted democracy in its European meaning, the people of Turkey began to oppose the announcement of the alignment of the legal or political system with EU norms. The process of Europeanisation, characterized by intense cooperation between authorities, began to face difficulties within these reforms

which aimed at making Turkey resemble member states of the EU. The Turks over the years, without a guarantee of success, have been fulfilling the criteria (tightened from time to time by the EU institutions). However, after some time the attitude of Turkey started to be characterized by discouragement and fatigue in response to the situation created by Brussels. As a result, further Europeanisation of Turkey may not be possible. The reason for this situation does not have to be found in the suspension of the membership negotiations by the EU side or the reluctance towards achieving membership on the side of Turkey.

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Free Zone or Processing Area for Export

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Abstract

Some countries apply as primary fiscal facilities the "Free Zone"; some of them guarantee contract for investors, investor protection, the reduction of bureaucracies, the partial state capital, providing incentives for every employee and other promotional policies. In theory, the goal is very clear for their creation. The attraction of strategic investors, improvement of the technology, providing jobs, fast movement of goods and capital, increase of competitiveness, increase of economic cooperation between the border countries and other chain effects, lead with economic growth and development in a country. The last 8 years in Albania, have been approved 11 Decisions of the Council of Ministers, for the Establishment of Economic Free Zones that today is called: "Technology Zone and Economic Development". Some questions that will be treated in this topic, are based on the official data of the respective institutions. What are these decisions? What was the primary purpose of the 2008-2009 policy, where the development strategy was based on the free zones revolution? Who were the winners of these competitions? What extent is today in these areas of investment, what is the number of employees drawn up to date? Which could be a competitive bidding package for boosting foreign investment?

Keywords: Free Zone, Fason, Technological Zone, Industrialization, Economic Development

Introduction

Free Zone

According to the World Customs Organization (WCO) revised by the Kyoto Convention, the definition of free zones is as follows:

"A part of the territory contracted to the parties, where all goods entering the country, in respect of import duties and taxes, are considered to be goods outside the customs territory".

In fact, the definition and interpretation for different countries varies according to the concept and characteristics on which they are created. The aim has started with trade development, following by modernization of the concept and continues with the industrialization of countries and further with general economic development.

Free zones have been a very important factor promoting a country in the international market and to realize a real economic growth. Many of these in the border areas has provided high opportunities for economic cooperation by development decentralisation in the country in terms of creation of new innovative centers. In this way, it ensures not only the distribution of incomes but also the labor force that is provided both managerial and professionally. Mainly the Free Zones aim to industrialize the country as the source of multi-beneficiary economic-financial development.

Romania has approved the Law of Free Trade Zones in 1992, where 159 companies operate in the production, packaging, storage and trading sector. The distribution of these areas has their purpose such as: trade development and economic cooperation with the neighbors. Their distribution is made in border areas, for example Sulina, Constanta-Sud, Galati, Braila, Giurgiu, Curtici-Arad, which are Roman border countries with Hungary, Bulgaria, and Moldavia with broad stretch of coastline.

Romania's incendiary policies consisted in bringing new investors to create and manage leasing structures between juridical persons up to 49 years in warehousing sector and reducing customs procedures for re-export material.

Bulgaria has approved the law on investments in 1987 for up to 3 years, and it has implemented 5 industrial parks and 7 free areas where are conducted re-export, production, technology and financial activities. Tax exemption for investors has been applied for a period of 5 years. All imported goods, entering in the free zone and having purpose: producing, storing and packing for export are exempt from VAT and customs duties.

Free zones creation has attracted high-level investments such as Hyundai Co., Daewoo Co., KIA Motors, CITCO, Schawartskopf, Henkel, Landmark Chemicals Ltd., Schneider Group, BINDL Energic Systeme GmbH. The condition for these investments is to be completed within 3 years.

Turkey has approved the law in 1985. There are created 21 free zones in order to increase investment in the pharmaceutical, textile, storage and electronics industries. Tax liberalization has been applied as a major advantage to investors, excluding 100% from profit tax, income tax, interest or dividend tax, exemption from customs duties on goods, equipment and machinery.

Greece has an early experience through the main ports of Thessaloniki, Piraeus, and Heraklio since the 1930s. The focus of this strategy consisted in approaching all merchant ships or not, their services in logistical expansion at the international level.

It includes a number of traditional cargo terminals, tools, basic repair ship, and warehaus space. In these areas has been applied the processing export system, exempt from all taxes.

Croatia has applied 15 free zones in 1996, in approaching foreign investments and enhancing the welfare by offering jobs in less developed countries. Investors are exempt from profit tax for 5 years, while for the users is applied a 50% discount on the profit tax. In Croatia according to the law, are defined the specific criteria in each concessional contract, between Investor and the Ministry of Economy. Also infrastructure investments are foreseen separately to be fairly proportionate to central and local government. The investor who develops the free zone, participate in the infrastructure investment, is excluded from the profit tax for 5 years, as well to the user is applied the reduce of 50% of the profit tax.

Montenegro has approved the law since 2004. It consists in relying on the approach of foreign investors, opening new jobs and making the competitive country in the Balkans. No deadlines or fiscal incentives have been set up and no regulation has been adopted for the establishment of economic zones and there is no strategic territorial and technical-economic plan. It has been created, only, the Bar Area with a surface of 200 hectares.

Macedonia has approved the law since 1999. There are created three free economic zones in Tetovo, Stip and Skopje. The main goals of political initiatives have been: economic development, introduction of advanced technology and promotion the foreign investors.

Macedonia has offered large fiscal incentives for free zones. Among other things, the activity in the free zone pays ZERO profit tax, 50% personal income tax, ZERO construction tax, and ZERO cost for water, energy, and gas. The deadline for rent the land is 50 years, renewable for other 25 years. Within the free zone the services are exempt from taxes.

Serbia has approved the law since 1994. There have been applied 13 free zones. The political purpose continues to be, the encouragement of foreign investors in the country as well as the increase in the number of employees. The most sensitive sectors in these areas are: clothing, materials and packaging. Macedonia offers tax cuts but not their removal. Her strategy is focused on reducing bureaucratic procedures and an active duty-free processing system.

Macedonia has offered many fiscal advantages from these countries, but also reduced procedural bureaucracy and is regarded as the most competitive country in the Balkans regarding the free zone incentives. While other countries offer natural advantages such as geographic position, and political stability.

Free zones in Albania

The law for Free Zones was drafted at the beginning of the transitional period in 1991. His approval was reached on 15 February 1996, with a new look for the country's economy. That was qualified as the engine of economic development, and this law was based on the goal of general economic development and in particular with the growth of employment.

Law no. 8072, dated 15.02.1996, was replaced by Law no. **8636, dt.6.7.2000**, a law generally improved in the sense of promoting nature, since, among other things, excluded investors for 10 years from the profit tax.

The promotion of this law at international business roundtables has turned into a media outlet that was very important to foreign investors, who showed a special interest. This brought in Albania a large number of the big world businesses of American, Italian, Turkish, Greek etc. The European Bank for Reconstruction and Development was present in the

conception of free-area in the country. But this conception had the next hurdle. Changes to this law in parliament, no later than six months, made controversial the sustainability political balance in the service of safe investments.

The Article 18, point 3, which excluded 10 years of business from the profit tax, was canceled. The "Free Zone Operation Regulation" was approved in December 2003, which did not give a result, so it did not work. Following the reforms of new governance after 2005 and concretely in 2007, the Law on the Establishment and Functioning of Economic Zones was amended by law no. 9789 date 19.07.2007.

Independent economic institutions are an important tool for converting political indicators into economic and social indicators. The creation of the National Free Zone Entity, was considered to be abolished, as a legal entity, which did not have a development impact on country versus developing policies for free zones up to job vacancies.

During 2015, was created the Economic Zone Department in the Ministry of Tourism of Economic Development, Trade and Entrepreneurship, in the Directorate of Public Property Administration. The mission of this sector is the implementation of the rule of law, which has his mission, to create an attractive business environment for foreign investors and local enterprises, in function of the economic growth of the country, also the establishment and improvement of the legal basis for reactivating existing economic zones and to create new economic zones as well as their functioning, supervision and monitoring.

It began a remarkable work on the concentration of foreign investors in Economic Zones in Albania from this year. This includes many advantages.

The improvements in law have been and are always necessary, but sometimes spoil the balance of sustainability. However, the following changes are very positive with Law no. 54/2015 that consisted in the procedures of obtaining licenses in a very short time, within 15 days, as well as the deepening of fiscal facilities, following the amendment of the relevant regulation in early 2016.

Advantages

The advantages offered by economic zones are closely related to their type. The policies of their creation are encouraging and characterized by the advantages that they offer. As mentioned above, different countries use different indicative indicators for attracting investors.

The increase of incomes from abroad is the primary economic element that offers the growth of money circulation in the country. Also, the employment and training of the labor force is the primary social element offered by the respective policies. Above I mentioned some of the advantages offered by Balkan countries for investors in free zones. A multi-mix strategy of political treatment of new investors in free zones or in the facilitated sectors has been created from a fiscal and procedural point of view in our country. Recent changes of the law provided more advantages in terms of economic zones, also significantly increasing the political concentration in promoting this law and approve of concrete free zones.

Today, the economic Zones in Albania offer a comprehensive political and fiscal support, not only lower facilities and taxes, but also in terms of functioning and logistical. Among the static advantages that our country offers, as a connecting bridge between Eastern Europe and the Balkans, were joined by several other fiscal elements as follows:

Users and developers are exempt from paying 50 percent of the tax rate for the first 5 years, when they start their activity in that area;

Users and developers that invest in the free zone, within 3 years from the date of starting the economic activity in area, are recognized as deductible tax expenses 20 percent of annual capital expenditures, regardless of amortization amounts, according to the law for income tax, for a 2-year period;

The supply of Albanian goods destined to be placed in the area is considered to be a supply of zero scale export, in accordance with the provisions of the Law on Value Added Tax and Customs Law;

The developer's project is excluded from infrastructure tax;

Buildings in this area, according to the developer's project, are exempted from the property tax for a period of five years;

Users of developers of the area are exempt from taxes on the property transference tax;

Expenditures of salaries, social and health contributions that are paid by the employer are recognized at 150 percent of the value during the first fiscal year of the activity. In the following years, additional wage costs, in relation to the previous year, are recognized as expenses at 150 per cent of the value;

Employee training costs in technology and economic development areas, are recognized as expenses with double value for the tax period for 10 years from the beginning of the economic activity;

Expenditure on research and development is recognized as a double-digit expense, for a period of 10 years from the beginning of the economic activity.

Restrictions

Fiscal facilities offer an international competition for fiscal treatment. For this reason, many countries apply restrictions to maintain the parameters of their economic and financial indicators.

In some countries, the criteria for investors in free zones determine the type of company for legal liability. It means that who does not belong to that responsibility, should be subject to change the commercial liability, or to register the company according to the defined criteria;

Sometimes we see restrictions of the activity in free zones through branches or in foreign companies that are often encountered. These restrictions, is more related to the image of the company and creating consolidated financial systems controlled and supervised than create an additional cost for entrepreneurs, increases the legal responsibility to the administration by distributing it in some levels of supervision, and preventing threats to potential threats. But in the case of branches and affiliates as a restriction, the primary purpose is the origin of capital and the second purpose profit distribution;

Investor's transactions that are located in free zones, are bound to co-operate only with free zone operators inside or outside the country in order to benefit from the advantages of fiscal treatment. This limitation offers a static attitude of the entrepreneur. Flexibility is related to the additional fiscal cost and other legal norms;

Restriction of foreign ownership in the company's capital is another limitation applied to the treatment of free zones. These are cases of developed and industrial countries that do not liberalize capitals but offer supportive policies for their citizens by combining know-how values with financial ones of new investments;

Determining the boundaries of the invastation is a criterion used by all applying countries in the free zones;

The obligation to continue the activity through resident companies of the product or service in the country where they operate. Other constraints inhibit companies with high development potential. But they help to distribute the welfare of some operators simultaneously;

For countries that do not enjoy free movement, it is foreseen the number of visas for foreigners work, in order to use the labor force in the country.

As well as compiling the characteristics of free zone treatment policies, we take consider both of them: benefit and cost analysis. After that we see the balance of interest of the sole purpose of their profit.

In our case, it is clear that the line and legal infrastructure has been reached after a nearly 20 years of a qualitative, but not administrative, quality in the framework of planning, monitoring, and financial oversight.

Investments and Employment in Free Zones

In Albania, have been announced 9 economic zones, of which 8 are industrial parks and 1 free zone. The table below shows the relevant data per year, the value of the investment and the number of employees applied to obtaining the rights. The investment for all these projects presented against the guarantees issued for the expected investment results to be zero. Consequently, the contract criteria have not been fulfilled for the number of employees, and other income related to taxes and tariffs.

Big names in the business world are contracted as investiture, referred to countries with high reliability from the features, representing serious view, based on guarantees and experiences which are proven before the sign of the contracts. Even this, the investments have not been yet realized and employment is not reached from these companies. It is further

understood that the lack of tax revenues for years could have arisen from these investments, including employment, caused damage and other economic development opportunities.

	Type	Place	Year	Legal Basis	Surface, ha	Investor	Origin of investor	Activity	Value of investment Eur	Nr of employment	Today status	Completed investment
The lack of investor seriousness and the lack of legal ownership do not present any cause for not penalizing until the cancellation of these contracts and the opening of new competitions with well-proven strategies in these areas. There is a good zonal distribution spreading south and north of the country. The decision for the present challenges on these issues has not been taken. The key factor remains the change every 4 year of the government or the political parties in government												
1	PI	Koplik, Malesi e Madhe	2008	VKM nr. 12, date 4.01.2008	61	"Industrial and commercial areas Koplik" shpk	Italian	manufacturing confection, trade and services	18,519,539	16,374	contract breakdown	0
2	PI	Lezhe	2008	VKM nr. 11, date 04.01.2008	3.2	"ATX-Internazionale" shpk	German	production light and processing industry.	17,054,152	3,000	contract breakdown	0
3	PI	Vlore	2008	VKM nr. 774, date 04.06.2008	125	"IDEA VLORA"	Albanian	Commerce, logistics services, manufacturing	20,819,797	18,586	contract breakdown	0
4	PI	Elbasan	2008	VKM nr. 776, date 04.06.2008	254.7	Without information					repealed	0
5	PI	Spitalle, Dumes	2008	VKM nr. 391, date 21.02.2008	850	Repealed						0
6	ZL	Vlore	2009	VKM nr. 628, date 11.06.2009	478.1	Zumax AG	Switzerland	container port	1,200,000,000	10,000	renegotiate contracts	0
7	PI	Shkoder	2008	VKM nr. 775, dt.04.06.2008	137	lack of offer		Commerce, industry, manufacturing and services	lack of offer	lack of offer	repealed	0
8	PI	Lezhe	2009	VKM nr. 81, dt.27.01.2009	54.3	The hall Lezhe	Albanian	Commerce, industry, manufacturing and services	Without information		repealed	0
9	PI	Laknes, Tirane	2009	VKM nr. 790, date 22.07.2009	9.48	Mane TCI	Albanian	Commerce industry and services	Without information		expansion	0
10	PI	Rrushbull, Dumes	2012	VKM nr. 105, date 9.2.2001	16.52	environment		Commerce, industry, manufacturing and services	13,000,000		revocation phase of VKM	0
11	PI	Spitalle, Dumes	2016	VKM nr. 262, date 06.04.2016	199.7	"Zhejiang Haiteng Investment Co., Ltd" dhe "Beijing Dongnan Tongbao Technology Co Ltd"	Chinesse	Manufacturing, industry and processing of food products, trade and services	1,400,000,000	90,000	In process of investment	0
TOTAL INVESTMENT											ZERO	
TOTAL EMPLOYMENT											ZERO	

* VKM - The decision of the Council of Ministers

FASON Package

In 2013, in Albania, the Free Zone bundles were considered a failure of the past. Afterwards, the thought was related a special package with multiple facilities for entrepreneurship that were active in production under the active processing regime. The performance of the sector was quite problematic, where the entrepreneurs themselves often through conferences were directed to governance with multiple requests to be considered for them.

Export values from 2009 (47.72%) compared to 2013 (29.45%) have been down, while opportunities to increase production and exports were high, based on the advantages that the country offers as low production costs and logistics.

The initiatives that were taken by the government:

Procedures and symbolic tariffs 1 Euro were defined for land or building services for investors in the fason sector;

There were applied custom's administration facilities, allowing service delivery even after official working hours;

The procedure for obtaining authorization was simplified and the time limits were reduced;

The VAT reimbursement procedure was simplified by making reimbursement within 30 days and without control by allowing increased liquidity of operators in this sector;

Online registration for any legal act obligation on the company's at the National Registration Center and activation of the registration within 8 hours;

The ability to retrieve the online extract of the company;

Reimbursement of VAT on fuel without the need for certification by the responsible institution;

The possibility of instant verification with 1 Euro for those who apply and meet the criteria;

Grants from the Investment Development Agency;

The only window for mediation in the service of solving the problems of the sector;

Promoting them at international fairs and other forms of indirect action;

The right to apply for a three month trial period training without payment of contributions;

Grants for each new employee, up to one year unpaid contributions and 4 salaries paid by the state;

Funding up to 70% of training costs;

Low-interest financing through agreements with KfW or Italian Cooperations up to € 39 million for technology line;

Exclusion of VAT to purchase the machinery and equipment;

Other facilities to consider are:

Taking a "FASON" card which serves for customs, taxes and police checks. With this card it becomes easier to introduce in service at any desk;

Withdrawing the profit tax for "FASON" which declaring that they do not want to benefit from funding schemes or grants in employment. (Equality between those who benefit and those who do not benefit and the reduction of corruption for access to funds in case of existence);

Eliminating the bureaucratic barriers, and replacing it with the FASON card;

Creating a Register of Trainees in the FASON system according to the type of training and deadlines;

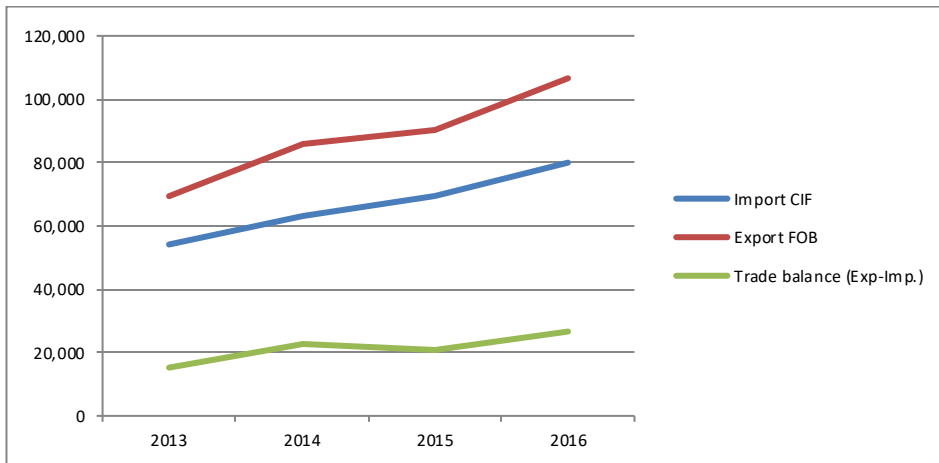
Creating Clusters Economy, where in a given area are created closed cycles of production of a final product;

Collaboration with the same customer, logistical cooperation and a reduction of the respective costs also in terms of marketing and more;

Creation the professional centers for training and technical assistance for the sector.

After setting up this package, this industry started with big steps. This made almost doubling exports and increasing employment from 28.058 to 100,000 after 3 years. The table below shows the trade balance in the textile and shoe sector, which are the most influential.

million ALL	2013	2014	2015	2016
Import CIF	54,130	63,004	69,300	79,971
Export FOB	69,374	85,936	90,091	106,608
Trade balance (Exp-Imp.)	15,244	22,932	20,791	26,637



* The data was taken from INSTAT

This graphic shows Import (CIF), Exports (FOB) and Trade Balance in the Textile and Footwear sector in Albania during 2013-2016 in million ALL. It is not including the leather sector which has a positive impact, further increasing the result in this sector.

* 1 Eur is eq. to circa 134 leke.

Conclusions

The strategy of free zones development in Albania was not mature for 2008. There was a great lack of laws to guarantee the investor's security and the solving of the property problem, which are now reduced and improved through the adoption of the law 55/2015 "On Strategic Investment on the Republic of Albania" and Law 93/2015 "On Tourism".

A long-term technological development strategy for the minimum of 10 years is needed in the service of political stability and the provision of a serious image for serious investors in Albania.

There should be a study of the creation of free zones with current investors, where the investment has not started. Also to offer PPP opportunities, or two-party solution with special contracts against the exemption from any payments for the years of investment, by approving in silence any necessary or other permits.

The decision to cancel the contracts must be taken, for unrealized investments for the contractors, who didnt reach the investment conditions not because of state barriers.

Focus on the criteria of free zones in the CLUSTER- economies, where investors operate as complementary to each other until the final product is met.

The development effects are more vulnerable and effective to smaller economies through policies focused on small and medium-size investors, such as the FASON system.

Entrepreneurs needs more facilitation on procedures than economic one.

Bureaucrats remain the strongest enemy of investors

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